

# 11 2018

Special issue

International Journal

of

**MULTILINGUAL  
EDUCATION**

"International Journal of Multilingual Education" No.11 was dedicated to the International Conference "SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING / ACQUISITION IN THE CONTEXT OF MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION" held on February 15-17, 2018. The best reports were presented on the conference by the authors of the articles.

**Conference was organized by**

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University (Georgia)  
Tartu University (Estonia)  
Center of Civil Integration and Inter-ethnic Relations (Georgia)

Conference was financed by Shota Rustaveli National Foundation (Georgia).

**Project Director:** Dr. Giuli Shabashvili (TSU)

**Project Co-directors:** Dr. Kersti Lepajõe (UT), Dr. Shalva Tabatadze (CCIIR)  
**Coordinator of the Project:** Dr. Kakha Gabunia (TSU, CCIIR)

**Guest editor:** Dr. Giuli Shabashvili (TSU)

**Scientific committee:**

Prof. Olivier Mentz, Dr. Ekaterina Protassova, Prof. Vilia Targamadze, Ligita Grigule, Dr. Kersti Lepajõe, Dr. Pille Põiklik, Pāvula Inga, Prof. Manana Rusieshvili, Dr. Rusudan Dolidze, Dr. Izabela Petriashvili, Dr. Eter Ghvineria, Dr. Kakha Gabunia, Dr. Giuli Shabashvili, Prof. Nana Gaprindashvili, Prof. Darejan Tvaltvdze, Dr. Nino Sharasheidze, Dr. Natia Gorgadze, Dr. Ketevan Gochitashvili.

## Content

Bagashvili Zurab, Transition from passive to active vocabulary in the context of teaching by communicative methods .....	1
Bagration-Davitashvili Nino, The Types of the Qualifying Words in Pairs in Georgian and Their Teaching to Non-Georgians .....	7
Bepievi Naira, Learning a Second Language / the grammatical difficulties of teaching .....	13
Chkuaseli Ana, Methods and Strategies for Studying Georgian as a Foreign Language by the First Europeans .....	19
Demetradze Irina, Linguistic and Communicative Competence: Coping with the Typical Errors of Georgian Learners of English .....	27
Gochitashvili Ketevan & Shabashvili Giuli, The issue of “false friends” in terms of learning a foreign language (Using the example of Georgian and English languages) .....	33
Hirschi Kevin, Intonation and Word Stress in Georgian EFL Learners’ Utterances: does Praat Training Help? .....	42
Khvedelidze Mzia, Jinjikhadze Levan & Jinjikhadze Jemal, Integration of the Georgian Language and Mathematics in the Bilingual Teaching System .....	56
Kikvadze Maia, The importance of stress and intonation in the process of learning Georgian as a second language .....	66
Kikvidze Zaal, The Language Situation, Sociolinguistic Profile Formulae and Bi- and Trilingual Ballot Papers .....	71
Popiashvili Nino, The main issues connected to teaching the Abkhazian and Ossetian languages between the 20s and 50s of the XX century .....	74
Protassova Ekaterina, Multilingual Education and Family Language Policy .....	85
<i>Rusieshvili Manana, Gabunia Kakha &amp; Petriashvili Izabella, Multilanguage Strategies in Tertiary Education (Using the example of Georgia) .....</i>	<i>95</i>
Saginadze Rusudan, Teaching Verb Person Relation to Non-Georgian Speakers .....	99
Sanikidze Inga, The principal methods of teaching the second language and the ways of its practical realization .....	104
Shavtvaladze Nana, The Art of Persuasion in a Multicultural world The problems and Challenges of Mother Tongue .....	109
Tabatadze Shalva, The problems and Challenges of Mother Tongue Education in Abkhazia .....	115
Targamadze Vilija & Kriauciūnienė Roma, The Place of Values in Plurilingual Education: A University Teachers’ Viewpoint .....	132
Todua Ana & Chumburidze Rusudan, Integrated Learning of the Georgian Language and Civic Education within the “1+4” program .....	149
Totibadze Sopio, The Role of Mother Tongue in Second Language Acquisition .....	154
Vashakidze Iamze, Towards some issues of teaching Georgian as a state language to the minorities of Georgia (Azerbaijanis and Armenians) .....	160

**Bagashvili Zurab**

*Grigol Robakidze University, Georgia*

## **Transition from passive to active vocabulary in the context of teaching by communicative methods**

### **Abstract**

In the learning process of any foreign language the most important factor is to learn the vocabulary of the language. Learners first form the passive knowledge of the lexis and after this they put it into practice through communicative speech functions. In order to make any passive vocabulary active, stable and fast, communicative teaching methodology is based on speaking skills, developing knowledge realization process. This problem is connected with attaining the second foreign language intensively. Besides methodological attitudes, opinions differ about defining a daily amount of vocabulary to be learnt by language learners:

1. The first issue is how many new words should be appropriate to be learned in the case of 1 or 2 days of intervals.

2. To determine whether there is a methodological necessity to strictly define the amount of new words, taking into account context and phrasal expressions.

Considering language level competences (A1 C 2) we should determine the most used language environment (bank, public service hall...), appropriate amount of vocabulary and divide it into a monthly, semester or annual index. We should also take into account the time set for learning and objectives of the curriculum: what time is allotted to language learners to fulfill their aims: a) crash course for language learners; b) ordinary course unfolding during the semester. For the first case the amount of words to learn can be 20 - 25 to be given every other day over 16 weeks. In other words this can be distributed over 4 months. As for the second case, students should be given 10 - 12 words each day and this course will last 8 months. In order to make this vocabulary active swiftly, the amount of new words and lesson material should be appropriate to the learner's competences. The most important here should be oral practice and communicative approaches, dialogues and simulation situations. Very effective would be using the Callan Method, that is focused on learning language grammar and vocabulary to the B2 level. The objective of this work is a discussion of the formation of the active vocabulary process in the aspect of communicative methodology and working out recommendations for its methodological improvement as given below: a) Defining the most frequently used Georgian vocabulary according to the different levels, as well as the amount of new words and the content from lesson to lesson. b) Taking into account lexicological principles in creating textbooks for Georgian Language Learners and defining the amount of university (school) curriculum hours. c) Working out methodologically the possibility of putting into practice teaching Georgian similarly employing the Callan Method and its scientific principles. Conducting practical experiments and, if the results are efficient, considering it to be preferable.

**Key words:** *Second language education; vocabulary of the language; Callan Method.*

In the learning process of any foreign language the most important factor is to learn the vocabulary of the language. Learners first form the passive knowledge of the lexis and after this they put it into practice through communicative speech functions. In order to make any passive vocabulary active, stable and fast, communicative teaching methodology is based on speaking skills and a developing knowledge realization process. This problem is connected with attaining the second foreign language intensively. Besides

methodological attitudes, opinions differ about defining a daily amount of vocabulary to be learnt by language learners:

1. The first issue is how many new words should be appropriate to be learned in the case of 1 or 2 days of intervals.
2. To determine whether there is a methodological necessity to strictly define the amount of new words, taking into account context and phrasal expressions.

In my article I use quantitative and observational methods during 18 years of uninterrupted teaching of Georgian as a second language, I have had an opportunity to observe different linguistic and age groups and to come to the conclusions discussed below.

One methodology has an influence over another. Communicative methods were worked out by teachers and linguists who were dissatisfied with the results of audio linguistic, grammatical and translating teaching methods. They were convinced that students weren't able to adopt language as properly as they should have. The students were unable to communicate using the necessary social language, expressions and gestures. Consequently they were confused about how to use a language in the native cultural environment of the language. The interest and development of communicative language teaching methodology emerged in the 70s of the last century. Using the adopted language and conversation in classes, when students were involved in the real communication with one another became very critical.

In the communicative language teaching process teachers use real situations, that creates the need for communication. A teacher creates a situation that makes the students imagine real life events. Different from the audio linguistic method, that is based on the repetitions, this communicative method encourages students to wait for real results, the results of the exercise that they do in class, and depends on their activity and involvements in the process. Simulation situations vary from day to day. The motivation of studying the language depends on the students will to communicate about common everyday situations. According to Merge any language represents an interaction, it's the verbal communication between individuals and is closely related to the society. From his point of view in the language learning process the most important is using the language according to the real context (we mean what is mentioned previously and after the statement), and according to the social and situational context (who is speaking, what social status they have, why did they gather together to speak about it etc.) (Merge, 1991).

Students generally communicate with their own language structures. For instance, a non-native Georgian speaker, who learns Georgian, creates phrases with errors. It's the result of thinking in the native language to make the sentence in Georgian. The vocabulary and the grammar of their language are deeply contrasted from the language they learn. In that case students create so called "inter-language system" and try to learn the language according to it.

Grammatical method that helps to make correct grammatical constructions is a part of developing "inter-language system", but it is not as perfect as in the case of adopting grammatical rules incorrectly, the statement construction made by the student is wrong anyway. The audio method is not as perfect either as the student might not be able to acknowledge the habit or the manner of speaking or still make mistakes.

The method that was perfect in this area is the communicative method. This method is used together with grammatical and audio linguistic methods, as the method supports the student to create a correct inter languages system and speak correctly and fluently in the new language. The teacher makes efforts in order not to speak themselves, but to force the students to practice speaking as much as possible.

It's essential for language teaching not to make it monotonous and intermediately oriented. Language constructions can be created in advance but they can be made spontaneously as well. Language is never static. Lessons should be improvised, without previous preparation, and natural. Spontaneous and improvised exercises help listeners to develop memory. Alternative means are very important as well, such as changing the subject of the conversation and so on. Discussing newspapers, magazines, some verses, new programs, telephone directories, videos, films, current affair news etc. is also very fruitful.

---

The communication method doesn't exclude learning dialectical terms or slang in the learning process. In this case the most important is learning issues defined in the syllabus and not the whole textbook. The textbook might be used as additional material. The teacher should define themselves which exercises, points or phrases should be practiced.

There exist various views about remembering new words. **Shtal** recommends the teachers to use the "context and definition" strategy in teaching new vocabulary, as well as synonyms, antonyms, affixes, the roots of words, classifications and others. (**Shtal, 1986**)

Baumann, J.F., & Kameenui, E.J. define three levels of the word learning process, that clarify the depth of understanding of a word and help the teacher to select the proper method. These three levels are known as associational level, understanding level and using level. A student, who has competences in the associational level, can connect a new word to certain definitions or context. As for the second level the student hears the new word, can name a synonym, antonym and define the word's grammatical category. The last using level of the word enables the student to select a new context for the new word (e.g. enables them to make a new sentence using a new word) or give the definition of the new word using the vocabulary they already know. (Baumann, J.F. & Kameenui, E.J. 1991, p. 201).

There are many methodologists working on the issues today. According to **John Dowly** upgrading the new vocabulary depends on the understanding of the word's definition and its meaning in a certain sentence.

John Harmony (1991) describes 8 means that are most often used in teaching new vocabulary. These means are as follows:

synonyms; short description; examples; no examples; periphrasis; repletion; association; using special words (meaning contexts or different context).

Defining the amount of new vocabulary in the Georgian language should be based on a different principle from European languages.

Remembering nouns or other parts of speech is easy compared to the verb itself. Although there must be defined several psycholinguistic factors that are especially important when learning Georgian as a foreign language.

- a) Concentrating on the associational meaning of the word and remembering by this mean (we mean what the word remembers for you, like onomatopoeia).
- b) How popular the word is and how frequently it is in use. Frequently used words are more important to learn than those that are rarely used.
- c) The efficiency of remembering vocabulary depends on how close it is to the age and consciousness of the learner. Accordingly, a child or a youth can remember words better if they are interesting in them rather than those that are not familiar for their world.

As Georgian is an agglutinative language and not inflexible or fundamental, the amount of the new vocabulary given to learn by heart should be different. And using English in this way as an example language would be inadvisable.

During my long teaching experience I found out that at language learning centers, schools or high schools teachers don't focus on the gradual increase of the amount of new words that are given to students for learning. They work according to the basic principle and force their students to learn all the new vocabulary that is given in the new material.

Generally, it seems logical, but a student might already know some of the words and it will hinder the process of vocabulary learning... everyone knows there are 500 English words, knowledge of which enables you to attain basic communicative language (A1 - A2 levels) ... The kinds of these models would be appropriate for Georgian teachers and textbook authors to work out appropriate methods of teaching, wouldn't they?

It's worth mentioning that the textbooks that we already have for Georgian language learning include upgrading new vocabulary on a daily basis, but they mainly concentrate on the thematic principle and functional grammar. At the time when these textbooks were written, teaching Georgian as a foreign language was a new subject and due to the agglutinative nature of the language, authors couldn't consider the proper amount of new vocabulary to be given to the students, with respect to the English or Russian languages.

Principle difficulties for foreigners are as follows:

Agglutinative language is formed by affixes;

The Georgian verb is polyvalent;

The Georgian language is rich with affixes: forms that help to form words;

A Georgian verb has 11 screeves, 4 voices a complex system of participles... root changing verbs according to number and person.;

system of the screeves of the Georgian verb makes it difficult to learn the verb and the sentence generally;  
cases - ergative case is the case of the subject.

English language learners study 10 lexicological units from lesson to lesson. The word "love" is among them. They already know at the time what are the personal pronouns such as I, you, he etc. .. and it's not difficult for them to understand and learn how to use these words in sentences: I love you, You love me, He loves her.... But it's very difficult and different from the Georgian language. We say: მე მოყვარხარ, შენ გოყვარვარ, მას უყვარს... The initial verb as the infinitive in English changes its form completely, an auxiliary verb is added, that is not known to the language learners. Let's compare due to the sound amounts: სიყვარული - მოყვარხარ, the root has changed, the common part here is "ოყვარულ", that is absolutely confusing for the learners. If we put the verb in the past indicative, we get the word "ყვარებოა ... „ყვარ" is the part that remains the same and the changes are very confusing.

We have to define the most used social environment according to language competences (A1-C2) (bank, public service hall...) , the appropriate amount of lexicological units and divide this number by monthly, semester or annual units. We have to take into account the time budget for learning and curricular goals : what is the time determined for the language learners to study the language, these are: a) fast course of learning the language and 2) "ordinary" course determined in the academic semester.

If we take the first course the amount of new words that the students should study is 20-25 words every other day for 16 weeks (4 months in the long run). As for the second course (ordinary) the amount of words should be about 10-12 from lesson to lesson and the duration of the course should be 8 months. To put all this vocabulary into practice, from passive into active, as quickly as possible, the theme and the amount of new vocabulary should be defined according to the level of the language learners. Communicative attitudes and speaking practice should be the highest priority in the learning process and dialogues and simulation situations should be used... Very effective would be using the method similar to the Callan Method, that is focused on learning language grammar and vocabulary to the C2 level.

What are the main characteristics of the method?

Teaching by the Callan method gets the students deeply involved in the learning process. This is a structurally strong and efficient program that is divided into 12 stages. The listeners are in the center of the process. The students are given opportunity to speak the language as much as possible. A teacher asks a lot of questions, that stimulates students' attention. This method maintains gradual progress in grammar and vocabulary learning.

This method involves asking and answering questions at high speed. The teacher asks a question and the student answers the question with the teacher, but the teacher always precedes the student for less than a second time. This method develops thinking directly in English without translation from the native language and also speaking reflexively in the language.

High speed of the lesson, constant repetition of the vocabulary and fast questions develop the students' minds, stimulation of the students' memory, keeping the received knowledge in the mind for good that helps students to speak English fluently.

The method of correcting mistakes is also different. The mistake made by a student is corrected immediately, that excludes remembering wrong pronunciation of words.

The Callan method teaches students not to answer the question, but to make the sentence, controlling proper vocabulary and sentence structures. It's the direct method of teaching the language, which involves avoiding translations as much as possible. As for the communicative means the method uses miming and gestures. A lot of time is dedicated to repetition, not only of certain lessons but even of the whole stages. (Describing the Callan method we use the definition of the method by the British Center, 2013)

Consequently, the aim of the method is accuracy, speed, flexible thinking directly in the foreign language. Practicing this method, in my view efficiently deals the main issue in the article: putting the passive vocabulary into live speaking practice... it's the most important issue because language learners can only speak the new language using active vocabulary, not passive...

Accordingly for the development of the active vocabulary and its effectiveness, it's advisable:

- a) to determine the amount of those mostly used Georgian words according to the level and define the amount of the vocabulary and content of these words from lesson to lesson;
- b) creating Georgian language textbooks for foreigners, the authors should take into account "lexicological principles" and define university (school) curriculum amount of hours;
- c) working out methodologically the possibility of putting into practice teaching Georgian similar to the Callan Method and its scientific principles. Conducting practical experiment and if the results are efficient, considering it as preferable.

## References

- Bagashvili, 2006 - Methodology of teaching a foreign language. Zurab Bagashvili, Tbilisi, (2006).
- Bagashvili, Marika Odzeli, 2006 - Development of Communicative competences, Zurab Bagashvili, Marika Odzeli, Tbilisi, (2006).
- Baumann, Kameenui, 1991 - Baumann, J.F. & Kameenui, E.J. (1991). Research on vocabulary instruction: Flood and others, 1993 - Ode to Voltaire. In J. Flood, J. M. Jensen, D. Lapp & J. R. Squire (Eds.), Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts (pp. 604 - 632). New York: Macmillan.
- Harmon, 1998 - Harmon, J. G. (1998). Vocabulary teaching and learning in a seventh-grade literature-based classroom. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 41, 518 - 520.
- Peremena, 2002 - Перемена, (2002). Vilnius, 1.  
<http://www.britishcentre.ge>

**Bagration-Davitashvili Nino**

*Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Georgia*

## **The Types of the Qualifying Words in Pairs in Georgian and Their Teaching to Non-Georgians**

### **Abstract**

Numerous complexities come across when studying Georgian and their explanation and presentation should be given differently for Non-Georgian speakers to be easily understandable and perceptible.

The aim of this work is to present easily the models of the types of declension of qualifying words in pairs and their teaching issues.

As it is known, in the Georgian language we have two types of declension of qualifying words in pairs before and after a noun: co-ordinated or attributive and regulated or substantive. Also, it is important what position does it have in relation to the qualifying word: precedes or follows it. First of all we will discuss the cases, where the qualifying word stands in a front position, because this is actual to the modern Georgian.

Traditional classification is mainly based on formative analysis. We think it is important to present classification of syntagma considering morpho-syntactic aspects. In Georgian, except for the above-mentioned pairs, other syntagmas are allocated, which are semantically linked with each other and create certain units. It's important to note that in syntagma, in which we have qualifying words, the link between them is conditioned by modified nouns, while the qualifying word characterizes modifying words by certain signs. There is a certain semantical link between them.

We think, that while teaching existing syntagmas in language we should consider their semantics, morpho-syntactic aspects of the language, in order to make every case much more understandable and memorable for non-Georgian students.

According to above mentioned, we outline three models of the qualifying words in pairs upon the prepositional order:

1. Qualifying words with the vowel ending (qualifying word with the zero allomorphs);
2. Qualifying words with the consonant ending: sub-divided into two groups: a) transitional; b) reduced (nouns expressing the profession and the title);
3. Qualifying words introduced in the genitive, instrumental and adverbial cases, unchanged in all cases.

**Key words:** *Qualifying word, modifying word, preposition, blocked, consonant-stem words, vowel-stem words.*

### **The Types of Qualifying Words in Pairs in Georgian and their teaching to Non-Georgians**

Teaching the Georgian language is extremely relevant in our country as Georgia is a multi-lingual and multi-cultural country where the people of various nationalities densely reside and create lingual minorities. Studying the Georgian language, as the state language is paramount for their integration into the society and for recognition thereof as full-fledged citizens.

We strive to simply introduce and elucidate to them the complex issues and grammatical forms existent in the language to make the language easily receivable and memorable for them. Analysis and processing of similar issues are highly emphasized in Georgian scientific literature.

This paper aims at the system and simple introduction of the types of the qualifying words in pairs and their teaching issues.

As we know, we have two types of qualifying words in pairs in the Georgian language – coordinated / attributive and regulated / substantive.

The declension of the qualifying words in pairs differs according to the types of the qualifying word (attributive or substantive, connected, disconnected or solitary; according to the order, prepositional or post-positional; it is also important - the ending of the stem of the qualifying word).

We outline four types of the declension of the qualifying words in pairs: complete (characterized for old Georgian as in preposition so in the post-position), transitional (characterized for the current literary Georgian), reduced (when the words expressing the profession and title are used in the capacity of the qualifying words) and vulgar (found in some Western dialects).

**Complete type**

Nominative: დიდი საქმე  
Ergative: დიდმა საქმემ  
Dative: დიდს საქმეს  
Genitive: დიდის საქმის  
Instrumental: დიდის საქმით  
Adverbial: დიდს საქმედ  
Vocative: დიდო საქმევ

**Transitional type**

Nominative: დიდი საქმე  
Ergative: დიდმა საქმემ  
Dative: დიდ საქმეს  
Genitive: დიდი საქმის  
Instrumental: დიდი საქმით  
Adverbial: დიდ საქმედ  
Vocative: დიდო საქმევ

**Reduced type**

Nominative: დიდი საქმე  
Ergative: დიდ(მა) საქმემ  
Dative: დიდ საქმეს  
Genitive: დიდ საქმის  
Instrumental: დიდ საქმით  
Adverbial: დიდ საქმედ  
Vocative: დიდო საქმევ

**Vulgar type**

Nominative: დიდი საქმე  
Ergative: დიდი საქმემ  
Dative: დიდი საქმეს  
Genitive: დიდი საქმის  
Instrumental: დიდი საქმით  
Adverbial: დიდი საქმედ  
Vocative: დიდი საქმევ<sup>1</sup>

In this work, we will discuss the cases of the qualifying word in the front position, as it is relevant in the new Georgian language.

The qualifying words in pairs in the new Georgian language reveal the number of peculiarities upon declension. If the qualifying word is vowel stem and precedes the modifying word, then it has no the signs of the declension expressing the co-ordination which means that the qualifying word is non-declinable.<sup>2</sup>

For instance: პატარა ბავშვი - A little child

Nominative: პატარა ბავშვი  
Ergative: პატარა ბავშვმა

<sup>1</sup> *Modern Norms of Literary Georgian 1*, Tbilisi, 1986, 132.

<sup>2</sup> Akaki Shanidze, *Works 3*, 85.

---

Dative:	პატარა ბავშვს
Genitive:	პატარა ბავშვის
Instrumental:	პატარა ბავშვით
Adverbial:	პატარა ბავშვად
Vocative:	პატარა ბავშვო

The scientific literature reveals a different point of view in this regard. We share the opinions of T. Uturgaidze that the qualifying word with the vowel stem in the new Georgian literature no longer needs the material signs of declination in the prepositional order as the qualifying word is essentially blocked with the modifying word and the position plays the role which should be assigned to the morphological elements in the syntax relations of the qualifying words in pairs – it enhances the unequivocal link between the qualifying and the following modifying words. Correspondingly it was registered with the zero allomorphs (however, in the old Georgian language we had the full ending: წმიდა-მან მოწამე-მან, წმიდა-სა მოწამე-სა... The expression plan can drastically change at various stages of development of the language, which is related to simplification of the expression plan<sup>3</sup>

When the qualifying word encounters the threat to become the qualifying word of another modifying word, it will necessarily seek for the declination sign which is attributed to the modifying word and thus, it will restore the violated blocking.<sup>4</sup>

Hence, the qualifying words in pairs share the syntax link registered with morphological elements. If the position plays this role, morphological elements are no longer necessary.

The author provides the examples from the verse by A. Kazbegi.

გოგომ ლამაზმა წულები შემიკერაო. The beautiful girl sewed the stocks

There appears the question - What made the necessity in expressing the marker of declension? There we may have two sentences: გოგომ ლამაზმა წულები შემიკერაო (The beautiful girl sewed the stocks) და გოგომ ლამაზი წულები შემიკერაო. (the girl sewed the beautiful stocks). It should be unclear what we mean - the beautiful girl or the beautiful stocks. Correspondingly, the modifying word blocked the qualifying word due to the expression of the markers of declension.<sup>5</sup>

As to the consonant-stem qualifying word, there is shown a different picture. According to the literary norm: the full ending is given in the nominative, ergative and vocative cases; The declination marks are fully reduced in the dative and adverbial cases, and in the genitive and instrumental cases the marks are partially reduced.

The scientific literature reveals different opinions about expression of the declination marks of the qualifying word with the consonant ending.

We share the opinion of A. Shanidze that the -ო demonstrated in the genitive and instrumental cases is the residue of the declination sign instead of the nominative declination sign as it is evidently revealed in the postpositional order as well.<sup>6</sup>

---

<sup>3</sup> Uturgaidze, *The influence of the Main Characters of the Levels of the Georgian Language in the Global Lingual System*. 148

<sup>4</sup> item, 164

<sup>5</sup> item, 187

<sup>6</sup> Shanidze, *Works* 3, 83.

დიდი ბურთის - ბურთის დიდის  
დიდი ბურთით - ბურთით დიდით.

Similarly, as in case of the qualifying word with the vowel ending, the declination signs in the post-positional order are to be restored on the basis of the same principle.

We shall as well take into account that in the case of the qualifying word with the consonant ending in the reduced form (the words expression the profession or the title) do not enclose the declination sign in 4 declinations. Evidently, the process is ongoing and, in our opinion, consonant-stem qualifying words in the genitive and instrumental cases may result in the zero allomorphs with time in.

Professor Tsagareli	
Nominative:	პროფესორი ცაგარელი
Ergative:	პროფესორმა ცაგარელმა
Dative:	პროფესორ ცაგარელს
Genitive:	პროფესორ ცაგარლის
Instrumental:	პროფესორ ცაგარლით
Adverbial:	პროფესორ ცაგარლად
Vocative:	პროფესორო ცაგარელო

Other than the mentioned pairs, we can outline the so-called substantive qualifying words in pairs. The noun in the possessive case manifests the function of the qualifying word and in all the declinations in the prepositional order, it is expressed with zero allomorphs.

Wooden house	
Nominative:	ხის სახლი
Ergative:	ხის სახლმა
Dative:	ხის სახლს
Genitive:	ხის სახლით
Instrumental:	ხის სახლით
Adverbial:	ხის სახლად
Vocative:	ხის სახლო

A. Shanidze calls these pairs coordinated and also regulated. In his opinion it is regulated because the genitive case is dependent on the modifying word and coordinated because this genitive case is given as the stem and declined again<sup>7</sup>.

T. Uturgaidze rejects so-called regulated and regulated-coordinated qualifying word and notes that the -ის suffix of the so-called regulated and regulated-coordinated qualifying word cannot be recognized as the sign of the genitive case (კაცისა ძეი, ძეი კაცისა the son of the man). Here, this suffix constitutes the formation element and is followed by the declination signs: (კაცისა-0 ძე, კაცისაი ძეი, კაცისამან ძემან, კაცისასა ძესა...)<sup>8</sup>

As we presume, in this very case, the genitive case sign -ის plays the semantic function of its declination. It is closely connected to the modifying word with its semantic to the extent that it will no longer need the enclosure of the declination signs and hence, it remains unchanged in all declinations.

<sup>7</sup> Shanidze, *Works* 3, 93.

<sup>8</sup> Uturgaidze, *The influence of the Main Characters...*, 189.

We have a similar situation in the qualifying words in the Instrumental and Adverbial cases.

The semantic functions of these declinations are well known in the scientific literature.

The genitive case is used for the expression of property, purpose, materials; for the expression of action with tools, instruments we use the instrumental case; for the expression of the essence we use adverbial case. Here are given some examples:

Genitive: friend's house; friend's book; coffee cup; wedding palace; yogurt can; wooden house; golden ring.... Drinking coffee, doing tasks, making homework, cooking, painting...

Instrumental: cut with a knife, eat with a spoon, walk...

Adverbial: good trip, being healthy, happily aging, going hunting...

Hereof qualifying words in the new Georgian language are basically introduced in the prepositional order. There are the cases when the qualifying word in the genitive case can be found in the post-positional order.

In New Georgian, it may be expressed with the zero allomorphs and is ended with the -s suffix, delimitative element implementing the function of the blocker.<sup>9</sup>

But we should notice, that the norm is the Old Georgian rule yet - There are given case markers in the Ergative, Dative and Adverbial cases.<sup>10</sup>

It is as well-known that the genitive Instrumental and Adverbial case markers may have derivative function i.e. new lexical units formulated with these suffixes and may be used in the capacity of the qualifying words.

For example: creative group, brave man, first aid ...

We also meet other derivated words implementing the function of the adjectives i.e. adjectival noun.

For example: accomplished painting, scheduled deed, wealthy man etc.

They shall be put in ordinary declination similar to the qualifying words with the vowel and consonant endings.

Taking the hereof into account, we outline three models of the declension of the qualifying words in pairs upon the prepositional order:

1. Qualifying word with the vowel ending (qualifying word with zero allomorphs);

Little child

Nominative:	პატარა ბავშვი
Ergative:	პატარა ბავშვმა
Dative:	პატარა ბავშვს
Genitive:	პატარა ბავშვის
Instrumental:	პატარა ბავშვით
Adverbial:	პატარა ბავშვად
Vocative:	პატარა ბავშვო

2. Qualifying word with the consonant ending: sub-divided into two groups:

- a) transitional;

Big job

Nominative:	დიდი საქმე
Ergative:	დიდმა საქმემ
Dative:	დიდ საქმეს
Genitive:	დიდი საქმის
Instrumental:	დიდი საქმით

<sup>9</sup> item, 189

<sup>10</sup> *Norms of The Modern Literary Georgian*, 136.

Adverbial: დიდ საქმედ  
Vocative: დიდო საქმევ

b) reduced (nouns expressing the profession and the title).

Professor Tsagareli

Nominative: პროფესორი ცაგარელი  
Ergative: პროფესორმა ცაგარელმა  
Dative: პროფესორ ცაგარელს  
Genitive: პროფესორ ცაგარლის  
Instrumental: პროფესორ ცაგარლით  
Adverbial: პროფესორ ცაგარლად  
Vocative: პროფესორო ცაგარელო

3. Qualifying words introduced in the genitive and instrumental cases, unchanged in all declinations.

<b>Genitive Case</b>		<b>Instrumental case</b>	
	Wooden house		Walking
Nominative:	ხის სახლი	Nominative:	ფეხით სიარული
Ergative:	ხის სახლმა	Ergative:	ფეხით სიარულმა
Dative:	ხის სახლს	Dative:	ფეხით სიარულს
Genitive:	ხის სახლით	Genitive:	ფეხით სიარულის
Instrumental:	ხის სახლით	Instrumental:	ფეხით სიარულით
Adverbial:	ხის სახლად	Adverbial:	_____
Vocative:	ხის სახლო	Vocative:	_____

#### Adverbial case

სახელობითი: სანადიროდ წასვლა  
მოთხრობითი: სანადიროდ წასვლამ  
მიცემითი: სანადიროდ წასვლას  
ნათესაობითი: სანადიროდ წასვლის  
მოქმედებითი: სანადიროდ წასვლით  
ვითარებითი: \_\_\_\_\_  
წოდებითი: \_\_\_\_\_

## References

- Morphology of the Modern Georgian Language: Literary Language. Publisher “Meridiani”. Tbilisi, 2011.  
Norms of the modern Literary Georgian: First Collection. Publisher “Metsniereba”. Tbilisi, 1986.  
Shanidze, Akaki. Works 3. Tbilisi State University, 1980.  
Uturgaidze, Tedo. Morphological and Morpho-syntaxes Aspects of the Historical Grammar of Georgian Language. Tbilisi State University, Tbilisi.2013.  
Uturgaidze, Tedo. The influence of the Main Characters of the Levels of Georgian Language in Global Lingual System., Publisher “Meridiani”, Tbilis, 2009.

**Bepievi Naira**

*Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Georgia*

## **Learning a Second Language / the grammatical difficulties of teaching**

### **Abstract**

The Georgian language belongs to the group of Iberian-Caucasian languages whereas Ossetian is a member of the family of the Indo-European languages. There are different methods and approaches to the teaching/learning of the second language. Recently less attention has been paid to grammatical peculiarities of languages. This approach is also acceptable. On the other hand, we consider that taking into consideration grammatical peculiarities, phonetic, morphological and syntactic constructions of a language during the process of learning/teaching a second language is also necessary. Only through their usage is it possible to achieve effective and high quality results. The Ossetian language, for example, uses nominative constructions instead of ergative. Therefore, those learners of Georgian as a second language, for whom Ossetian is a native language, may face certain difficulties while learning this language. Therefore, in the process of teaching it is necessary to take into consideration these and other peculiarities of these languages, which will be discussed in this paper.

**Keywords:** *Second language, Georgian language, Ossetian language*

The Georgian language belongs to the group of Iberian-Caucasian languages whereas Ossetian is a member of the family of the Indo-European languages. There are different methods and approaches to the teaching/learning of the second language. Recently less attention has been paid to grammatical peculiarities of languages. Moreover, traditional methods of learning grammar are considered dull and boring and several methodologies have been suggested by teachers of the second language to facilitate the process: games, visualization, figures, pictures, drawings, etc. The essence of these approaches is active learning and guided teaching. First this approach was referred to as a waste of time but later it was promoted and deemed very fruitful.

This approach is also acceptable. However, it should be noted that, on the other hand, we consider that taking into consideration grammatical peculiarities of a language, its phonetic, morphological and syntactic constructions during the process of learning/teaching a second language is also necessary. How much grammatical material must be included in a program is the issue for the teachers to solve. While teaching/learning a foreign language it is important to employ the latest, advanced methodology. At the same time, it is advisable to use dictionaries, methodological books and audio-visual materials in the process of teaching. Nowadays, efficient results will only be achieved if these resources are used.

There is a number of foreign and Georgian scholarly works which support and present the language learning process in many different ways: various criteria are given and competencies are determined. It is absolutely right that "when considering the role of competencies at the advanced stages of the language learning, the pathway changes, the needs of learners and the situations in which they have to live, study and

work should be taken into account " (General European Competences 2008: 17). Of course, the increased demands on language learners encourage them to learn as effectively as possible. The learners are reluctant to memorise grammatical rules as, nowadays there are a number of practical methods employed in the process of the language learning. Specifically, there are several recommendations, such as learning 100 necessary words for the language; crash courses and long-term language teaching programs are being developed. This is also acceptable for those who have only practical goals regarding the learning of a language. We agree with that too.

In this article we mainly focus on the language programs developed by the Ministry of Education for public schools. More specifically, we consider programs which are focused on the fundamental approach to the learning and provide the student with an opportunity to learn a language fundamentally and not only for practical purposes. The ultimate goal of the Georgian language school programs as well as of national exams programs is to learn the language not only for communicative purposes, but also, to learn it academically, for professional reasons.

The knowledge of the language means not only that of its lexical and grammatical material. Our distinguished scholars in the language learning indicated teaching and learning a language not only for communication but also, for acquiring its grammatical rules.

It is correct to say that the development of the linguistic resources of the learner, envisaged in the complexity of the problem and its parameters change, is the level of knowledge and the use of grammar, vocabulary, phonology, orthography, grammatical and lexical accuracy, correctness of sentence building, as well as free speech, flexibility, relevance" .(General Competences for Learning 2008: 159).

In general, when considering the modern methodology, it is obvious that learning of grammatical rules is classed as a dated method of teaching. However, this approach should be included in the academic program of the language learning. A fundamental study of a language is impossible without focusing on grammar categories. That is why learning the old Georgian language at school must be conducted in parallel to the study of the new Georgian language.

The extent to which old Georgian language categories are employed while teaching / learning a language, is another issue. Although some of the categories in the old Georgian language do not seem to be relevant today, other important nuances are still in force: (plurality, old forms of verb prefixes employed with new ones: tsar-tsa; agh-a; shta: cha and so on).

It is known that the phonetic composition of the Ossetian language and some morphological constructions or syntactic paradigms are different to those of the Georgian language. Due to this fact, for those learners, whose mother language is Ossetian and Georgian is their second language, or, vice versa, for those learners whose mother language is Georgian and Ossetian is a foreign language, there will be some challenges while studying these languages. It is impossible to overcome these difficulties without learning grammar rules. We believe that it is necessary to take into consideration language peculiarities of the first language when learning the second language. The similarities between these languages are also distinguished.

Markers of a grammatical person in initial positions may be preceded by one or two syllables inserted before a noun, which is known as a preverb. However, the preverb is not used with all the verbs and is employed as part of the verb.

The preverb in the Georgian language has four functions: it may indicate: the direction and orientation expressed by the verb (the direction may be of five types: from the bottom up ( a-vida), from the top down ( cha-vida) - from the inside out ( gavida) – from outside into the container (shevida); overcoming the obstacle (gadavida; gadmovida); completion of the action (aspect: tsera,dastera khata, dakhata); tense (Present : tsers, Future, datsers). A preverb may form a completely different verb: (gaagona, chaagona,moagona, tsiakitxa, moikitxa, aago, daago, tsaago, moigo, etc.)

In the Ossetian language preverbs perform seven main functions:

1. To express the end of the action, aspect.
2. To express the direction of the action, orientation.

3. To express unexpectedness of the action.
4. To express great effort (laughed loudly, screamed with all one's might).
5. The action is ended.
6. To express the duration of the action (short-term, long-term).
7. The function of word formation (creation).

There are nine preverbs in the Ossetian language, by which the perfect aspect is formed. **æ-** **a-**, **pa-**, **ба-**, **фæ-**, **ны-**, **æрба-**, **с-**, **цæ-**.

- is used very rarely.

- **a** often indicates the end of the action (the perfect aspect).

УЫЙ АКУЫСТА АМÆ СТАЙ АЦЫД ХÆДЗАРМÆ (He worked and then he left home), АЗ ДЫН ХЪУАМÆ АЗАРОН (I must sing to you).

In addition, preverb **a** – with the verb indicates the direction of the action from inside to outside: **нæ уæзджытæ кæрты дуарæй ахызтысты** (our guests left through the back door).

**а- цыд** – (he/she left- indicates that the speaker is inside the container).

**a** – preverb used with a verb denotes a superficial and non-serious behavior as well as the duration of the action. For instance, **Алæууыд** (he stopped for a second). **Ахордта** (he eats fast and very little); **Акуыста** (he worked little); **акуыдта** (he cried a little);

**азарын** (he/she sings for a while); (**зарын** – sing);

**абадын** (to sit for a second (for a while));

This preverb also forms a verb: **а-раст** – went out, **а-даргъ** (long) lasted). When **a** – is used without a preposition, the meaning of the verb is not actualised.

**ра-** denotes the finished action: **райгуырдатæн** – (was born), **радзырдта** – (told us)

**ра-** denotes the action from inside to outside, when the speaker is outside: **райхъуысти хъæрзын** (was grieving).

**ра-** **цыд** (came out), denotes that the speaker was outside of the container

**ба-** denotes a completed action in the Past and Future: **хордта** (ate), **ба-нызта** (drank), **ба-кастæн** (read). **уыдон сабырæй æруынафæ кодтой** (they discussed it in peaceful circumstances).

**ба** denotes an action from outside to inside. **ба-цыд** (came in) when the speaker is inside the container.

**ба-** can form another word together with the auxiliary verb: **æнæнхæлæджы дуæрттæ байгом сты** – (the door opened unexpectedly); **изæрмæ хæхты цурмæ бахæццæ уыдзæн** – (by the end of the day he/she will have reached the mountains);

Verb prefix - **ба-** can express multiplicity and duration of the action: **ба-зоны** (wins (many times, again and again, often); **бакусы** (works (often, always, again and again);

**бакасы** (looks (several times, often) **бахуды** (often smiles to him/her).

A widely spread preposition **фæ** has numerous functions:

a) **фæ-** indicates the end of the action: **федтон**, **фехъуыстам**

b) **фæ** – the verb expresses an unexpected action, a surprise.

**хæрдмæ фæхаудтæ**, **фæздæхтæ**

c) it can also mean: duration of the action **фæдуцын** (milking), multiplicity: **æз фæхъусын** – (listen (frequent action)), repetition (**æз иу фыстон**, **фыстон иу** – I (sometimes) write); **фæдавын**- theft, to steal (frequent action); **фæкафын** (I (sometimes)dance; **фæфасын** ( I (sometimes) comb) ; **фæфæдзæхсын** (to ask, to beg (sometimes)).

d) **фæ-** indicates distance: **фæхаста** (took it far away); without **фæ-** - **ахаста** (took it) indicates a neutral action).

**фæ-лыгъди** (ran far away) (without it **фæ-** indicates a neutral action - **æ-лыгъди** (to run).

e) **фæ-** with an auxiliary verb can form verbs and word combinations: **фæсырх** (became red); **фæраст** (went out)

The main purpose of **ны**-is to denote the end of the action.: **ныуагъта** (he/she left), **ны-ффыстон** ( I wrote) and so on.

It also denotes an action from down to the top. **ныххауди** –( fell through something); **ныххызтис** (arrived), **ныццъд** (the speaker is at the top). Proposition **ны** expresses intensity of the action **ныззарыд** – (sang); **ныббаста** (reconciled) : **ны-ххудти** giggled (loudly).

Together with an auxiliary verb this preverb forms words from various words.

**ны**- gradually fused to some verb-stems and therefore it does no longer reveal the meaning of proposition **Нымайын** ( to count), **нымбæхсын** ( to hide).

**æрба**- **мард** (died unexpectedly, suddenly).

**æрба**- in the Ossetian language, this is the only complex pre-verb:**æр+ба** indicates the end of an action, as well as the direction of an action. **рба**- **цъд** (he/she came in), the speaker is inside. The pre-verb **æрба** denotes unexpectedness, sudden end of an action.

**æрба**- **цъал** ( unexpectedly broke down)

**æрба**- **мард** (unexpectedly died).

Together with the auxiliary verb it can be added to a word and form verb-forms: **æрбахæццæ** – (she/he/it has reached) ; **æрбайгом** –(it opened);

**æр** – expresses the end of an action denoted by the verb in the Past and Future:

**æр-цъд** (he/she came down) indicates the direction of the action from top to down, when the speaker is down.

**(ы) с** –expresses an action in the Past and Future tense.

This form expresses the direction of an action from down to top, when the speaker is up as well as the speed and beginning of an action: **срызтис** ( suddenly started shivering);

In addition, when used with an auxiliary verb, **с**- gives the word a verb function and a slightly different meaning: **с-хъомыл-дæн** – (I have grown up), **иу** (one), **сиу** (uniteda); **лæг** (a man), **слæги** ( became a man).

**Цæ** creates the meaning of full aspect **-цæхсадта** ( he/she washed).

The preverb attached to this verb marks the direction from the top, where the speaker is located: **цæрвыстой** ( he/she was sent down).

**цæ**- used with the verb expresses frequency of the action: **цæвæры** (he/she keeps it).

**цæ**- this pre-verb is rarely used

The above-discussed peculiarities must be taken into consideration when learning the verb.

As it is known, Georgian possesses a number of negative particles whereas in Ossetian there are only two negative particles: **нæ** и **ма**

In the Indicative mood only **н** is used whereas in the Subjunctive mood both, **нæ** and **ма** are employed. On the other hand, only **ма** is used in the imperative mood.

With pronouns, participles and particles the negative **нæ** and **ма** are used to form the following forms:

**нæма**/ not yet, no more; **мама**/jer ara.

**ницы**/none, nothing, **мацы** / none, nothing; nobody

**ничи**/nobody, **мачи**/nobody, no one

**нал**/ no more, **мауал**/no more, no longer

**ницыуал**/nothing more, no more, **мацыуал**/nothing else

**никуы**/nowhere, **макуы** / never

**нæма**/ not yet, not now **мама**/not now

Unlike Ossetian, Georgian possesses negative pronouns ( **ар**) and ( **вер**). **ар гавакете** ( I did not do it because I did not want to) expresses the lack of desire whereas **вер гавакете** ( I was not able to do that) means lack of ability to do something. In Ossetian both forms are expressed by **онæ** ( not).

In addition, in Georgian there are the following forms: **аравин**/ **веравин**-nobody) **ничи**/ **аравин** ( nobody), **мачи** / **нуравим** (nobody);

In Ossetian both corresponding Georgian negative pronouns ( ar, ver/ar, ver) are expressed by one form. In Ossetian a noun does not have the Ergative case which in Georgian is referred to as the subject case. In order to comprehend the agreement between the subject and the predicate in Georgian, the learners of Georgian should be familiar with the concept of transitivity/intransitivity. This involves learning the case markers by heart. The subject is in the Nominative case with the transitive verb of the first series , in the Ergative case with the verbs of the second series and in the Dative case with the verbs of the third series. As the Ossetian language does not possess the Ergative case , very often the Ossetian speakers use the subject in the Nominative case: katsi aigo ( instead of katsma aigo)

When teaching Georgian or Ossetian verbs, special attention should be paid to the categories of causation and version. The version in the Georgian language is a verb category which denotes the relationship between the subject and the object or between two objects of the sentence. The version can be of three types: subjective, objective and locative.

The subjective version indicates that the direct object belongs to the subject ( I am building, you are building, etc.).

The objective version indicates that the direct object belongs to the indirect object (I'm building for him/her, etc.) whereas the locative version shows no relationship between the objects or the subject and the object of the sentence.

The category of version in the Ossetian language, as well as in other Indo-European languages is not indicated. However, it still exists in Ossetian (as well as in other Indo-European languages, "but is not distinct as it is in our languages" (A. Shanidze).

As for the category of the causation, it should also become an object of special attention while learning the verb system of the Ossetian language. In Georgian language the category of causation indicates whether the subject acts on the object directly (I write/ paint) or with the help of another agent ( I have it written/ painted) . Accordingly, here there are two forms of causation indicated: direct and indirect .

Although causation is revealed in many languages ( for instance, Persian, Turkish, Arabic ),it is not attested in others. In such cases, causation is considered together with the Voice (Ossetian).

In general, these categories are not attested in some Indo-European languages. In such instances, it is necessary to mark subjective and objective persons by means of personal pronouns (he has it dug by him, he has it made by him, etc.).

In addition, syntactic peculiarities should also be considered in the process of the teaching/learning of the Ossetian language: there are two main member of the Ossetian sentence: ( the subject and the predicate) whereas the number of main members of a Georgian sentence is four (the subject, the predicate, direct and indirect objects).

As mentioned above, when teaching some grammatical categories it is necessary to take into consideration differences between Georgian and Ossetian languages. This will enable the learners to overcome the challenges arising in the process. Therefore, while teaching the Ossetian language in Georgian schools, special emphasis should be made regarding certian grammatical issues. In some cases, the learning / teaching of grammar rules is relatively effective. At the same time, it is advisable to teach some grammatical issues through modern methodology.

---

## References

- Abaev 1949 - Абаев В. И., Характеристика современного осетинского языка – осетинский язык и фольклор, М.– Л., 1949.
- Abaev, 1959 - Абаев В. И., Грамматический очерк осетинского языка, Орджоникидзе, 1959.
- Akhvlediani, 1963 - Ахвледиани Г. С., (редактор) – Грамматика осетинского языка, Орджоникидзе, 1963 (Фонетика и морфология) т. 1.
- Akhvlediani, 1969 - Ахвледиани Г. С., (редактор) – Грамматика осетинского языка, Орджоникидзе, 1969 (синтаксис) т. 2.
- Bagaeв, 1965 - Багаев Н. К., Современный осетинский язык, Орджоникидзе 1965, часть 33.
- Bepievi, 2017 - Bepievi Naira, practical grammar of the Ossetian language, Tbilisi, 2017.
- General Competences for Learning, 2008 - General Competences for Learning Language: Study, Learning, Evaluation, Tbilisi, 2008.
- General European Competences, 2008 - General European Competences of language ownership: study, training, evaluation, language policy, Tbilisi, 2008.
- Guriev, 2011 - Гуриев Т., Цыбыр ирон-уырыссаг дзырдуг, Владикавказ, 2011'
- Medoit, 2003 - Медойты Б. Г., Нырыккон ирон æвзаг, морфологи, Цхинвал, 2003.

**Chkuaseli Ana**

*Ilia State University, Georgia*

## **Methods and Strategies for Studying Georgian as a Foreign Language by the First Europeans**

### **Abstract**

The tradition of Georgian as a foreign language study has rather deep historical roots; it begins from the 17th century and is connected to the activities of the European missionaries in Georgia. Almost two-centuries of practice of the Georgian language study have been described by the French and Italian missionaries in their own vocabularies and grammars. The missionaries' activities and their vocabularies and grammars were assessed and analyzed from different standpoints, however, taking into account the modern methodology, empiric surveillance of Georgian as a foreign language study, their individual experiences and approaches have not still been considered. From the missionaries' materials we see that when studying the Georgian language they actively used the vocabularies, recorded the words frequently used in the local environment, and in brief grammars they mainly described the grammar categories necessary for the communication. We reckon, such practice of the language study is actual and valuable even today for those studying languages as well as for those practicing didactics, Georgian is thought to be the language having complicated morphological-syntactical systems.

For our research we have chosen Georgian-Italian and Italian-Georgian vocabularies of the 19th century (1852 - 1867). The vocabulary is kept in Rome - ORDO FF. MIN. CAPUCCINORUM Archives and its author is Emanuele Iglesias. Our aim is to establish the historical experience the missionaries had in the foreign language study practice, taking into consideration certain vocabulary, and how actual could be at the modern stage the foreign language study practice and strategy as described by the missionary authors. Analyses of the mentioned vocabulary give us the possibility to try to announce the standard description of the lexical part of the language knowledge levels, in particular, distinguish themes of language entities and separate the terms concerning treatment, medicines, and religion. Moreover, we have analyzed the grammatical part from the functional grammar standpoint. The research results show us, that Georgian as a foreign language, described in the vocabularies and grammars, was helping the missionaries to adapt to the linguistic and social environment.

**Key words:** *missionaries, vocabulary, grammar, study*

Catholic missionaries' work in Georgia has been widely evaluated and analyzed in different perspectives, political, religious, socio-cultural or educational context. Many monographs were dedicated to the first Georgian books printed in Rome: Stefano Paoloine's Italian Georgian Dictionary and Francesco Maria Mago's grammar of Georgian language. The historical importance of the works was assessed. The values of short grammatics and Georgian language dictionaries drawn up by missioners were analyzed in the formation of Georgian grammatical sciences. From this point of view Arnold Chikobava, Tedo Uturgayidze and Elene Babunashvili's studies about how missionary grammatical models and paradigms were used by Georgian

grammars and lexicographers are very special.<sup>1</sup> "Italian missionaries created serious grammatical literature about the Georgian language and started to introduce grammatical sciences to Georgian people; they taught Georgians Greek and Latin grammar along with the Georgian grammar in their own schools "(Uturgaidze, 1990 p.146). Despite a number of valuable opinions, the grammatics drawn up by missioners in the existing fields are mainly analyzed from the perspectives of the prescriptive grammar: the phonetic or morpho syntaxes inaccuracies of the foreigners are more focused and there is a lack of didactic experiences, that are still remarkable.

The main objective of the present article is not the diachronic study of the long-term studying process the of Georgian language by missionaries. This is a very broad topic. This time our goal is to outline the grammar and lexical markers on the basis of specific dictionary's description, which will be valuable in the modern stage of learning / teaching a foreign language. From this point of view, the competence of the Georgian language acquired by the foreigners will be determined according to the levels of the foreign language established in educational linguistics. ([http://geofl.ge/#!/page\\_doneebi](http://geofl.ge/#!/page_doneebi)). In particular, which level of the document developed by the Council of Europe corresponds to the local treatment and the Orthodox tradition terms described in the dictionary used by the missionary author for communication. While working in this direction, we have chosen a bilingual translation dictionary. According to the Italian record on the manuscript it was compiled by the Missioner Immunele de Iglesias. The dictionary is preserved in the Capucinians archives in Rome ORDO FF. MIN. CAPUCCINORUM <sup>2</sup>.

The tradition of studying foreign languages is associated with missionaries and their religious activities. It is known that Roman Catholic missionaries in the Christian world unlike the western world, used local languages (vernacular languages) for conversion of people to the Catholic faith. This kind of approach originated in the Eastern Catholicism on local language, which was spread in many Eastern European countries.<sup>3</sup> The model was reactivated in the 17<sup>th</sup> century in Georgia when the Roman Catholics started their mission in the Georgian language. This process was carried out by socio-cultural projects of various contents initiated by the European missions. The definition of Georgian as a new religion language was initiated by the the Pope Urbano VIII, who pushed the Padre to allow Catholic liturgy in Georgian instead of Latin.<sup>4</sup> This form of mission in scientific literature is called inculturation, which implies dissemination of a new religion in local, folk language. Nino Doborjginidze, professor of Georgian Catholicism, notes in his article: "Despite the linguistic universality of the Western Church, the Catholic liturgy (Rito Giorgiano Catholico) was established in the local language of Georgian religious space. This means that from the linguistic point of view the Catholics

---

<sup>1</sup> From the thirties of the XVII century to the end of the first half of the XVIII century Italian Catholic missionaries were conducting great pedagogical and scientific pursuits with the study of Georgian language. Their grammar statutes and adequate paradigms moved to Georgians' books with some changes. Georgians extended these paradigms and changed the orthography according to the Georgian literary tradition. (E. Babunashvili, and T. Uturgaidze, 1991 p. 46).

<sup>2</sup> D. Capucinians monastery archive Georgian materials. (Archivium generale Ordinis, Provincia: Giorgia, Missio Santa Sedis).

<sup>3</sup> Overview of the of the Eastern Tradition Catholic Churches. see ob. Johannes Oeldemann: *Die Kirchen des christlichen Ostens. Orthodoxe, orientalische und mit Rom unierte Ostkirchen* (= *Topos-plus-Taschenbücher*, 577 Positionen). Topos plus, Kevelaer 2006.

<sup>4</sup> Mentioned has been researched by N.Doborjginidze in her scientific probation. She studied Georgian materials of the Eastern Congregation, which contains three documents of various years (1631, 1647 and 1704), and all three of them confirm the permission of the Pope Urban VIII on Padre Avitabile to conduct a Catholic ritual in Georgian, Cadmos 2012, here.

have chosen the inculturation model of the Traditional Georgian Church. (Rito Nazionale Greco-Georgiano): The Catholic liturgy was fulfilled in the Georgian language, the main religious texts were in Georgian: Bible books, liturgical reading, and general theological literature. These books were not retranslated by Catholics, but they used "erroneously and pure" translations from the Greek by the Georgian Christians in ancient times before the division of churches. This is a quotation from the Catholics estimation, propaganda is preserved in the Fide Historical Archive. According to the author: "As Capuccinians as well as other members of the Order, who knew Georgian, recognized the Georgian-speaking religious corpus as one of the oldest and universal Christian tradition." (Doborjginidze's 2010 p. 9).

The most tangible products of religious inculturation are the missionary dictionaries and grammars in which missionaries describe spoken languages. As we know, Roman Catholics have been studying different languages and ethnic groups in their descriptions, often in the process of using their own native languages or other familiar languages, mainly Latin. In modern research, missionaries have been criticized for trying to study other languages by one language, (Bolkvadze, 2005 p. 90) which is why the linguistic value of their materials was assessed in the negative context. We should note that the didactic method developed by the foreign missionary padres on the one hand, does not completely exclude the individual and empirical observations of the learner and on the other hand, the dictionaries of the Catholics should be analyzed in the context of a further study of the latter language, rather than the pure theoretical, linguistic perspective.

Based on the essence of the essay by Emmanuel and Iglesias' dictionary we will answer the following questions: which category of Georgian language structure gives preference the European learner? how is arranged the necessary grammatical phenomena, and what is the methodological concept of the missionary? As a rule, the language structure with a declension and conjugation paradigm is given fully in dictionary-glossaries and mainly focused on grammar knowledge. In modern, didactic, similar practice - learning language with grammar rules is less effective. (<http://geofl.ge/additions/metodik/b.php?let=0>)

It should be noted that the missionaries' empirical practice in the case of the Georgian language was not in vain: that is proved by a number of educational and religious projects<sup>5</sup> produced in the Georgian language. In addition, the spoken language described in glossaries was the best way for communication in Georgian environment and the important tool for social adaptation. Missioner Emmanuele de Iglesias, the author of the dictionary selected by us was working in Georgia for 19-years and was compiling a dictionary for 15 years (1852 - 1867). The dictionary is preceded by a short grammar. It is a bilingual translation manual for studying the Georgian language. The grammar part includes 37 pages, followed by Georgian - Italian definitions, which are 15 pages long, and then the Italian - Georgian part of 255 pages. The total dictionary includes 270 pages.

The Georgian language system in the grammatical part is shown with a minimal language competence, namely, from the simplest elements to the more complicated and the lesser element of the grammar hierarchical structure - begins with the classification of the words. Morphological classification includes the parts of the speech: the noun, the pronoun, the numerals, the verb, the preposition. Conjugated and declension words are separated in a classification. In declension words: the nouns, the numerals, the pronouns have the status of semantic elements. Therefore it is shown as syntagma or phrase in combination with a verb.

*Who died (რომელიმე მოკვდა), who blessed (რომელიმე ცხონდა); who is God lover (ღმერთის მოყვარე რომელი); one of many (ერთი მრავალთაგანი); they received one Drachkan (მიიღეს თითო დრაჰკანი); The two men have gone (კაცი იგი ორ-ორნი წარვიდენ).*

---

<sup>5</sup>We mean the researched material within the scientific-research expedition of 2011 - 2012 (bilingual dictionary, sermon texts Prediche in lingua Georgiana and the Holy Scripture Lezioni di scrittura sacra); as well as sectional, translating and explanatory dictionaries in the National Center of Manuscripts.

As there is a pragmatic necessity for a European missionary, a thorough study of Georgian verbs for oral and written communication, he offers conjugation in present and future tenses by the Italian grammar model.

**In the present:** presente indicative - indicative, imperfetto - imperfect, 1 perfetto - perfect 1; 2 perfetto - perfect 2, piu'che perfetto - more perfect. **In the future:** futuro - future, imperativo - Imperative, soggiuntivo - conjunctive, imperfetto - imperfect; Preterito perfetto - past perfect, infinitive - Infinitive.

Often he builds the whole structure using the verb have, emotions, learning, knowledge and verbs connected to movement. This emphasizes the attempt by the language learner to remember better the formulation of grammatical rules.

Present imperfetto- man loves God (კაცს ღმერთი უყვარს); Man loved God (კაცს ღმერთ უყვარდა);

Primo perfetto 1 - I've loved God (მე ღმერთი შევიყვარე); The man's loved God (კაცმა ღმერთი შეიყვარა, Petre's told me (პეტრემ მითხრა)

Perfetto - man's loved God (კაცსა ღმერთი შეუყვარებია)

Piu'che Perfetto - man's loved God (კაცსა ღმერთი შეეყვარა)

Future - man will love God (კაცი ღმერთს შეიყვარებს)

Imperativo - man, love God (კაცო ღმერთი შეიყვარე)

Nominative: let the man love God (კაცმან ღმერთი შეიყვაროს), let Pete teach me (პეტრემ მასწავლოს), Let Pavle read (პავლემ წაიკითხოს.)

Despite the fact that the European learner knows and relies on the tradition of studying Latin and Greek languages in Europe where the preference is given to the knowledge of the grammar and the ability to translate correctly, (<http://geofl.ge/additions/metodik/b.php?let=0>) he offers his own method. Of course, the missionary author considers the knowledge of grammatical structure and the use of "correct" forms, but he is focused on the use of language in daily speech. Georgian language is important for him as a phenomenon of linguistic competence with social and cultural aspects. For example, he uses prepositions while studying word formation. Therefore, the missionary is trying to define the function of the language in a sentence. He is interested in determining the semantic role in a context, phrases and syntagma. While studying prepositions he uses word combinations: in the market (ბაზარში), in the room (ოთახში), I am going to the garden (ბაზში მივალ); bring the wine soon (მალე ღვინო მამიტანე); there are many castles (ქალაქში ბევრი ციხეები არის), a lot of evil men are here in Gori (აქ გორში მრავალი ავი კაცები არიან); from- (დამ), I come from the room (-ოთახიდან მოვალ); from (გან)- I am afraid of man (კაცისგან მეშინიან), I am afraid of you (შენგან მეშინიან); before - one week before (უწინ-ერთ საათს უწინ), for (ათვის) for you (შენი გულისათვის), for master (ბატონისათვის); before (უწინ, უკან), before death (სიკუდილის უწინ, სიკუდილის უკან); instead (მაგიერათ)- instead of the master (ბატონის მაგიერათ), instead of me (ჩემს მაგიერათ), instead of you (შენ მაგიერათ); until (ამდინ,) until -to Gori (ამდისინ-გორამდინ), until the morning (დილამდისინ); Vay-Vay to my soul (ვაი- ვაი ჩემს სულს); Do not let anyone do it. (ნუ -ღმერთმან ნუ ქნას.)

Active verbs are often organized thematically. For example, semantic verbs related to teaching (I teach, read, understand, I think) as well as to religious content: I condemn (ვძრახავ), I'll trust (გავენდობი), I'll be happy (გავიხარებ), I'll ask (ვითხოვ), I commit a sin (ვსცოდავ), he confessed (აღიარა) and etc. The fact that the missionary is studying the Georgian language is tested by the existence of dialectic forms. My name is (მქვიან), I am busy (არამცალოან), I take it (მამაქვს.) I'll bring the stolen thing again (ნაქურდალს ისევ მოუტან), this year (წრეულს) and etc.

In a description of linguistic structures, a separate subdivision is assigned to the person pronoun - pronomi, which is repeatedly combined with the verb: you give me (შენ მამლევე), I give you (მე გაძლევე), he gives me (ის მამლევეს), he gives you (ის თქვენ გაძლევეს), he gives them (ის მათ აძლევეს). The negative verb is in

the same context with denial particles: Do not and cannot (ნუ და ვერ), I don't want (არ მინდა), I am not (არ ვარ), you can't come (ვერ მოხვალ), don't come (ნუ მოხვალ). In terms of illustrating the context, the word agreements (Delle concordanze) and constructions (Delle costruzione di verbi) are important. For example: a lot of people will come (ბევრი კაცები მოვლენ), I love good men (კაი კაცები მიყვარს); I love God (მე ღმერთი მიყვარს), you are a good man (შენ კაი კაცი ხარ), a ring is missing a stone (ბეჭედში ერთი თვალი აკლია); I prayed in a church (სახდარში მილოცნია,) I come from Gori (გორიდან მოვალ).

After the grammar review the foreign missionary offers vocabulary, namely, Georgian-Italian interpretations. The words here are in alphabetical order. There are 15 pages. The second Italian-Georgian part is more extensive. Italian interpretations of Georgian terms are often given in two words.

As we know, one of the greatest difficulties of the language is vocabulary, which essentially means the autonomous ability of the learner to remember and use new and unknown words. Although the dictionary is a translation manual and not explanatory, lexical units are often written as phrases or syntax. We think the determination of the author's communicative competence is based on syntax and phrases. The terms described in the vocabulary give us the opportunity to specify the number of vocabulary the missionary uses for communication with the locals as a medic and a religious person. From this point of view, we have chosen the words from medicine and religion that reflect the missionary's functions in both directions. It is known that religious padres were the best medics and their activities were quite productive in this area<sup>6</sup>.

We will try to annotate these terms according to the standard description of the foreign language approved in academic linguistics, which includes four components: listening, reading, speaking, and writing. First of all we must determine the level of knowledge of the Georgian language according to the standard description of the foreign language approved in academic linguistics. In the dictionary the words relating to the local religious and medical tradition we refer to the first level - A1 from the six-point system of the Council of Europe's, in which the learner has the skills: reading, listening and writing. The following phrases and linguistic units are used in medical activity: The contagious plague (გარდამდების ჭირი), aquatic plague (წყალმახის ჭირი); drainage (წყალმახი); the plague of salmon (სალმახის ჭირი), scorbutus (სურავანდი); larynx (ხორხი), I'll have a runny nose (სურდო შემეყრება), abortus (მუცლის წახდენა) = I'll have an abortion (მუცელს წავიხდენ), I aborted (წამიხდენია); Arsenic (დარიშხანა); Jaundice (სიყვითლე); Gentiana (ნალველა); Balgham (ბალღამი), scorbutus (სურავანდი); I feel dizzy (თავის ბრუნა: თავთარაბუნა); vomiting (გულზიდება); cramp in a leg (მარღვის შენასკვა); cramped leg (მარღვი შენასკველი); the stomach is boiling (მუცელი მიჭუჭყუნებს), I have constipation (მუცელში შეყრულ ვარ: შეყრით ვარ: ყაბზითა ვარ), I have a fever (სიცხიანი): forever fever (მუდმის სიცხე), feel a slight chill (მაცივებს), I've got hot (გამაცხელა, გამაცხელებ), I caught a cold (გამაცივა), I am shivering (მაცივებებს), it snuffles (ცხვირს მაფრუშტუნებს); cough (ხველა): coughing (ხველება); ill (სნეული) = sick (ჭირიანი); Dizziness (თავი მიბრუნავს): Lethargy evil (კეთროვანობა ბოროტი), permanent plaque (უსაშველო ჭირი); eye whitening (თვალის სითეთრე); Heart pulp grass (გულის პულპის ბალახი), person's vomiting: I'll vomit (პირის

<sup>6</sup> According to Zakaria Chichinadze they opened the first pharmacy in Tbilisi. "In the 1730s, there were about 15 Latin priests in Tiflis, who gave much to poor people. They helped, them with medicine and medication. At that time, the doctors had a good secular college in Tiflisi with a doctor's academy and medicine "(Chichinadze, 1896 p.4).

წანადველება); მოწამლვა (poisoning)=მოიწამლა (poisoned), I'll release blood (სისხლს გამოვაშვებინებ).

The second communication sphere for the missionary author is a local church and its parish. The representative of the Catholic Confederation Padre describes and explains the lexical entities that are needed for communication with local Orthodox and Catholic parishioners in order to integrate them into Georgian socio-cultural environment - burn the incense (საკმელს უკმევ); burned the incense (დი); burn the incense (უკმე); I have burned the incense (მიკმევია, მეკმევა); I am polishing with wax (ვსანთლავ); I was polishing with wax (ევდი); I polished with wax (გავსანთლე); Crucifix (ჯვარზე ვლურსმავ), Book of Forgiveness (შენდობის წიგნი), the second coming of Christ (მეორედ ქრისტეს მოსვლა); Judgment day (განკითხვის დღე), Prayer of the Dead (მკუდრის ლოცვა) = the rule of the dead (მკუდრის წესი); soul leaving the body (სული ამოდის = სულის ამოსვლა); do the kindness (სიკეთეს ვიქ), I will add sin to sin (ცოდვას ცოდვაზე მივუმატებ); I will forgive the swearing (გინებას = ვაპატივებ), I will forgive the fine (ჯარიმას = ვაპატივებ); legislate (რჯულის დავადებ); the law will be laid (რჯულის = დავდება), law laid (რჯულის = დავდებული); grace = told (მადლი მოახსენა), grace = gratitude (მადლის=გარდახდობა); God blesses me (ღმერთი ნეტარობას მცემს); talavari (ტალავარი); Holy Communion box; Glorified Catholic (მადიდებელი კათოლიკე); I'll be a Roman Catholic (კათოლიკე შევიქნები).

The presented lexical material gives us an opportunity to determine how the missionary who has the first level of knowledge by the European framework satisfies the competence of the same level in other skills.

### **The learner can easily talk about their activities (speaking).**

Considering that the European missionary is a religious person, according to the following terms, it is easy to describe his daily ecclesiastical activities: Chrism (ბოლო ზეთის ცხება); I give the soul (სულს ვაძლევ), God - bless you (ღმერთმან - გაცხონოს); God - save me (ღმერთმან-მაშოროს); serve at liturgy = I am preaching = (წირვას=ქადაგობას ვიქმ); I am doing a prostration (მეტანიას ვეშურები); თავაბა (taking responsibility/initiative): kneeling (მუხლთ მოდრეკა), I cross myself (პირს ჯვარს ვიწერ = ჯვარს გამოვისახავ); to walk through the liturgy (წირვაზედ გარდიგარდმო); Agape (აღაპი); for Christening, christen (სანათლავად) = font (ემბაზი), heartfelt believers (მორწმუნე გულმხურვალე), place for preaching (სახსარე); trusting place (გასანდობილი-ალაგი); priest ( მოძღვარი); The father of grief (განდობის მამა), clear water (აიაზმის წყალი.)

### **The learner can understand the most commonly spoken lexical units and phraseological words (listening).**

Because the religion and medicine is a field of active functioning for the learner, he will use and understands easily the semantics of simple lexical units in the following fields:

Dean (დიაკონი), protoiereus (დეკანოსი), priest = church servant (ღრდეელი=მწირველი), main priest = main dean (მთავარ მღვდელი = მთავარ დიაკონი); Chief Bishop (მთავარი ეფისკოპოზი), Bishop (ეპისკოპოსიზი); Episcopacy (საეპისკოპო), gave birth to a man (შვა კაცი), Archimandrite (არქიმანდრიტი); Fasting - lentils (სამარხო-ოსპი,) Midnight prayer (შუადამეს ლოცვა); monk : nun (მოლოზანი): monastery (მონასტერი) condition (პირობა): do if (თუობას ვიქ), give gratitude (მადლს ვაძლევ).

**The learner can record very simple words (people, animals, things) seen on the photo/pictures (writing competence).**

The vocabulary described in the vocabulary, namely, the list of healing herbs and the names of active diseases perfectly satisfies the minimum competence of the foreign learner in the writing component:

Rumex acetosa (მჟაუნა), rose water (ვარდის წყალი), Chicory (ვარდკაჭაჭა), chicory water (ვარდკაჭაჭის წყალი), philengi disease (ფილენჯის ჭირი); Cuscuta (აბრეშუმა); Carthamus tinctorius (ალისარჩული); fainting (გულისყრა); syphilis (ათეშავი); red wind (წითელი ქარი); swollen feet (ფეხის დაბრუქება); goiter (ჩიყვი); hernia (ფუში); diphtheria (ხუნავი); shridi (შრიდი); a pain (პრჭვალი); pain (ბრჭვა); migraine (შაკიკი); gout (ნიკრიზი ქარი); chills (თრთოლა); runny nose (სურდო); shrimi (შრიმი), cover (დაფნა); sambucus (ანწლი); barley-water (არდაბი), barley-water (ფქვილის წვენი); *hemorrhoids* (ბუასილი); fungus (სოკო); centaureum minus (ასისტავა); rosa canina (ასკილი); balbas (ბალბა) - mallow (მალოქი); pus (ბალღამი); cotton (ბამბა); melissa officinalis (ბარამბო); betonica officinalis (ბარისპირა); immature grapes(ისრიმი) = acidic (სიმჟავე) = pickled (დამჟავებული); useful (მარგი) = musk (მუშკი); poison (შხამი) = poisonous (შხამიანი); hyssopus (უსუპი); wormwood (აბზინდა); balazini (ბალაზინი) = elde (ელდე) = gossypium (ბამბა), tough ointment (მაგარი მალამო); castor oil (აბუსალათინი); 100 - 2134 egg protein (კვერცხის ცილა); cuminum cyminum (ძირა); coriander (კინძი); შინდი betonica (ბარისპირა) = whitening (უმარილი); the stomach is ruffling (მუცელი მიჭუჭუნებს); chamomile (გვირილა); cannabis (კანაფი).

From these examples we can conclude that the phrases and terms described in the dictionary reflect the minimal level of knowledge of Georgian language. Missioner Emanuele de Iglesias is able to communicate with the local religious groups as a Catholic padre and as a doctor on the basis of writing, reading, speaking and listening.

Obviously, the bilingual dictionary covers more material, but this time we tried to show the European experience of the Georgian language on the example of the unknown dictionary. We believe that the missionary's pragmatic approach to study the language, which envisages the use of contexts as illustrative of the functional side of the vocabulary and analysis of the grammar categories, is equally relevant for the learner and the language didactic on the modern stage.

---

## References

- Babunashvili and Uturgaidze, 1991 - Babunashvili, E. and Uturgaidze, T. (1991). *Anton the First's Georgian Grammar and its National and Historical Importance*, Tbilisi Georgian Scientific Academy.
- Chichinadze, 1896 - Chichinadze, Z. (1896) *Patrick Nicola as a Doctor and Georgian Catholic in his Time* in Tbilisi. Kheladze printing house.
- Doborjginidze, 2010 - Doborjginidze, N. (2010): *Linguistic - Hermeneutic Metatexts*, Tbilisi, Ilia University Publishing.
- Doborjginidze, 2012 - Doborjginidze, N. (2012) *On Some Implications of Ilia Chavchavadze's Barakala*, in *Kadmos* 4, Tbilisi 73-115.
- Italian dictionary, 2015 - *Georgian and Italian dictionary*, is preserved in the Capuccinorum archive in Rome ORDO FF. MIN. CAPUCCINORUM. <https://www.wdl.org/en/item/321/>
- Kiguradze, Kutateladze, 2013 - Kiguradze, T. and Kutateladze, E. (2013) *Rise: Methodology of studying Georgian as a foreign Language* <http://www.geofl.ge/img/metodik/bfull.pdf>.
- Levels of Georgian as a foreign Language description, 2018 - *Levels of Georgian as a foreign Language description: Level A1* <http://www.geofl.ge/img/doneebi/a1.pdf>.
- Luisseli, 2000 - Luisseli, B. (2000) *Inkulturrativer und akkulturrativer Prozeß der Christianisierung: Die Entstehung der nationalen Literaturen und der Latein sprechenden Eliten in Westeuropa*, *U.-Chr. Sander – F. Paul (eds.), Muster und Funktionen kultureller Selbst- und Fremdwahrnehmung. Beiträge zur internationalen Geschichte der sprachlichen und literarischen Emanzipation*, Göttingen.
- Nida, 1975 - Nida, A. E. (1975) *Language Structure and Translation*, Stanford University Press.
- Oeldemann, 2006 - Oeldemann, J. (2006) *Die Kirchen des christlichen Ostens. Orthodoxe, orientalische und mit Rom unierte Ostkirchen (= Topos-plus-Taschenbücher, Positionen)*. Topos plus, Kevelaer.
- Papashvili, 1995 - Papashvili, M. (1995) *Georgian - Roman Relations in the 6<sup>th</sup> - 20th Century*, Tbilisi, Agmashenebeli Publishing.
- Uturgaidze, 1990 - Uturgaidze, T. (1990) *The Learning of the Georgian Language by the Missionaries and their Scholarly Opinion*. *Iberian-Caucasian Linguistics*, #XXIX, Tbilisi, 123 - 147 (in Georgian).

**Demetradze Irina**

*Ivane Javakishvili Tbilisi State University, Georgia*

## **Linguistic and Communicative Competence: Coping with the Typical Errors of Georgian Learners of English**

### **Abstract**

This paper attempts to provide certain advice for Georgian teachers of English who aim to develop both the linguistic and communicative competences of their students. Hence, the paper focuses on the challenges related to the development of linguistic competence, embracing vocabulary and grammar issues. In this regard, typical errors of Georgian learners of English are analysed. Hints are provided as to what issues should be addressed with the aim of avoiding native language interference. The theoretical basis for the given research embraces scientific works by R. Lado, C. Fries, C. Prator, G. Leech and other scholars. The use of the contrastive method has enabled the author to identify the basic semantic and structural differences between the native and the target languages (in this case, Georgian and English). The empirical material has been collected and analysed during twenty years of teaching experience at the English Department of Tbilisi State University.

It is widely known that, apart from linguistic competence, the aim of every teacher is to develop the students' communicative competence. The latter embraces social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. Therefore, this paper also dwells on politeness rules and norms of speech etiquette as certain utterances that are quite acceptable for Georgian culture, in interactions with foreigners may turn into face-threatening acts. Thus, based on the author's previous research (a monograph and numerous papers published in various linguistic journals), the paper provides certain hints on how to equip Georgian students with the knowledge of politeness rules, appropriate forms of address, tabooed words and expressions, proper understanding of the illocutionary force of indirect speech-acts, phatic communication and other culture-related language factors.

A focus on the errors frequently made by Georgian learners of English has proved the necessity for the publication and use of textbooks compiled by Georgian authors. Such manuals should contain special notes and exercises with the emphasis on the structural and pragmatic aspects related to typical errors of Georgian learners of English.

The findings of the given research might be of interest for Georgian teachers of English who aim to provide their students with the necessary linguistic and communicative skills in the target language.

**Key Words:** *Typical errors, language patterns, transfer, interference, communicative competence, speech etiquette, norms of politeness, speech acts, face-threatening acts.*

### **Introduction**

It is well-known that every language is a collection of habits, and the learner of a foreign language has to acquire new ones. When speaking a foreign language, people frequently transfer the patterns of the native language into the foreign one (Gass, 1979:327). In the foreword to R. Lado's book *Linguistics Across Cultures*, C. Fries notes that the process of studying a foreign language largely differs from native language acquisition: when learning a native language, new skills are acquired on the background of the non-existence of previous ones, whereas when studying a foreign language, new habits are opposed to the already existing ones, and this leads to certain difficulties (Lado, 1957:1). If the new habit resembles those acquired when learning the native

language, the learning process is facilitated. However, when there is a significant contrast between the native and foreign languages, acquisition is complicated due to the interference of the native language (ibid, p2). Similar structures between the two languages facilitate positive transfer, whereas different structures lead to negative transfer i.e. interference (Corder, 1981:1).

As Georgian and English belong to different families and also reveal little (if any) structural similarity, naturally, there are innumerable differences between the two at all levels (phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and pragmatics). Hence, cases of facilitation are extremely rare. Therefore, this paper focuses only on the errors related to interference (negative transfer), which, as a rule, is a source of errors and complexities in the process of foreign language acquisition. Based on the contrastive method, the paper analyses the errors caused by semantic and structural differences between the English and Georgian languages, as well as culture differences between the two nations reflected in speech etiquette. These errors have been identified and observed during the long-standing practice of teaching English to Georgian students at different levels of language acquisition. I hope, the focus on these errors will be of use and interest for both the teachers and learners of the English language.

### **Typical errors of Georgian learners of English on the level of grammar:**

1. In the Georgian language, the word “ერთ-ერთი” /ert-erti/ meaning “one of the...” is followed by a noun in the singular form. As you know, this is not the case in English. Thus, due to the negative transfer of this structure into English, Georgian students often say: “One of the book” instead of the correct form “one of the books”.
2. Another widespread problem is related to the use of the complex object (e.g. I want him to read this book). Although the structure of the complex object is quite simple (despite its name), Georgian students transfer the native language pattern into English and say “I want that he reads this book” (because in Georgian, a subordinate clause with the conjunction “that” is used to denote the same meaning „მე მიხდა, რომ მან ეს წიგნი წაიკითხოს“ /me minda, rom man es ts’igni ts’aikitxos/. The experiment I carried out with a group of students of the English department at Tbilisi State University has proved ctranslate the sentence: „მე მიხდა, რომ ის ბედნიერი იყოს“ /me minda, rom is bednieri ik’os/ (I want her to be happy). The vast majority of students translated this sentence as: “I want that she be happy”.
3. Many typical errors are related to the use of interrogative forms. In Georgian, general questions are formed without inversion or auxiliary verbs, simply by means of a different intonation. Thus, at the beginner level, students find it hard to perceive this difference. At the later stage, when they have overcome this problem, another difficulty arises, regarding questions which comprise subordinate clauses of object. According to the rules of English grammar, questions in such clauses are given as affirmative sentences. Yet, about 90% of students say: “I don’t know where is he” instead of “I don’t know where he is”.
4. As for special questions, the errors of Georgian students are related to the incorrect use of certain question words. On the initial level of studies, the Georgian learners of English often say: “How many years are you?”, literally translating the Georgian question: „რამდენი წლის ხარ?“ /ramdeni ts’lis xar?/ (How old are you?). At a later stage of learning, a widespread error is related to the literal translation of the question „როგორ ფიქრობ?“ /rogor fiqrob/, which leads to the use of an incorrect form “How do you think?” instead of the correct question: “What do you think?”
5. Another interesting case of negative transfer is related to clauses connected by means of the relative pronoun “which“. Its Georgian correlate is “რომელი“ /romeli/. In certain subordinate clauses the genitive case of this word – “რომლის“ /romlis/ – is used. In similar cases the construction “of which” is found in English, e.g. “I went to the restaurant, the manager of which was my friend”. In such cases

Georgian learners tend to say: “I went to the restaurant which’s manager was my friend”, putting the word “which“ IP the genitive case, based on the Georgian pattern. Besides, due to negative transfer of the native language rules, they use “which” to refer to both animate and inanimate nouns, instead of using “who”. Thus, they say: “the man which was looking at me”.

6. One more widespread error is related to the construction “both...and...”. In Georgian, construction of this kind is: “როგორც... ასევე...” /rogorts...aseve.../. The English correlate of the Georgian word “როგორც“ /rogorts/ is the word “as”. Therefore, Georgian students frequently say sentences like: “as State as private sector should be involved in this activity” instead of the correct form: “both the State and the private sector should be involved in this activity”.
7. An important source of errors is also the construction “That’s why”. In similar contexts Georgians say: “და ამიტომაც“ /da amitomats/. The English correlate of the word და /da/ is “and”, whereas the correlate of “ამიტომაც“ /amitomats/ is “because”. Thus, the given construction is literally translated into English as “and because”. Hence, the following errors are frequent: “I was ill, and because I didn’t go to school”, instead of the correct form: “I was ill, that’s why I didn’t go to school”.
8. Special mention should be made of the conjunction “that”, which leads to numerous typical errors of Georgian learners of English. Above all, the use of a comma before “that” is widespread due to the influence of Georgian punctuation rules (a comma is used before the correlate Georgian conjunction რომ /rom/).
9. Frequent errors of Georgian learners are related to the use of “what“ instead of “that“. e.g. “Everything what I have read”- (cf. Georgian ყველაფერი, რაც წაკითხული მაქვს “k’velaferi, rats ts’akitxuli maqvs/). This error is caused due to the fact that Georgian „რა“/ra/„რაც“/rats/ are the correlates of the English “what“.
10. Typical errors are also related to the construction “as for”. Under the influence of Georgian, students tend to make a word for word translation of the Georgian analogue „რაც შეეხება“/rats feexeba/ and start a new topic with “what about..” (What about John, he was ill). I come across this error on daily basis, when the students speak about some topic and move on to a new paragraph. As soon as they say “What about”, I am confused and unable to understand whether they are asking me a question or simply want to move on to another issue.
11. Another important problem is related to the pronoun “everything”. The Georgian equivalent of this pronoun is “ყველაფერი“ /q’velaferi/, whereas the Georgian for “this” is “ეს“ /es/. Thus, the students transfer the Georgian expression “ყველაფერი ეს“ /q’velaferi es/ saying “everything this”, instead of the correct variant – “all of this“.
12. Lastly, I would like to mention one more error which is related to reflexive pronouns. In Georgian the word “თავი“ /tavi/ is used to denote the reflexive meaning. Hence, students tend to add the reflexive pronouns in contexts wherever the word “თავი“ is used in Georgian. For instance, under the influence of the Georgian pattern, they translate sentences like “მან თავი ბედნიერად იგრძნო“ /man tavi bednierad igrdzno/ as “he felt himself happy” (adding the unnecessary reflexive pronoun). On the other hand, students sometimes omit the reflexive pronoun in English, because it is not used in similar contexts in Georgian e.g. “I enjoyed at the party” (instead of “I enjoyed myself at the party”).

### **Lexical Errors Caused by Negative Transfer of the Native Language**

Naturally, errors related to the acquisition and use of vocabulary are a widespread phenomenon. Naturally, it is impossible to enumerate all the lexical errors of Georgian learners of English. Thus, the given paper focuses on several most frequent lexical errors caused by semantic differences between the two languages.

C. Prator and his co-author (Prator, Celce-Murcia, 1979:3) distinguish the following levels of complexity of foreign language acquisition:

Coalescence – two items in the native language coalesce (merge) into one in the target language.

Underdifferentiation – the element which exists in the native language does not exist in the target language.

Overdifferentiation – the element existing in the foreign language does not exist in the native language.

Reinterpretation – one and the same element is perceived differently in the native and target languages.

Splitting – a certain concept is denoted by one word in the native language, whereas in the target language it is denoted by two different words.

If we view the typical lexical errors of Georgian students from the viewpoint of Prator's classification, we find the following interesting cases of reinterpretation:

- a. Misinterpretation of the word “intelligent”, which means clever, smart in English, whereas in Georgian it denotes a well-bred, educated person.
- b. The word “საყვარელი“ /saq'vareli/ in Georgian means both “cute” and “favourite”. It is a derivative of the word “სიყვარული“/siq'varuli/ which means “love”. As a rule, Georgian students translate this word into English as “lovely”: for instance, they say “My lovely writer” instead of “My favourite writer”.
- c. Another lexical misunderstanding is related to the word “novel”. A similar loan-word is used in Georgian to denote a short story, whereas the correlate of the English “novel” in Georgian is “რომანი” /romani/. Hence, the students misunderstand the meaning of the word “novel”.
- d. The word “პოემა“ /poema/ in Georgian denotes only an epic work of poetry, while in English the same word “poem” denotes all kinds of verse. Thus, if the English teacher tells the class that they have to learn a poem by heart, the students get scared and nervous, thinking that they have to memorize the entire epic poem.
- e. Another frequent source of misunderstanding is the word “sympathy”, which means compassion in English, whereas in Georgian, the same loan-word means appreciation, liking, favourable attitude to someone.

### **Culture-related typical errors caused by the transfer of the norms of the native speech etiquette:**

It is widely known that, apart from the linguistic competence, the aim of every teacher is to develop the students' communicative competence. The latter embraces social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately (Hymes, 1972:269). Naturally, certain utterances, quite acceptable for Georgian culture, in interactions with foreigners may serve as “face-threatening acts” (Brown and Levinson, 1996:65). Below I will briefly discuss some culture tips that Georgian teachers of English should give their students.

I will start with the forms of address. Numerous textbooks of English contain the rules for using the right register, appropriate forms of address in speaking, letter-writing and so on. Therefore, I will avoid discussion of these issues and just focus on the transfer of Georgian cultural norms regarding the use of caress words in addressing the interlocutor. In an attempt to sound friendly and warm, Georgians frequently address one another using caress words: “გენაცვალე” /genatsvale/, “შემოგეველე” /shemogevle /, „შენი ჭირიმე” /sheni ch'irime/ and so on. An exact translation of these words is impossible, in communication with foreigners, Georgians use the English equivalents like “My dear”, “My darling” etc. In British culture, however, such caress formulae are used only in interactions with family members. In other situations, they are out of place, and may irritate the listener or even sound ironic. The offended listener may even say “do not my-dear me, please!”. Thus, the transfer of the norms of Georgian speech etiquette into English may lead to culture bump and loss of the speaker's face.

Another frequent mistake of Georgian learners is related to phatic communication, namely, the answer to the question “How are you?” This purely phatic greeting is always answered by “Fine, thank you” in English

culture. In a typically Georgian speech situation, the usual answer to this question is “ისე რა” /ise ra/ the translation of which is “so-so”. According to numerous foreign linguistic informants, they are often confused or even irritated when they hear “so-so” in answer to their question “How are you?” (Goksadze, Demetradze, 2006:55).

Other typical errors related to speech etiquette refer to tabooed expressions. Georgians frequently ask personal questions, even during interactions with the people they have just met. Such a kind of behavior is natural for Georgian phatic communication. However, native speakers of English are embarrassed when hearing questions about their income, age and personal relationships. Another embarrassing question, frequently used by Georgians when meeting an acquaintance in the street is “Where are you going?” In Georgian speech etiquette, the same question „სად მივდიხარ?” “/sad midixar/ is part of phatic communication. This can also be proved by a non-informative typical answer: “არსად, იქით მივდივარ” /arcade iqit mivdivar/ (“Nowhere, just over there”). However, foreigners perceive this question as interference into their personal affairs. Thus, this phatic question, which performs the function of a greeting in Georgian reality, turns into a face-threatening act during interactions with foreigners.

Special mention should be made of humour and jokes which, on the one hand, serve to establish friendly relationships, but, on the other hand, lead to misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication, as there is probably no phenomenon as language-specific as well as culture-specific as humour. Therefore, Georgian teachers of English should equip their students with certain background knowledge about the national peculiarities of British humour and warn them what kind of jokes they should avoid in order not to embarrass the representatives of a different cultural community.

Georgian teachers of English should also focus on such an important factor as indirectness. To quote A. Miall, “the English never say what they mean, often the exact opposite” (Miall, 1993:19). Thus, Georgian teachers who are willing to develop their students’ communicative competence should give them certain tips on the use of indirect speech acts. I will mention the following situations in this regard: for Georgian speech etiquette it is quite natural to use imperative forms. However, Georgian hosts frequently irritate their English guests by offering their hospitality saying: “Sit down”, “Wash your hands” “Drink some wine” etc. Geoffrey Leech suggests that, given the same propositional content, it is possible to increase the degree of politeness by using a more and more indirect kind of illocution (Leech, 1983: 108). Thus, in order to avoid unpleasant situations, the learners of English should be taught phrases like: “Would you like to sit down?”, “Would you like to wash your hands?”, “Would you care for some wine?” etc.

## Conclusion

It is well known that foreign language acquisition is an extremely difficult task, especially in the case of such different languages as English and Georgian. Naturally, native language interference takes place at all levels of language acquisition and is revealed in various types of errors. Unfortunately, the textbooks created in English-speaking countries cannot reflect the typical errors of Georgian learners, the rules and exercises provided by these textbooks cannot help avoid the errors caused by Georgian-language interference.

The brief list of typical errors offered by this paper is by no means exhaustive. Yet, the errors described in this paper are a sufficient proof of the necessity for the publication and use of textbooks compiled by Georgian authors. Such manuals should contain special notes, culture tips and exercises with the emphasis on the structural, semantic and pragmatic aspects related to typical errors of Georgian learners of English. All this will help avoid the typical errors caused by native language interference.

## References

- Brown, Levinson, 1996 - Brown, P. & Levinson, S. (1996). *Politeness. Some Universals in Language Usage*. Cambridge University Press.
- Corder, 1981 - Corder, S.P. (1981). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford University Press. London.
- Fries, 1983 - Fries, C. (1983). *Linguistics and Reading*. Irvington Publishers. New York.
- Gass, 1979 - Gass, S. (1979) Language Transfer and Universal Grammatical Relations, in *Language Learning*, Volume 29, No. 2. pp. 327 - 344.
- Goksadze, 1996 - Goksadze, L., Demetradze, I. (1996). *British-Georgian Culture Differences. Politeness Norms*. Tbilisi Independent University Publishing-House "Nekeri".
- Hymes, 1972 - Hymes, Dell. "On Communicative Competence". In Pride, J.B. 1972;
- Holmes, 1972 - Holmes, J. "Sociolinguistics: Selected Readings". Harmondsworth: Penguin. 1972. pp. 269 - 293.
- Lado, 1957 - Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics Across Cultures*. University of Michigan Press.
- Leech, 1983 - Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. London, New York: Longman.
- Miall, 1993 - Miall, A. (1993) *The Xenophobe's Guide to the English*. Ravette Books.
- Prator, 1979 - Prator, C. H., & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). *An Outline of Language Teaching Approaches. Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Celce-Murcia and McIntosh. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

**Gochitashvili Ketevan, Shabashvili Giuli**

*Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Georgia*

## **The issue of “false friends” in terms of learning a foreign language (Using the example of Georgian and English languages)**

### **Abstract**

As is generally known, “false friends” are words, which coincide formally or phonetically in the learner’s native and target languages, but carry different (or partially different) meanings. Generally, the “false friends” phenomenon is studied in the context of translation theory and practice, as well as the language in the context of teaching linguistic or contrastive linguistics.

Vocabulary is an important part of the learning process of a language. Teachers and learners face many obstacles regarding the learning of vocabulary during the learning and teaching process. One of the most important problems is exactly the issue of the so-called “false friends”. Putting lexical units to the wrong use can lead to a learner’s confusion or to a misinterpretation of the text. This issue is under-examined and unexplored in Georgian scientific literature and needs proper attention.

The aim of this paper is: 1. Identify such words on the basis of the data of Georgian and English languages and create the best possible basis for such words. These words are collected into relevant groups (complete distinction, partial distinction, parts of speech, etc.) and are presented in their relevant examples with analysis.

We have such lexical units in Georgian and in English:

ინტელეგენტი - intelligent. In Georgian, this word means polite, well-mannered, sophisticated human, whereas in English it conveys a different meaning, clever.

ორიგინალური (peculiar, special) - original (present or existing from the beginning; first or earliest. created personally by a particular artist, writer, musician, etc.; not a copy).

ბრილიანტი (valuable, precious stone, multifaceted carved diamond, used in jewelry) - brilliant (exceptionally clever or talented. of light or colour, very bright.).

2. Another purpose of this article is to present activities that will help both the teacher and the student to overcome these difficulties. First of all, various lexical exercises, samples of which will be represented in the paper. 2. Vocabulary games 2. Translation. 4. Visualization. 5. Contextual and situational activities (using video and audio materials). 6. Corpus method aAccording to the data of both Georgian and English). 6. Tables and infographics.

The pilot lesson held for 5 students enabled us to identify the positive and negative aspects of the above-mentioned activities.

This paper has a practical value, and the results will be useful for language learners and teachers as well as translators in their field.

**Key words:** *Phonrtics, false friends, SLE, vocanulary.*

As is known in works dedicated to the issue, one of the most difficult problems to overcome when learning a language is that of “false friends”. This phenomenon is frequently defined as “lexemes” on the verge of two (or more) foreign languages characterized by similarity regarding sound or graphical representation but a difference in meaning. These lexemes, coupled on the basis of the “lexical attraction” create a confusion in the process of translation and, most frequently, while teaching a foreign language (Abashidze: 2016, 34). It is believed that the basis of the existence of “false friends” is linguistic as well as cultural influences and these forms arise when two related languages come into contact. In addition, as it is argued in scholarly literature,

the confusion created by “false friends” is not frequent in the case of two non-related languages as language learners do not particularly expect possible correlations between the two non-related languages. However, in the global world the spread of the “false friends” goes beyond the scopes of the related languages and continues creating problems for lexicographers and linguists. Scholars present different ideas about the phenomenon of “false friends” although the existence of cognates is also to be taken into consideration. Traditionally, cognates are defined as linguistic forms coming from one and the same historical source (Crystal 1997: 67). At first sight, it can be argued that cognates must be based on related languages, but they can also be borrowed from other languages (Ialaitis, Arginvaev, 2014 : 60). Cognates referred to as real friends can be defined as a pair of words which share both the sound form and meaning. Unlike these, “false friends” share the form but not the meaning in target languages. There are two types of “false friends” singled out: full and partial. In the first case, the shared forms reveal absolutely different meanings whereas the second case possess similar meanings as well as a different one. For instance, the word “concert” in Georgian denotes a musical performance which is also true for the English language. On the other hand, this word has one more meaning in English as seen from the following example: *being in concert with somebody/something (being in cooperation with somebody/something)* (Ialaitis, Arginvaev 2014 : 61). On the other hand, “false friends” are divided into three groups: (1) the first category is referred to as segregation. In this case pairs carry absolutely different meanings. (2) lexical pairs reveal both similar and different meanings; (3) this is referred to as inclusion when one member of the lexical pair reveals all the meanings of the other member as well as one more, “additional” meaning. (O’Neil, Casanovas 1997 : 110).

In the process of the teaching/learning of a foreign language, the creation of “false friends” is encouraged by direct language or cultural transfer, which plays a negative role in this case. It can be argued that “the learners base their judgement on the meanings fixed in a shared cognitive base, largely, meanings known in their national discourse. This leads to inadequate and incorrect translation. (Gvarishvili 2011: 53).

### **The significance of the issue**

In Georgian as in other languages which are closely connected with various languages and therefore, borrowings are not rare, the issue of employment of the “false friends” in the teaching and learning of a foreign language can be classed as one of the most important issues. Despite the fact that several separate works are dedicated to this problem in Georgian, they focus on the issue from the point of view of European languages taught to Georgian learners. However, lexical items making up the “false friends” have not yet been recorded and studied in Georgian.

“False friend” are inseparable parts of a lexical system of a language. Therefore, without proper understanding of their meanings, it is difficult to reach proficiency in a language. In addition, if learners of a second language do not know the exact meanings of such words, they may employ them incorrectly, which naturally becomes a hampering process of communication. It is well-known that when teaching a lexical item, it is not sufficient only to be aware of the exact semantics of a word and its equivalents in the native language. Knowing the meaning of the word includes the ability to use it in oral and written communication, knowledge of collocation models as well as that of syntactic, pragmatic and discursive models connected with it. This leads to active and productive as well as receptive knowledge (Carter, Maccartney 1991:43). This is the approach to rely on while teaching the “false friends. This study also discusses the issues regarding employment of false friends at the lexical (connotation), pragmatic and collocation levels.

The following aspects can be considered in reference to the above –mentioned:

#### **1. Connotations associated with lexical items**

The learners of the second language find it difficult to identify connotations of lexical items. In the case of the “false friends” the chances of making errors increase as the learner transfers the meaning based on their own languages (negative transfer) and frequently this may be the reason for the errors they make. For instance,

in the following sentence: *misma patetikurma sitkvam msmelei ver daainteresa*. (The listeners were not interested in his pathetic speech). The word “pathetic” in English means “arousing pity, especially through vulnerability or sadness”. However, in Georgian the word “*patetikuri* (pathetic) means high-flown and is negatively loaded. Therefore, this word falls in the risk group of potential errors. The same can be said about *biurikratia* (Bureaucracy). In Georgian this word is defined as a rule which is based on a bureaucratic formality (Georgian language explanatory dictionary). On the other hand, in English this word denotes 1) **a**) a body of non elective government officials; b) an administrative policy-making group. 2 government characterized by specialization of functions, adherence to fixed rules, and a hierarchy of authority. 3 a system of administration marked by officialism, red tape, and proliferation (<https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/bureaucracy>). As can be seen, the word Bureaucracy in English denotes an administrative government and, unlike the Georgian word, it does not have negative connotation.

The same can be said about the word *karieristi* (careerist). In Georgian it refers to a person who is eager to be promoted and is characterized by a negative connotation. All 61 contexts of this word usage in the National Corpus of the Georgian Language bear a negative connotation. Therefore, the learners will realise that this word cannot be employed either in a neutral or positive sense unlike English in which careerist **is** defined as a person who follows a career. a person who pursues a policy or attitude of careerism. (<http://www.dictionary.com/browse/careerist>).

## 2. Pragmatic usage of a word

Although pragmatics is one of the principal domains regarding the teaching and learning of foreign languages it is not paid sufficient attention in classic textbooks. In this case, like previous ones, the “false friends” increase the chances of errors. Therefore, strategies of teaching the meaning of a word and its adequate use should be considered to be crucial. The student should be provided with extensive information about formality-informality of the register, the context and sphere of use in Georgian social space. From this point of view, it is advisable for intermediate and advanced students of Georgian to use the Georgian language corpus. For instance, the word *preservative* (condom) is not used in the meaning of *condom* in English, therefore, the students should realise the context and type of social interaction in which it can be safely used and feel when it should be replaced by the word “contraception”.

## 3. Collocations

Let us analyse several examples. In Georgian the word “*delikaturi*” is defined as follows: 1. polite, tactful and considerate behavior. 2 demanding cautious and considerate treatment, a delicate question.” (<http://www.ena.ge/explanatory-online>). Therefore, the collocations *delikaturei peri* (delicate colour) or *delikaturi konstruksia* (delicate construction) are considered to be errors.

In English the word “gallant” has several meanings: (adjective) (of a person or their behaviour) brave; heroic; grand or impressive (of a man); charmingly attentive and chivalrous to women (Oxford Dictionary of English). On the other hand, in Georgian this word has only one meaning that of a polite and chivalrous man. Therefore, it was not unexpected that the learners of Georgian found the following collocations feasible:

- *galanturi mtsdelob a* (gallant attempt).
- *galanturi dzalisxmeva* (gallant effort).
- *galanturi mogzauroba* (*gallant* voyage)<sup>1</sup>.

These examples prove that the areas of potential errors are quite broad and demand attention from the teacher.

---

<sup>1</sup> Collocations are taken from English sentences <http://sentencedict.com/gallant.html>.

### The goal of the research

This study aims at identifying and describing the cases of “false friends” in Georgian and English. In addition, it explores the challenges the learners of the Georgian language face when tackling false friends. As well as this, practical recommendations are worked out for the teachers, which can be used while teaching Georgian as a foreign language to intermediate and advanced learners. Specific exercises and activities are presented here to be used in the process of teaching Georgian. At the end of this article a small dictionary of “false friends” is given in which each Georgian item is provided with an incorrect and correct equivalents in English.

### Research methods

The following research methods are used in order to achieve the goals of the research: experiment, personal observation by a teacher, analysis, and a method of corpus analysis.

### Constraints of the research

The “false friends” are not classified according to the groups but are presented in alphabetical order.

### The experiment and its results:

The experiment was carried out with 30 foreign learners of Georgian. The target group was divided into three subgroups. The first group comprised the students with the intermediate level of Georgian and English as a language of instruction. The native tongues of these students were German, Italian, English, Korean, Arabic and Persian. The members of the second group spoke Russian as their second language and Georgian at an intermediate level. The learners with the advanced knowledge of Georgian and English made up the third group.

The students were given the most frequently used 20 “false friends” both as separate lexical items and in sentences. The participants were asked to infer the meaning of the target lexical item. The sentences were as follows:

- Shemdegi ori **simpatiuri** akhlagazrda gamochnda (Then two **simpaituri** (most handsome) people appeared);
- kvellaze **ekstravaganturi** admianis tsoeba, am tsignis mixedviT, genialur mxatvar Salvador dalis mistses ( Salvador Dali, the genial painter was awarded the title of the most **extravagant** painter);
- es kithvebi dges ufor **aktualuria** ( These questions are more **actual** (important) today);
- finansuri investor da skepulianti milionebs aketobs (A finance investor and a speculator (the person who sells things at higher prices that bought) make millions);
- es batoni levanis kabinetis iko (This was Mr. Levan’s **kabineti** (study, office);
- asi dolari da ori didi **briliantis** hknda ( He/She had a hundred dollars and two big **briliantis** (diamonds);
- Giorgim **blanki** shavso (Giorgi filled in a **blanki** ( form);
- ramdenime **pokusis** gaaketa (He did several **pokusis** ( tricks);
- **retseptis** migeba fasiani momsaxureba ikneba (getting a retsepti ( **prescription**) is to be paid for);
- sachiroa tu ara parlamentis sxdonebis **transliatsia** (Is **translation** (broadcast) of Parliament sessions necessary?
- 18 tvis ganmavlobashi ori **insultis** hkonda. (He/She had two **insultis** (stroke) in 18 months.

Interestingly, the members of the first group were not able to understand or made mistakes while guessing the meaning of the target lexical items. However, the members of the second group scored 100% whereas the members of the third group showed 65% of correct answers.

It can be argued that the correct answers of the second group members which was partly true for the third group as well were determined by proficiency in Russian spoken either as a foreign language or as a native

language. This is because these lexical items possessed similar meanings in Russian. On the other hand, as these words are not used in similar meanings in English, the students who spoke English were not able to guess the meanings correctly. This leads to the presupposition that the issue of “false friends” is a serious challenge for the learners of Georgian with English as their native or foreign language.

The next part of this article proposes the ways to overcome the discussed issue. In addition, it also offers instructions for teachers and practical tasks:

### **Strategies to teach “false friends” and practical tasks**

#### **The strategies connected with understanding the meaning of the “false friends”**

As expected, this experiment suggested that the use of a word independent of a context leads to errors and therefore the teacher should present the lexical material in the context and work on it together with students. The following types of activities have proven to be effective:

1. Questions connected with the understanding of “false friends” :
  - Which of your familiar words does this word look like?
  - Can the word in this context mean the same as in your language?
  - What do you think this new word could mean according to the context?
2. Give the learner a context and 3 - 4 suggested answers and put a question::
  - What do you think this new word could mean according to the context?

#### ***For instance:***

akhal sakhlshi mas sakutari komfortuli hkonda, sadac daistera misi literaturuli shedevri.

(In his new house he had a comfortable “kabineti”, in which his literary masterpieces were written).

The question: what could the word “kabineti” mean?

- 1) a room 2) a cabin 3) a cupboard 4) a working room
3. Give students a definition of the word in the target language (from the dictionary or, if necessary, compiled by the teacher) (Pcholinska, 2010). We believe that best results are achieved when students look up such lexical items themselves.
4. Translation. Ask students to look for the translation of the word independently. Interfere only as absolutely necessary.
5. Offering a broad context. Ask students to infer the meaning of the “false friends” based on the broad context, several sentences or a paragraph.
6. Introducing synonymous items. Students are introduced to familiar synonyms of the target lexical items. This helps them to guess the meaning successfully.
7. Use of antonyms. While learning “false friends” it is also effective to use their antonyms. (Mote [http://litu.tu.ac.th/FLLT2013/www.flit2013.org/private\\_folder/Proceeding/377.pdf](http://litu.tu.ac.th/FLLT2013/www.flit2013.org/private_folder/Proceeding/377.pdf)).
8. The teacher asks students to make up a Georgian-English dictionary of “false friends”, to which new items can be added.
9. Matching exercises facilitates memorizing words as well as revision of the material.

#### ***For instance:***

- Match the following Georgian and English words:

pokusi	grade
kompositori	trick
klasi	music writer
- Matching the following words and their definitions:

Kabineti ( a study)	Precious stone
Pokusi ( a trick)	A room in the house used for studying or mental work
Brilianti (diamond)	A skillful act performed for entertainment or amusement.

- Match the word and the text logically/find a logical connection between the word and the text

Prospekti ( avenue)	Mr. David was admired by women even when he was old. He always looked well. When meeting a lady she knew, he always greeted her by taking off his hat and kissing her on the hand
Galanturi ( gallant)	Beautiful open cafes opened in a straight and wide street. Soon this street became a favourite place for locals and tourists.

9. In order to solve such lexical problems True/False exercises are very effective

**For instance:**

	True	False
An efficient woman is referred to as “accurate”	-----	-----
“Tomati” is a tomato sauce	-----	-----

10. Use of visual materials.

As is well-known, visualization facilitates the process of learning and memorizing. At the same time, this activity also helps the student memorise and categorise the words. Students are shown 2 photos one of which contains the words in their native language whereas the other - the words in the target language.

**For instance:**

A man wearing “smoking” (tuxedo) and “a smoking man”

Next students are asked to write the words they had just learnt on the blackboard (each student writes only one word) while others put up a corresponding photo under it.

12. Mind maps

Students are asked to place the target word in the middle of the map and map all the familiar words phonetically or semantically connected with the target word. At the next stage the teacher and the students continue working on mind maps.

- Students group phonetically similar words and comment on semantic similarities and differences between them.
- Students identify and group semantically similar but phonetically different words.
- Students identify and group synonyms and antonyms.
- Students identify and group parts of speech.

13. Word networking:

- Students copy the definition of the word from the target language dictionary and the translation dictionary.
- At the next stage, when the meaning of the “false friends” is already known to them, students write words associated with the central target word.
- In order to enrich their associations, students address syntagmatic (linear) and paradigmatic (based on associations) methods (Gass, Selinker 2006 : 457 - 458)

*For instance*

<i>Syntagmatic:</i>		<i>Paradigmatic</i>	
<b>Word</b>	<b>answer</b>	<b>word</b>	<b>answer</b>
himni	simgera (song) kvekana(country)	himni	siamake (pride) emotsia (emotion) gulze midebuli kheli (a hand on the heart)

- Students write synonyms and antonyms.
- Finally, students find 2 - 3 sentences with new “false friends” in the National Corpus of the Georgian Language

It is recommended to practice this type of work with students who speak Georgian at intermediate or upper intermediate levels. At the next stage students share one another’s work and identify similarities and differences between them. (This is memorizing lexical items through repeating). Students identify errors and assess them.

**Conclusions**

The learning of the second language is a difficult process influenced by a number of linguistic (the first language, the language of instruction, general pre-linguistic knowledge...) and extra-linguistic (environment, motivation, general intelligence level, time...) factors.

The experiment revealed that the learners of the Georgian language, like learners of any other language perceive the “false friends” through their own language (negative interference). In order to overcome this challenge, at the first stage it is advisable to teach the meaning of a “false friend” through a guided discovery (a dictionary, broad context, visualization) and not by mechanical memorization. Activities which facilitate broadening and enhancing the knowledge are introduced only after this. As well as this, well-known activities (mind maps, words networking) are introduced as learning resources, which is one of the novelties of this work. It should also be mentioned here that the “false friends” are well-known and spread in Georgian. According to the National Corpus of the Georgian language, the most widely spread “false friend” is the word “generaluri” which appears in the corpus 47750 times. Another widely spread word is “originaluri”- which appears 3989 times as well as aktualuri, regularuli, sistematuri, efekturi. These data emphasize the significance of the meaning of lexical items and knowledge of the strategies of their use to build up effective communication. Finally, the knowledge of the “false friends” and their adequate use enhances the discursive and sociocultural competences of the learner.

In the final part of the article a Georgian-English dictionary of “false friends” is presented which is one of the novelties of this study. Each of the Georgian lexical items is accompanied by an incorrect meaning and an adequate word in English. Practical recommendations and the dictionary will, by all means, help the teachers and learners as well as people interested in this issue.

aborti - Abort – Abortion	intelligenti -Intelligent – Cultured
akordi - Accord - Chord	imparkti- imparkt – Heart Attack
akuratuli - Accurate – Orderly, clean.	intsidenti - Incident – Unpleasant event, Quarrel; conflict
artisti - Artist - Actor/actress	kabinet - Cabinet –Office, study-room
akadenimosi - Academic – Academician	

<p>akumulatori - Accumulator - Battery  akuratuli- Accurate – Neat. Exact  akuratuloba - Accuracy – Exactness  advokati - Advocate – Lawyer  afera - Affair – Bunco, Fraud  angina - Angina – Tonsillitis  anekdoti - Anecdote – Joke  anekdoturi - Anecdotal - Funny, comical, humorous  auditoria - Audience – Auditorium  aqtualuri- Actual – Topical  baloni - Balloon – Cylinder(for gas), container  banda - Band – Gang  banko - Bunco - Playing card  benzini - Benzene, benzine - Petrol  betoni - Baton- Concrete  behemoti - Behemoth – Hippopotamus  bileti - Billet - Ticket  biskviti - Biscuit – Sponge cake  blanki - Blank – Form (paper); form (to be filled in)  borti - Bort – Board, side (of ship); lapel  brilianti - Brilliant – Diamond  buketi- Bucket – Bouquet  generaluri - General – Main, chief, head, principal  genialuri - Genial - Genius, brilliant  gratsiozuli- Gracious - Elegant  dekada - Decade – 10 days  dekoratori - Decorator - Scene-painter, graphic designer  dekoratsia - Decoration – Setting, cover-up, superficial decoration  delikaturni -Delicate – Refined, cultured  deputati - Deputy – Member of Parliament  dieta - Diet – healthy meal  diversia - Diverse – Sabotage  divizia- Division – (mil.) Battalion  direktori - Director - Manager, CEO,  direktsia - Direction – Directorate, management  epekturi - Effective – Efficient  eqspertiza – Expertise – Examination  ekstravagantuli - Extravagant – Bizarre , eccentric  valeti- Valet – Jack  velveti - Velvet – Corduroy  veneriuli - Venereal – Ssexually Transmitted  vizuali - Visual – Look, appearance  vinegreti - Vinaigrette – Russian Salad  virtuosuri - Virtuous – Masterly  iluminatori - Illuminator - (ship’s) porthole; small</p>	<p>klasi - Class – Class, Grade  kompozitori - Composer – Composer  konkurenti - Concurrent –Competitor  konkursi - Concourse – competition  kreditu- Credit – Bank Loan  korektuli - Correct – right  magistratura - Magistrature – Master Program  magistranti - Magistrate -Master's student, graduate student  marmeladi - Jam - Candied fruit jelly  marka - Mark – Stamp  metodisti - Methodist – Methodologist  mina - Mine – Glass  miqstura - Mixture – Liquid medicine, mixture of different substances.  metropliteni - Metropolitan – Metro (system)  motoristi- Motorist – Motor mechanic  novela - Novel - Short story  novelisti - Novelist - Short story writer  obligatsia - Obligation - Bond, debenture  okupanti - Occupant – <b>Subjugator</b>, conqueror  operatori - Operator – Camera man  originaluri - Original – Unique  opitsianti - Officer – Waiter/waitress  patetikuri - Pathetic – Pompous, bombastic  palata - Palate - Chamber, ward  paragarpi- Paragraph – Section, chapter  paroli - Parole - Password  partizani - Partisan – Guerrilla  peroni - Peron – Platform  personaji - Personage – Character  personali - Personal, individual – Personnel  piloti - Pilot - Flier, flyer, airline pilot, aviator; aviatrix  poema -Poem- Narrative poetry  prezervativi - Preservative – Condom, contraceptive  prospeqti - Prospect - Avenue  jaketi - Jacket - Cardigan  jurnali- Journal – Magazine  regularuli- Regular - Systematic  rezini- Resin – Rubber  repetitsia- Repetition – Rehearsal  replika- Replica - Cue remark, retort  <b>retsepti</b> - Recipe – Recipe, Prescription  romanisti - Romanist – Novel writer  simpatiuri - Sympathetic – handsome, attractive.  sistematuri- Systematic – Regular</p>
----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

window. indeqsi - Index – Zip code insulti- Insult – Stroke instrumenti – Instrument - Tool	smokingi - Smoking - Tuxedo spekulianti - Speculator – Dealer, Illegal seller taloni - Talon – Coupon tomati - Tomato - Tomato paste tramvai - Tramway - Tram trampolini- Trampoline - Springboard, ski jump translatsia - Translation – Broadcast transparenti- Transparent – Banner trapezi - Trapeze - Repast umaglesi skola - High school – University himni - Hymn – Anthem pabrika - Fabric – Factory, Plant pokusi - Focus – Magic, Trick. shepi- Chef – Boss, patron.
------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

## References

- Abashidze, N., “False Friends of the Translator“ as a Didactic Problem and its Lexicographic Aspect (On the Material of French and Georgian Languages), Batumi II International Symposium in Lexicography, Proceedings([http://www.ice.ge/new/batumi/Batumi 2012.pdf](http://www.ice.ge/new/batumi/Batumi%2012.pdf))
- Carter, R., McCarthy, M., Vocabulary and Language Teaching, London, Longman, 1991
- Crystal, David, Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (IV edition).Oxford, Blackwell 1997.
- Gass Susan M., Selinker, Larry, Second Language Acquisition. Third edition. 2006
- Gvarishvili, Z. Translator’s “false friends” problem in the Process of Second Language Teaching, Issues of State Language Teaching, Problems and Challenges, Conference Abstracts, Tbilisi, 2011
- Mothe, Prashant Subhash, Innovative Techniques of Teaching Vocabulary at the Intermediate Level in the Second Language Classroom, [http://litu.tu.ac.th/FLLT2013/www.fllt2013.org/private\\_folder/Proceeding/377.pdf](http://litu.tu.ac.th/FLLT2013/www.fllt2013.org/private_folder/Proceeding/377.pdf), retrieved at 31th of January, 2018
- O'Neill, M., Casanovas, M., False friends: a historical perspective and present implications for lexical acquisition, <http://www.raco.cat/index.php/Bells/article/view/102791/149196>
- Pčolinská, A., How to Present Vocabulary in a Language Classroom in a Communicative Way, 2010, in February, Humanizing Language Teaching, <http://www.hltag.co.uk/feb10/sart03.htm>, retrieved at 31th of January, 2018
- Rufus, H., Gouws, D. J. Prinsloo., Gilles-Maurice de Schryver°, 2004, Friends will be Friends – True or False. Lexicographic Approaches to the Treatment of False Friends, 2004.

### Sources:

- Explanatory dictionary of the Georgian language - <http://www.ena.ge/explanatory-online>
- Merriam Webster Dictionary online <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/bureaucracy>
- Oxford Dictionary of English - (<https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/gallant>)
- National Corpus of the Georgian Language <http://clarino.uib.no/gnc/page?page-id=gnc-main-page>

**Hirschi Kevin**

*International Black Sea University, Georgia*

## **Intonation and Word Stress in Georgian EFL Learners' Utterances: does Praat Training Help?**

### **Abstract**

For EFL speakers, prosodic features such as intonation and word stress contribute greatly to the comprehensibility of an utterance (Derwing & Rossiter, 2003; Zielinski, 2008). Yet, many of the problems learners face in being understood may be due to L1 - L2 transfer of these prosodic features (Flege, 1984). While some phonological research has been done on Georgian speakers speaking in Georgian (Alkhazishvili, 1959; Skopeteas, Féry, & Asatiani, 2008), little is known about L1 - L2 phonological transfer in Georgian EFL learners' utterances in English. Additionally, no known study has used Praat training with Georgian EFL speakers to increase the awareness of intonation and word stress in English and improve the intelligibility of their utterance. This study investigated L1 - L2 transfer in word stress and intonation of speech collected during a free-speaking activity from several Georgian EFL learner participants. Based on examples in the recordings, five problematic words and five problematic phrases in English were identified as target forms for a three-week pronunciation training that focused on intonation and word stress with Praat with the same six participants. Recordings before and after pronunciation training will be collected and analyzed to investigate modifications made by the participants. Results indicate a statistically significant improvement in word stress, however a non-significant change in intonation. While certain features of L1 - L2 transfer in word stress and intonation are present in the data, they do not match exactly the tendency of Georgian speakers. Implications are made for pronunciation teachers of Georgian learners as well as teachers with learners of other languages that face similar prosodic differences.

**Key words:** *Phonology, Pronunciation, Praat, Georgian, Prosody.*

### **Introduction**

Learning and speaking a foreign language involves a vast variety of skills including a knowledge and ability to use, in production, lexical items through appropriate syntax; an understanding of the pragmatic implications of the language; and, of course, the ability and knowledge to use specific sounds to communicate. Phonology, the study of the interpretation of the sounds of a language, is a part of all learner's process of acquiring a language. Traditional approaches to learning English L2 learner's deviations, progress, and instruction in producing and perceiving segmental sounds, i.e., individual phonemes; however, there a growing focus on suprasegmental features, such as sentence prominence, rhythm, features of connected speech (such as liaison and elision), word stress (also known as lexical stress), and intonation (e.g., Derwing & Munro, 1997; Derwing & Rossiter, 2003; Gorjian, Hayati, & Pourkhoni 2013; Levis & Pickering, 2004).

This article focuses on two suprasegmental features, intonation and word stress, to determine the impact of visual-explicit instruction, integrated technology, and features in participants' native language in the acquisition of target forms in English. It recognizes that word stress and intonation are typically associated with the native

speaker of English (NSE) norms in varieties of English (i.e., Received Pronunciation, General American, and South Asian English) and is not considered an integral part of English as a Lingua Franca (Jenkins, 2000). However, it is nonetheless an area of interest as learners express the desire to check their mastery of phonological features as they balance control of accuracy and fluency when learning a new language and to be able to communicate well with NSEs. It is particularly novel in the use of participants who are native speakers of Georgian, a Kartvelian language in the South Caucasus.

### **Intonation**

Intonation is the use of pitch to convey supra-lexical information such as emotions, focus, and signals of questions. In English, there is considerable difference in intonation norms amongst genders, varieties of English, and individuals. The general categories of intonation patterns that are somewhat stable amongst users are declarative statements, polar questions (yes / no), and information questions. Among these, the possible intonation contours that have been found are analyzed at the terminus as falling, low rising, and high rising (Cutler, 2005; Fletcher, Grabe, and Warren, 2006; Fries, 1964; Ogden, 2009; Roach, 1982). The intonation choices by speakers is often pragmatic: they can modify the illocutionary force to check for clarification, or express shock and disbelief.

Amongst L2 learners of English, practitioners have combined intonation training with rhythm, sentence prominence, and other features in creative ways such as kazoos (Gilbert, 1978) and traditional textbook materials (Hancock, 2003; Lane, 2005). Classroom instruction models have been formed and recommend instructors to follow a model of analysis, listening discrimination, controlled practice, guided practice, and communicative activities (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin, 2010). There is, however, extensive discussion over the importance of the feature and instruction of intonation, in particular in EFL contexts. Jenkins (2000) posits that intonation contours and their pragmatic meaning, are tied to NSE populations; i.e., there are NNSE groups that create their own alternative intonation pragmatics. Therefore, instruction time is better spent on other issues.

### **Word Stress**

The English phonological system contains a variable stress for syllables within words. Often called lexical stress, word stress is phonemic, i.e., it can differentiate between two separate words. While many words do not have alternate forms, words such as *record* (noun) and *record* (verb) are differentiated only by phonological stress. When this occurs, weak sounds are often modified to a schwa. For the vast majority of words in English, word stress is lexical and must be learned along with the word. This is a challenge mastered by nearly all NSs of English, but can prove challenging for Non-Native Speakers of English (NNSEs), a phenomenon long studied by those concerned with pronunciation (Newman, 1946).

Word stress is important for NS to understand NNS as confirmed by both studies in psycholinguistics and cognitive science. Bond (1999) found evidence to support an argument that NS of English listen more closely to stressed syllables than to unstressed syllables. Therefore, not only may the location of the stress within the word be important, but the phonemic quality may contribute as to comprehension as well. Other researchers view lexical items as if they exist in a database. If this is the case, the index for finding a word, its meaning, and other information, is the stressed syllable (Grosjean & Gee, 1987).

Further evidence from the field of applied linguistics has confirmed that the intelligibility of an utterance relies at least partially on word stress (Zielinski, 2008). This has led to empirically-based recommendations and examples of intervention studies that include word stress to promote intelligibility (Derwing & Munro, 1997; Derwing & Rossiter, 2003; Munro & Derwing, 1995). While much of these studies show improvement and partial importance of the correct stress of a syllable, they find that the segmental quality of the stressed syllable is of greater importance for intelligibility by NSE raters. However, Field (2005), found that NSEs responded to

intelligibility ratings in similar ways as NNSEs. None of the studies found include Georgian participants or participants from Kartvelian languages.

### Georgian Lanugage

Georgian intonation is quite different from that found in English. As it is a synthetic language with flexible word order, the intonation contour of a declarative can vary greatly from utterance to utterance. Skopeteas, Féry, and Asatiani (2009) and Jun, Vicenik, and Lofstedt (2007) both describe several instances of a falling phrasal terminal. However, questions seem to vary greatly based on the focus of the question. A strong rise and fall, and sometimes a second rise and fall, seem to be common in polar (yes / no) questions. This allows the speaker many choices. A focus word can be moved to the beginning of the sentence, the end of the sentence, or kept anywhere with additional intonation emphasis. Similarly, information (wh-) questions seem to have an intonation focus on the wh- question word. Figure 1 illustrates this in the sentence *whom is Nino looking after?*

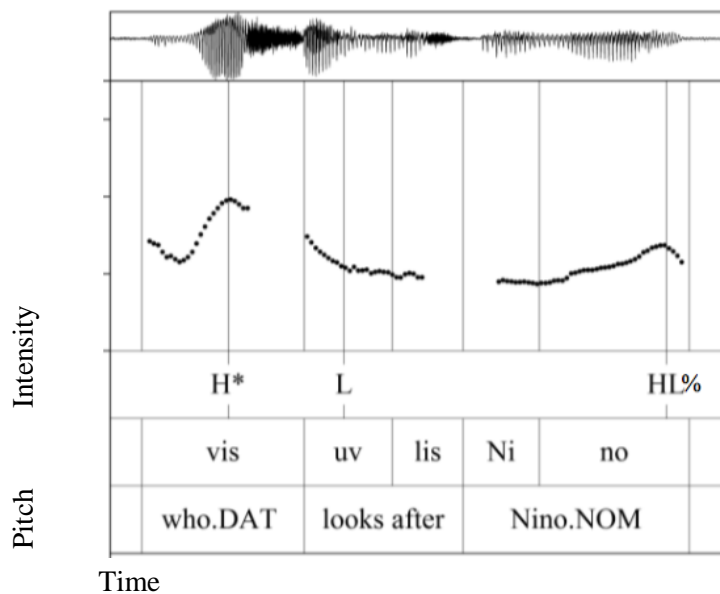


Figure 1. Prominence and rising intonation on question word in Georgian utterance (Borise, 2017, p. 94).

Georgian is also a fixed-stress language with some exceptions. Early research on the language reported that there was a fixed stress on the first syllable of each word (Alkhazishvili, 1959). However, more recent studies have painted a picture that is a bit more complex. The Georgian language is synthetic. Verbs, in particular, can be modified with prefixes, infixes, and suffixes. Recent studies have found that the stressed syllable can be the antepenult in some cases (Butskhrikidze, 2002; Butskhrikidze, 2016; Jun *et al.*, 2007).

The present study endeavors to investigate the phonological features of Georgian NNSEs. Two areas of focus are targeted: intonation in three types of phrases (declaratives, polar questions, and information questions), and word stress. These were chosen because of anecdotal evidence encountered by the research as well as the amount of information known about their Georgian language equivalents that will allow for cross-language comparison. In addition, this study will investigate the impact of Praat training in these two phonological areas. While several practitioners report settings where learners use Praat (Wilson, 2008), no known studies have done so with L1 Georgian learners. Therefore, the following research questions were formed:

1. To what extent does Praat help learners match target features in sentence intonation based on models?
2. To what extent does Praat help learners match word stress patterns based on models?
3. Are learners' utterances similar to Georgian phonology?

## **Hypotheses**

The results of the first and second research questions regarding intonation and word stress are expected to reveal that learners, given feedback from Praat, are able to improve their ability to control intonation and word stress and match their targeted forms. Based on research reviewed above, several techniques have been used with both simple resources, such as Gilbert's (1979) Kazoos and, with Praat and other computer platforms, such as Wilson's (2008) guidelines. However, the extent to which training in intonation can impact a learners' ability to control the said variable in production is unknown.

The third research question is exploratory in nature. As such, it is unknown which features may be transferred from learner's L1 to production samples collected during this study. As word stress is relatively fixed in Georgian, it is possible that this feature is transferred to English utterances by participants. However, there is ample evidence that learners overcome this even without explicit instruction on word stress. It is also expected that intonation issues will be transferred, but exactly how is not known.

## **Method**

### **Introduction**

The first two research questions, regarding learners using Praat to match target forms of intonation and word stress, are addressed in an intervention study. Data was collected, normed, and both descriptive and inferential statistics were computed. For the final research question, selected samples were closely analyzed to find tendencies and trends in the data. The description of the analysis is in the following sections on participants in the study, materials used to collect data and during the intervention, a detailed account of the procedures and an outline of the steps of the analysis.

### **Participants**

Six Georgian learners of English were selected from an intact group of second year students at a university in the capital of Georgia. The participants were all female aged 18-20, which is representative of the population of English majors at the university. Students of this program are required to have the proficiency of pre-intermediate in English during admissions and are expected to master English to an advanced level. The study program includes two semesters of pronunciation and listening courses as well as a variety of other speaking skills courses and general English language skills courses. The native language of students in this program is not homogenous, however all participants are native speakers of Georgian. Only four of the six participants completed the entire course and the post-semester Praat lab workshop.

### **Materials**

This study included resources from textbooks, pronunciation training websites, and computer software. Two textbooks were used in the courses of pronunciation training, both of which include lessons in word stress and intonation. Lane's (2005) textbook offers four units on word stress and two units on intonation. Units 18 and 19 (strong stress and secondary, Weak syllables, respectively) were used as a part of the course in classroom lectures. Units 27 and 28 (rising and falling intonation, using your voice to show your feelings, respectively) were used for intonation instruction as well. In addition, students were required to create pronunciation practice stations for a rotating final course assignment, in which lessons 28 - 31 and 54 - 60 were from Hancock (2003) and were options. Students chose lessons 28 (stress in two syllable words), 29 (stress in compound words), 56 (tones in asking for information), and 59 (agreeing and disagreeing tones). While all of

the participants for the current study were present, they may not have all seen each other's pronunciation stations.

In addition to these textbook resources, participants completed lessons on Seattle Learning Academy's (2016) Pronuncian website <<http://pronuncian.com>>. Lessons included word stress and intonation.

Instructors of pronunciation often deliver explicit instruction in prosodic features for adolescent and adult second and foreign language learners. To assist in explicit understanding of prosodic features, computers have been used to analyze recorded speech and visually display pitch contour and intensity contour of the sound. Praat is one such software that has been adapted from phonetics research to classroom use (Boersma, 2001; Wilson, 2008). Praat was also used in the classroom and in the post-semester lab workshop.

### **Procedures**

Before pronunciation training, speaking samples recorded by participants at home were recorded and submitted to an online platform. Samples included responses to questions asked at the end of a lecture that included related vocabulary instruction, a reading or listening passage, and in-class practice speaking on the same topic. The researcher collected eight samples from six participants to serve as a pre-treatment baseline for intonation and to collect common errors in word stress.

During the course of the semester, Praat was introduced and was used to show and check student performance of a variety of phonological features, including word stress and intonation. Students volunteered to record themselves saying a phrase and show the Praat analysis to the class. This was done for instructor-led units on both intonation and word stress.

At the end of the semester, four participants completed additional training in a lab with Praat using the Seattle Learning Academy's (2016) Pronuncian website for approximately two hours. The first part of this lesson was a baseline recording of a list of 15 different target items. For intonation, there were a variety of sentence fragments, short declarative sentences, wh – questions, and yes / no questions. Participants were then guided through print explanations of common practices in intonation and word stress and provided with several examples. They were then given printed Praat analyses of sample audio files and were asked to match pitch contour, in the case of the intonation lesson, or intensity contour, in the case of the word stress lesson, as closely as possible.

After completing the intensive section of the lesson, participants were then instructed to create a speech that included five target forms from the pronunciation lesson that was practiced. Several recordings were kept during the process of comparing participant speech to target models in Praat which were marked by the participants as an attempt or a final submission for matching a target form of intonation or word stress. The final, semi-spontaneous speech and the participants' choices of their final submission were used for post-treatment data.

Research ethics protocols in informed consent were followed. Participants agreed to allow their speech files and handouts to be used for this study. Participants were also informed of their right to end their participation in this study at any time.

## Analysis

All speech files required cleaning for noise through sound editing software. The pre-treatment speech and post-treatment speech were initially transcribed automatically and then checked by the researchers manually. The researcher checked the accuracy of transcription and counted the number of sentences, marking each as an intonation token. In addition, multisyllabic words were coded for normalized comparison of word stress. Sentence boundaries were determined by intonation and rhythm, rather than grammatical or organizational features. Each token was coded as one of the three types of targeted intonation; declarative, wh- questions, and yes / no questions. Figure 2 illustrates pitch and intensity contours of an utterance marked with incorrect word stress on the word *percent* and accurate falling intonation that marked the end of declarative sentences.

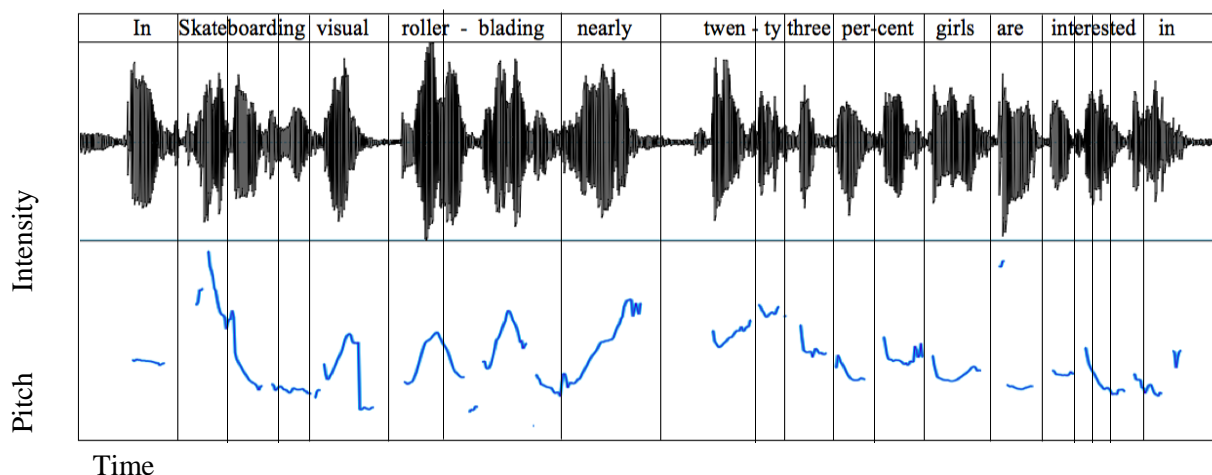


Figure 2. Sentence intonation of declarative sentence illustrating falling sentence terminal and incorrect stress on *percent*.

The researcher used intensity waveform displays and pitch contours in Praat to mark errors in word stress and unexpected intonation across the three types of intonations. The number of unexpected intonation tokens was divided by the total number of intonation tokens for each sample to create a score that was comparable across samples with different numbers of tokens. Both General American and Received Pronunciation word stress patterns were considered acceptable.

Due to the limited number of target forms of intonation in the three types investigated by this study (declaratives, wh-questions, and yes/no questions), pre-treatment totals included both the pre-treatment speech collected at the beginning of the semester and items elicited at the beginning of the Praat lab training.

To address the third research question, participant samples of unexpected or incorrect intonation and word stress were used and compared to research by Jun *et al.* (2007) and Skopeteas *et al.* (2009). These studies include one female Georgian NS in her 50s in North America and sixty Georgian NS in the capital of Georgia. Using Praat, side-by-side comparisons of intonation spectrum readouts and word stress.

## Results

The results section is divided by research question. The first section pertains to participant data analysis for intonation. The second is for word stress. For the first and second research question, token and word counts are given before descriptive and inferential statistics for accuracy. The third research question uses several examples from participant data and phonological research on Georgian utterances to compare features.

### Intonation

Intonation data was compiled from four sources: (a) the pre-treatment, beginning of semester speech, (b) the elicited list of target items, (c) the targeted items marked by participants during the Praat lab lesson and (d) the post-treatment spontaneous speech. Each sentence, as determined by intonation, was considered a token. The average length of the pre-treatment, beginning of semester speech transcript was 23 sentences ( $SD = 7.78$ ). Each participant read 18 phrases at the beginning of the Praat lab lesson and 10 during the lesson. The post-treatment speeches were shorter, the average length of the transcript being and 8.75 sentences ( $SD = 1.79$ ). See Table 1 for complete token data.

Table 1 *Distribution of targeted intonation tokens for all participants across procedures*

	Declaratives	Wh-questions	Yes / No Questions	Total
Pre-treatment speech	92	0	0	92
Pre-treatment elicited list	12	16	8	36
Post-treatment elicited list	16	12	12	40
Post-treatment speech	34	0	1	35
Total	154	28	21	203

Speeches and elicited lists were combined to compare treatment effects and scores were averaged based on accuracy of target feature from each sample. The results are broken down by target intonation type. For declaratives, the average pre-treatment accuracy of expected falling intonation was 71.64 ( $SD = 5.87$ ). For wh-questions, the average pre-treatment accuracy was 25 ( $SD = 43.30$ ) and for yes / no questions, the average pre-treatment accuracy was 100 ( $SD = 0$ ). The post-treatment results for declaratives was on average 86.88 ( $SD = 7.85$ ), for wh- questions was 88.89 ( $SD = 13.61$ ), and yes / no questions had an average of 89.58 ( $SD = 13.66$ ). See Figure 3 for visualization of pre-treatment and post-treatment scores.

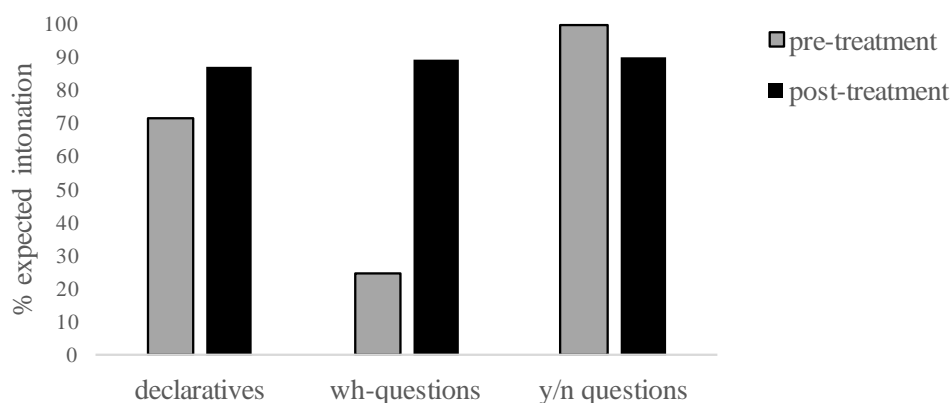


Figure 3. Pre-treatment and post-treatment averages bar chart.

All three target types were tested using a paired-samples t-test. Parametric tests were chosen despite the small sample size based on the original use of the t-test outlined by Student (1908). Inferential statistics were run using two-tailed p values and comparing the  $t_{observed}$  to the  $t_{critical}$ . None of the types of intonation gave significant results. The  $t_{observed}$  was  $t = 2.41, 2.85, \text{ and } 1.32$  for declarative, wh-questions, and yes / no questions, respectively. As the degrees of freedom were consistent across types, the  $t_{critical}$  (all types) was  $\pm 3.18$ . See Table 2 for complete results. This indicates that, with the data to hand, it is not possible to conclude that the treatment had an impact on the scores.

**Table 2** *Pre-treatment and post-treatment accuracy of intonation feature*

type	Pre-treatment		Post-treatment		Significance	
	tokens	M (SD)	tokens	M (SD)	t <sub>observed</sub>	p
declarative	104	71.64 (5.87)	50	86.88 (7.85)	2.41	0.01
wh-questions	16	25 (43.30)	12	88.89 (13.61)	2.85	0.07
Yes / no questions	8	100 (0)	13	89.58 (13.66)	1.32	0.28

Note. N (all types) = 4, df (all types) = 3, t<sub>critical</sub> (all types) = +/- 3.18 (two-tailed), p < .05

**Word Stress**

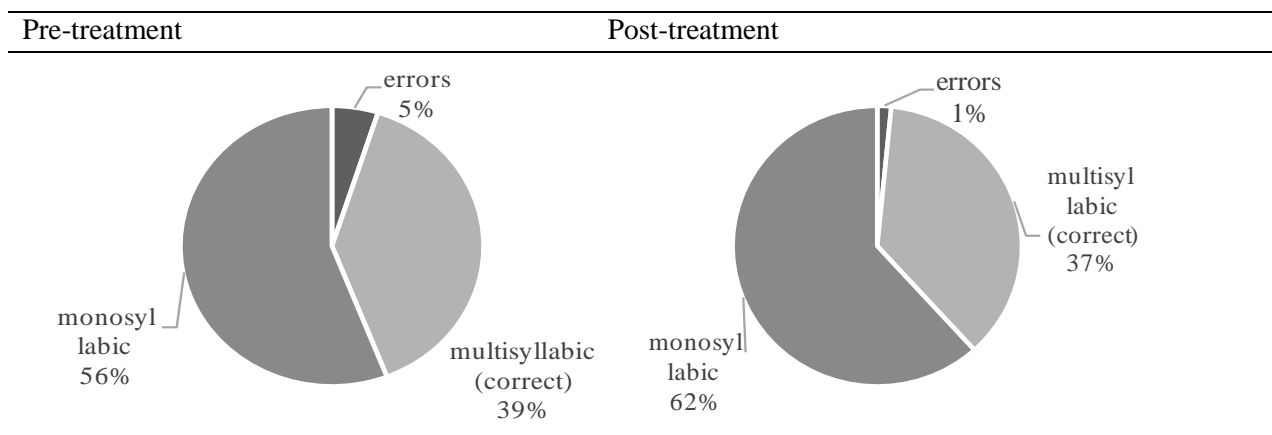
Word stress data was compiled from two sources: the pre-treatment, beginning of semester speech and the post-treatment spontaneous speech. Each multisyllabic word was considered a token. The average length of the pre-treatment, beginning with the semester speech transcript was 188.25 words (SD = 43.40). Each participant read 18 phrases at the beginning of the Praat lab lesson and 10 during the lesson. The post-treatment speeches were shorter, the average length of the transcript being 64.25 words (SD = 5.80). See Table 3 for complete token distribution and descriptive statistics. Figure 4 illustrates the breakdown of words and errors.

**Table 3**

*Distribution of words multisyllabic words, and word stress errors*

	Pre-treatment	Post-treatment
total words	753 (M = 188.25, SD = 43.40)	256 (M = 23.00, SD = 7.78)
multisyllabic words	332 (M = 83.00, SD = 18.36)	98 (M = 24.50, SD = 3.04)
errors in word stress	37 (M = 9.25, SD = 1.92)	4 (M = 1.00, SD = 0.71)
score	M = 88.78, SD = 0.98	M = 96.15, SD = 2.95

Inferential statistics were also computed. A score was calculated based on the number of word stress errors divided by the number of multisyllabic words. A paired-samples t-test was computed from the scores. Inferential statistics were run using two-tailed p values and comparing the t<sub>observed</sub> to the t<sub>critical</sub>. The results were significant. The t<sub>observed</sub> was t = 6.80 and as the degrees of freedom were 3, the t<sub>critical</sub> was set at +/- 3.18 using two-tailed, p < .05. The result was p = 0.01. Post-hoc calculations were run to find the effect size following Cohen (1988). The resulting eta<sup>2</sup> was 0.74, indicating that much of the improvement in scores was due to the treatment.



**Figure 4.** Side-by-side comparison of pre- and post-intervention word stress conditions.

### Similarities to Georgian Phonology

Analyses for similarities in intonation between participant samples and Georgian language utterances was conducted using Praat examples from Borise (2017) and Skopeteas *et al.* (2009). Comparisons of declarative sentences revealed that an intonation difference was placed on the main verb of the sentence in many utterances, however the intonation difference was not similar. In the case of this utterance in Georgian, the main verb (*likes / moscons*) is marked by high tones. The comparison phrase by a participant in this study in English shows a similar emphasis but is marked by low tones on the main verb (*love*). See Figures 5 and 6.

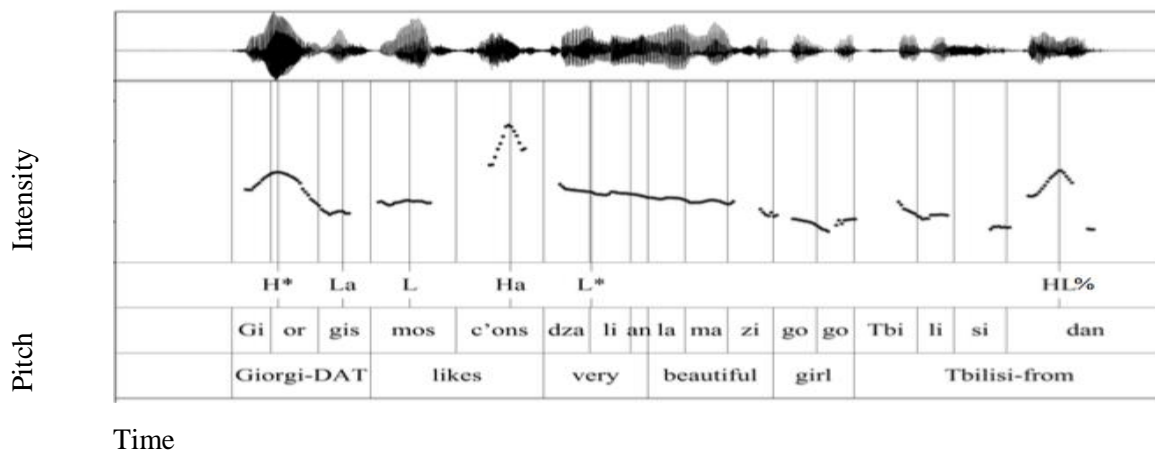


Figure 5. Georgian sentence with high rising and falling tone on main verb (Borise, 2017, p. 92).

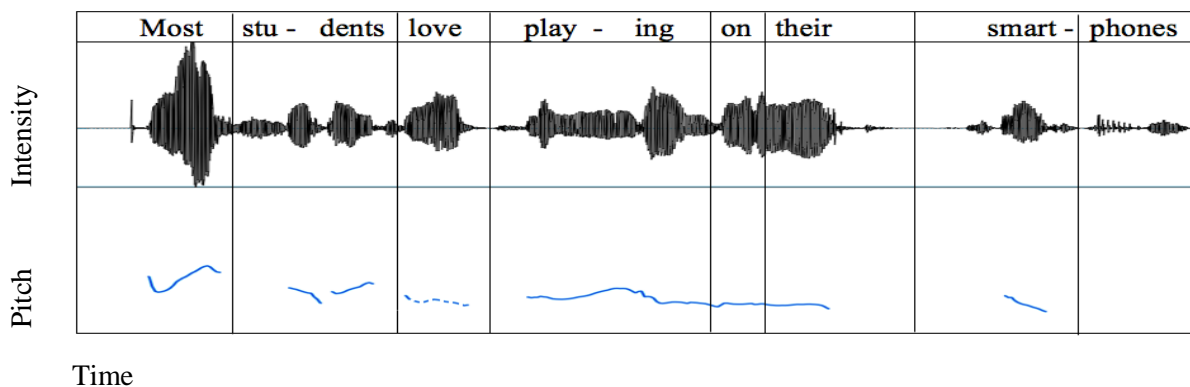


Figure 6. Participant declarative sentence in English with slight intonation different on main verb.

Another theme that surfaced during the review of these sentences was the noticeable smaller amount of pitch variation. As can be seen in Figures 4 and 5, the statement in Georgian has a much wider range of pitch (75Hz to 350Hz, precise rates were not listed), whereas the sentence in English has a smaller range in pitch (180Hz to 271Hz). Most sampled declarative sentences were similarly small in pitch range.

Pitch analysis revealed more similarities in the pitch contour of yes / no questions in English and in Georgian. The analysis from Jun *et al.* (2007) revealed a high pitch on the main verb of a simple yes / no question, see Figure 7. The intonation is particularly expressive at the main verb (*is washing / bans*). A similar pitch was found in participants' utterances in English, see Figure 8. The expressive pitch contour can be seen on the second syllable of the main verb (*going*). Note that this example reveals a strong use of elision.

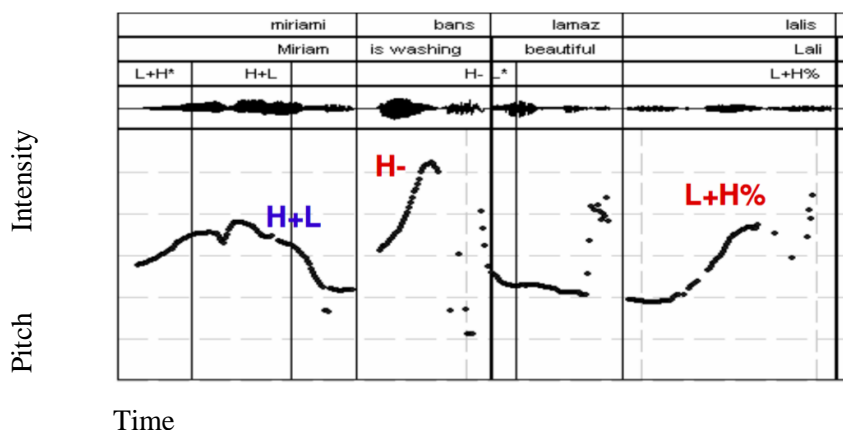


Figure 7. Georgian yes / no question with rising and falling intonation on main verb and rising terminal intonation (Jun et al., 2007, p. 11)

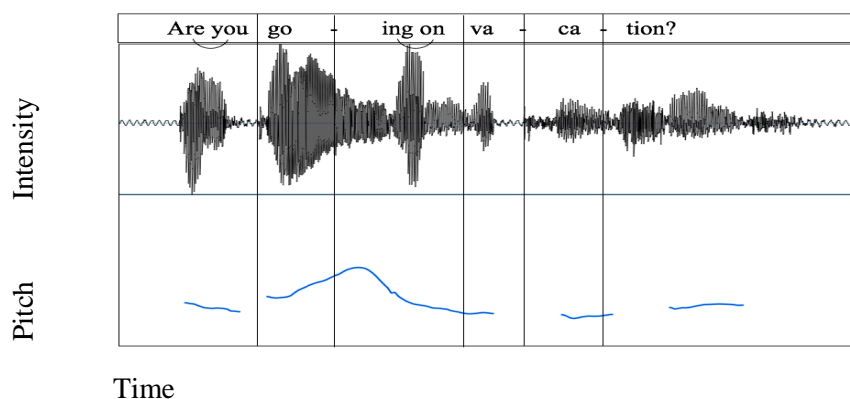


Figure 8. Participant yes / no question in English with small rising intonation on main verb.

Word stress analysis and comparison with Georgian phonology revealed similarly that errors in word stress were only sometimes linked with the Georgian word stress system. In Figure 9, two words are compared. In Georgian, the first syllable is stressed in the four syllables of *cakixeba*. The second example is from a study participant who made an error with word stress in a five syllable word, *enthusiastic*. While the rhythm of the word indicates a slowing on the -a- syllable, the waveform shows us that more intensity was placed on the first syllable.

Four syllable word (From Jun et al. (2007)

Five syllable word from participant

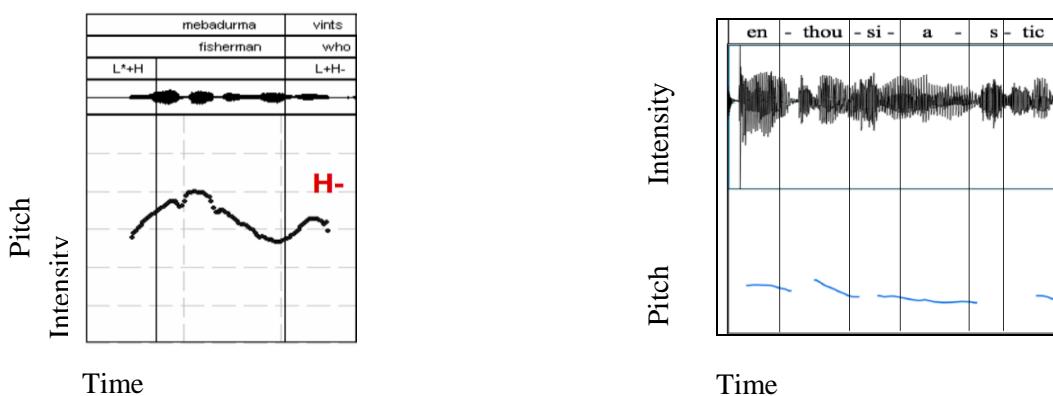


Figure 9. Side-by-side comparison of word stress in Georgian and uncommon word stress in English by participant. Graph on left from Jun et al. (2007, p. 9).

However, there were several examples of misplaced word stress that did not follow Georgian phonological examples. In Figure 10, the participant places the stress on the penultimate syllable, a feature not found in any Georgian phonological studies reviewed for this study.

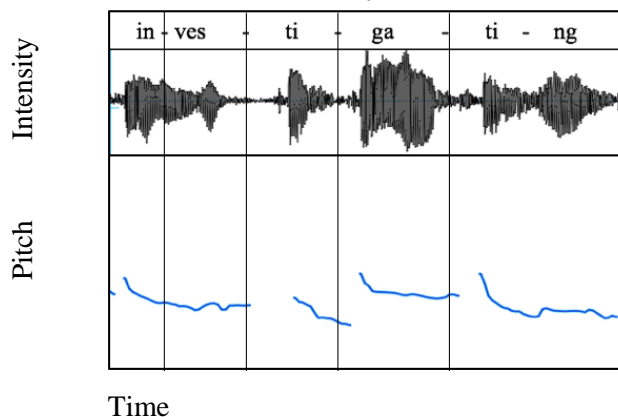


Figure 10. Example of participant word with uncommon stress on penultimate syllable.

## Discussion

This study set out to test the impact of using Praat to train to prosodic features: intonation and word stress. These features were chosen because of the research that has been done on them in the participants' native language, which would allow for comparison and analysis of L1 - L2 transfer. Data collected in this study was also compared to Georgians speaking in Georgian from other studies (Borise, 2017; Jun *et al*, 2007; Skopeteas *et al.*, 2009).

## Intonation

Declarative and information (wh-) question types intonation contours were found to increase in accuracy with Praat training. However, polar (yes / no) questions were seen to have decreased in quality. Inferential statistics did not find a significant difference. This is likely due to the limited sample size of these questions and therefore this construct should be retested in a future study with more participants and larger tokens of question types. Previous studies using explicit visual information for intonation training has found an impact of the training on learner utterances (Gorjian *et al.*, 2013), indicating that the results for declarative and polar (yes / no) questions may be more accurate than the overall comparison.

Furthermore, it may be possible that some types of intonation are deemed more important by L2 learners or are more learnable. This may be particularly true as many young speakers of English use a high rising tonal terminal as a part of a sociolect called uptalk (Fletcher, Grabe, and Warren, 2006; Ritchart & Arvaniti, 2014). Without further investigation into the types of input the learners are encountering, it is impossible to know if this relatively new wave of intonation contour may be interacting with their production. Indeed, there are legitimate arguments made about the value of imposing specific intonation contours in EFL settings (Jenkins, 2000). However, there is still value in the topic in terms of understanding NSEs and for learners who wish to acquire a specific accent.

The Georgian intonation system features seemed to transfer to English to some extent. As seen in Figures 5, 6, 7 and 8, main verb intonation was often altered as compared to adjacent pitches. However, the examples found in the data did not match the peak intonation found in the Georgian examples. This may be for several reasons. The utterances may have been neutral, without the focus of a specific part of the declarative or question. Alternatively, the learners may have not recognized that part of the segment as the main verb. Finally, it is possible that the learners do not have enough mastery of the language to use intonation to express a

---

pragmatic meaning. Future studies in this area should strive to collect natural speech and examine focus in those situations.

### **Word Stress**

The word stress analysis of this study revealed a decrease of word stress errors after the treatment. Inferential statistics found a significant difference and the effect size was calculated at  $\eta^2 = 0.74$ , a medium to strong effect size. Despite the small number of participants, the texts analyzed included 1009 words, a relatively robust number. Previous studies have investigated the acquisition of word stress and have also confirmed that interventions can have an impact (e.g., Derwing & Rossiter, 2003). While there is evidence to support the efficacy of word stress instruction, there are many questions as to which word stress standards should be taught.

In the light of sociolinguistic studies in variation of word stress (Cutler, 2005), there are variations in word stress not only in geography, but across age and socioeconomic variables. Research in English as a Lingua Franca have also found that word stress is less important than other features for comprehension of NNSEs to NNSEs (Jenkins, 2000). However, studies such as Field (2005) indicate the importance of word stress in intelligibility amongst highly proficient NNSEs. As the varieties of English spoken by NSE and NNSE groups continue to evolve, it will be important to understand the role word stress plays in intelligibility in terms of the context of learners as well as their goals. The present study did not investigate intelligibility by listeners, however it lays the groundwork for understanding the possible variation amongst Georgian NNSEs.

These results have implications for teachers and learners. The results of the second research question support the empirical body of evidence that teachers, as promoted in Wilson (2008), can use Praat as part of the pronunciation teaching process to give visual, explicit feedback to learners as they do controlled practice on specific phonological features. Particularly, those may be effective when using technology. For learners, the ability to see and attempt to match phonological features from a target visual to a Praat-generated visual of one's own speech may be an approach to self-study in improvement of pronunciation.

The limited number of participants in this study poses several issues for the generalizability and the impact of these findings. With four participants, there is little generalizability in the results. Rather, the findings in intonation, word stress, and Georgian phonological influence in Georgians speaking English may guide future studies.

In the coming years, there is expected to be a continuation of technology that assists learners, some of which may target the areas of perceiving and producing sounds in a foreign language. While this technology could make it even easier for learners to understand their phonological output, there is a large question looming about which norms should be targeted. Promising research in computational linguistics and English as a Lingua Franca will likely lead the way in describing, in detail, phonological semantic mappings, the boundaries of intelligibility in variation, and therefore, the features of phonology that must be prioritized when designing content for learners.

## References

- Alkhozishvili, 1959 - Alkhozishvili, A. (1959). Porjadok slov i intonacija v prostom povestvovateljnom predlozhenii gruzin skogo jazyka [Word order and intonation in simple extended sentences in Georgian]. *Phonetics (Moscow)*, 1, 367 – 414.
- Boersma, 2001 - Boersma (2001). Praat, a system for doing phonetics by computer. *Glott International*, 5 (9), 341 – 345.
- Bond, 1999 - Bond, Z. (1999). *Slips of the ear: Errors in the perception of casual conversation*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Borise, 2017 - Borise, L. (2017). Prosody of Focus in a Language with a Fixed Focus Position: Evidence from Georgian. In *34th West Coast Conference on Formal Linguistics* (pp. 89 – 96). Cascadilla Proceedings Project.
- Butskhrikidze, M. (2002). *The consonant phonotactics of Georgian*. Utrecht, Netherlands: LOT.
- Butskhrikidze, M. (2016). On the word level accentuation in Georgian. The South Caucasian Chalk Circle, Paris, September 24, 2016.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D. M., & Goodwin, J. M. (2010). *Teaching pronunciation hardback with audio CDs (2): A course book and reference guide*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (2nd ed.), Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Cutler, A. (2005). Lexical stress. In D. B. Pisoni and R. E. Remez (Eds.), *The handbook of speech perception*, (pp. 264 - 289). Blackwell: Maiden, MA.
- Derwing, T. M. & Munro, M. J. (1997). Accent, intelligibility, and comprehensibility: Evidence from four L1s. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 19, 1 – 16.
- Derwing, T. M. & Rossiter, M. J. (2003). The effects of pronunciation instruction on the accuracy, fluency, and complexity of L2-accented speech. *Applied Language Learning* 13, 1 – 18.
- Field, J. (2005). Intelligibility and the listener: The role of lexical stress. *TESOL quarterly*, 39 (3), 399 – 423.
- Flege, J. E. (1984). The detection of French accent by American listeners. *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* 76, 692 – 707.
- Fletcher, J., Grabe, E., & Warren, P. (2006). Dialects of English: the High Rising Tune. *Prosodic typology: The phonology of intonation and phrasing*, 1, 390.
- Fries, C. (1964). On the intonation of 'yes-no' questions in English. In D. Abercrombie (Ed.). In Honour of Daniel Jones (pp.242 – 254). London: Longman.
- Gilbert, J. B. (1978). Gadgets: Non-verbal tools for teaching pronunciation. *CATESOL Occasional Papers*, 4, 68 – 78.
- Gorjian, B., Hayati, A., & Pourkhoni, P. (2013). Using Praat software in teaching prosodic features to EFL learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 84, 34 – 40.
- Grosjean, F., & Gee, J. (1987). Prosodic structure and spoken word recognition. *Cognition*, 25, 135 – 155.
- Hancock, M. (2003). *English Pronunciation in Use*. Cambridge University Press.
- Jenkins, J. (2000). *The Phonology of English as an International Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jun, S. A., Vicenik, C., & Lofstedt, I. (2007). WPP, No. 106: Intonational Phonology of Georgian. *Working Papers in Phonetics*, 106, 41 – 57.
- Lane, L. (2005). Focus on Pronunciation.
- Levis, J. M. & Pickering, L. (2004). Teaching intonation in discourse using speech visualization technology. *System*, 32, 505 – 524.

- Munro, M. J. & Derwing, T. M. (1995). Foreign accent, comprehensibility, and intelligibility in the speech of second language learners. *Language Learning* 45, 73 – 97.
- Newman, S. S. (1946) On the Stress System of English. *Word*, 2 (3), 171 – 187.
- Ogden, R. (2009). *An introduction to English phonetics*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Ritchart, A. & Arvaniti, A. (2014). The form and use of uptalk in Southern Californian English. In *Proceedings of Speech Prosody*, 7, 20 – 23).
- Roach, P. (1982). On the distinction between “stress-timed” and “syllable-timed” languages. In D. Crystal (Ed.), *Linguistic Controversies* (pp.73 – 79). London: Edward Arnold.
- Seattle Learning Academy. (2016). Pronuncian.com: American English pronunciation. Website. <https://pronuncian.com>.
- Skopeteas, S., Féry, C., & Asatiani, R. (2009). Word order and intonation in Georgian. *Lingua*, 119 (1), 102 – 127.
- Student. (1908). The probable error of a mean. *Biometrika*, 1 – 25.
- Wilson, I. (2008). Using Praat and Moodle for teaching segmental and suprasegmental pronunciation. In *Proceedings of the 3rd international World CALL Conference: Using Technologies for Language Learning (World CALL 2008)* (pp. 112 – 115).
- Zielinski, B. W. (2008). The listener: No longer the silent partner in reduced intelligibility. *System*, 36, 69 – 84.

**Khvedelidze Mzia**

*Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Georgia*

**Jinjikhadze Levan & Jinjikhadze Jemal**

*Sukhumi State University, Georgia*

## **Integration of the Georgian Language and Mathematics in the Bilingual Teaching System**

### **Abstract**

Finding interdisciplinary links between language and mathematics attracts particular interest. Such interest is caused by the fact that the language is the basis of any perception process as the consciousness exists only within the language scopes and in the solving of any problem applying to the mathematic approach, mathematical thinking results in a new level of perception. In this respect, integration of the Georgian language and mathematics is of certain interest. Many issues of bilingual teaching in the didactic-methodic context can be solved very successfully on the basis of the integrated teaching of the Georgian language and mathematics. In our opinion, such integration, in the context of multilingual education, for the activation of the bilingual education process, is of great significance. The point is that integrated teaching of mathematics and the Georgian language clearly demonstrates common, general regularities of mathematics and Georgian and this, on the basis of simple observations and analysis, will help the student to find similar regularities in his/her native language and this is the main goal of bilingual teaching. Here observation, analysis and other methods of thinking are used naturally and not artificially, resulting in a natural character of the student's bilingual perception: isomorphism of relations between the mathematical and the Georgian language concepts are also revealed. Therefore, such integration can play a decisive role in the activation of bilingual teaching and this is the absolute guarantee of good results regarding the bilingual teaching.

**Key words:** *multilingualism, bilingualism; teaching; Georgian language; mathematics; integration.*

A great significance of the interdisciplinary methodology application in the teaching process is universally recognized. This concerns all subjects but identification of the inter-subject links between the language and mathematics deserves particular attention. This is because the language is the basis of any cognitive process. As consciousness exists only within the language and in the solving of a problem, a mathematical approach, relying on mathematical thinking, ensures a high level of cognition. In this respect, many issues of integration of the Georgian language and mathematics is of interest.

Primarily, we should argue that **language** is the means of communication. It is a certain code, a system of signs and a set of the rules for their use. The system includes the units of various levels: **phonetic** - *sounds, intonation etc.*; **morphological** – *parts of the word: stem, prefix etc.*; **Lexical** – *words and their meanings*; **syntactic** – *sentences*. **Speech** is an activity of humans, an individual psychological phenomenon, using the lingual code and system of signs. **Speech** is a language in action. In a speech, linguistic units, being in absolutely different interrelations with each other, create an unlimited number of combinations. Speech is always spread and arranged in time and it reflects the characteristics of the speaker and depends on the context and communication situations. The question is why do individuals need mathematical speech and mathematics in general? To become a mathematician? – Not at all! Mathematics and mathematical speech is necessary for all. Actual subjects, phenomena and processes in nature are seen from the point of view of mathematical thinking in an absolutely different way.

Many issues of bilingual teaching, in didactical-methodological respect, can be perfectly resolved on the basis of integrated learning of the Georgian language and mathematics. In our opinion, such integration, in the multilingual education context, is of great significance for the activation of bilingual education. The integrated teaching of mathematics and Georgian language clearly demonstrates common, general regularities of mathematics and the Georgian language and this, on the basis of simple observations and analysis, will help the student to find similar regularities in his/her native language which is the main goal of the bilingual teaching. Here observation, analysis and other methods of thinking are used naturally and not artificially, resulting in a natural character of the student's bilingual perception, isomorphism of relations between the mathematical and Georgian language concepts is revealed. Therefore, such integration can play a decisive role in the activation of the bilingual teaching which is an absolute guarantee of good results in the bilingual teaching.

It should be noted that while discussing integration of mathematics and the Georgian language, we imply only general concepts of mathematics and Georgian, as only in their structural specificity can we find the isomorphism that, in our opinion, is the best tool for bilingual teaching perceived at the highest level. Such specific problems, as adding the fractions or solving equations and similar things which the students study at school and are subject to integration in Georgian language only artificially and therefore, cannot be effective in promoting the bilingual teaching. And the general issues that we consider in mathematics and Georgian have similar structural essence and order. These issues include:

- Word, concept and term;
- Language and speech;
- Correlation between the concepts;
- Euler-Venn diagram;
- Operations on the sets;
- Separation of the sets into non-intersecting classes;
- Classification of concepts;
- Affixes;
- Logical connections;
- Quantifiers;
- Binary relations;
- Correspondence;
- Exercises with empty spaces;
- Discussion.

Let us discuss some of them.

**Interrelations between the concepts** are subject to similar laws in all disciplines, including Georgian language and mathematics. Understanding of the concept essence is impossible without understanding of its connection with other ones. Therefore, it is significant to know the relations between the concepts. We have to find out such relations each time we think, judge, consider, and for this, the best visual tool is the Euler – Venn diagram. For some reason, in the education literature, there is a widely spread opinion that there exist only these types of **Euler-Venn diagrams** (Fig. 1).

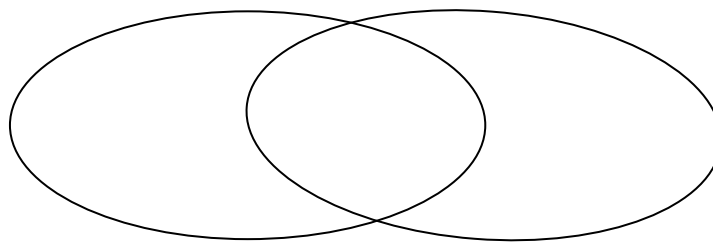


Fig. 1

This is not correct, each figure below is a Euler-Venn diagram (Fig. 2):

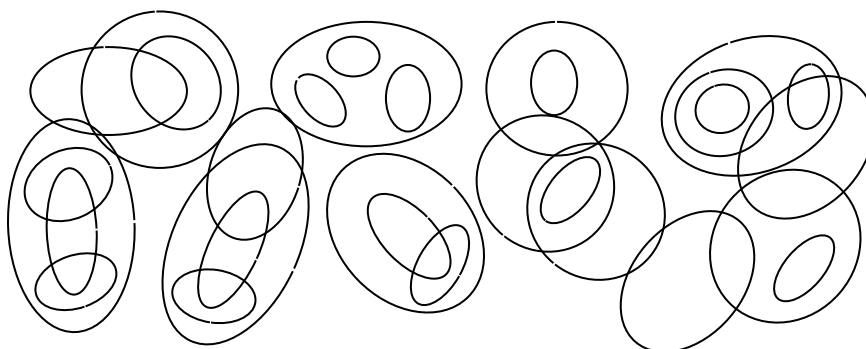


Fig. 2

Based on the above, it is clear that the following two types of exercises are useful in all disciplines:

1. Several concepts are given, interrelation between them is to be studied and Euler-Venn diagrams are to be built.
2. The concepts interrelations between which correspond to the given graphical schemes are to be found (Fig. 2).

We offer a few exercises.

**Exercise 1.** Euler-Venn's diagrams are given (Fig. 3):

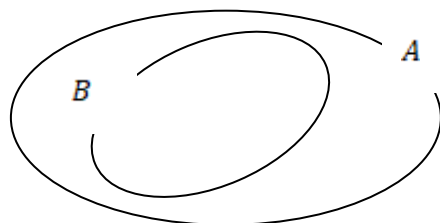


Fig. 3

What can be A and what can be B?

**Solution:**

**Mathematics.** A can be, for example, a set of triangles, B – a set of isosceles triangles, or A – a set of numbers, B – a set of natural numbers etc. An isosceles triangle is a *type* of a triangle, and a triangle is a class of isosceles triangle. Natural number is a type of number while the triangle is a class of isosceles triangle. This case is used in mathematics as the first basis for the definition of concepts. For example, the classes of isosceles triangle are polygons and geometric figures but the triangle is its closest class. Therefore, it is used in the definition of the isosceles triangle. In particular: the isosceles triangle is the triangle that ...etc.

**The Georgian language.** A can be, for example, the verb, B – an intransitive verb. A – a sentence, B – a simple sentence etc. The verb is the class of intransitive verbs while an intransitive verb is a type of the verb; a sentence is the class of simple sentence and simple sentence is a type of sentence. Certainly, in the first example, in the part of A, out of B, all verbs except for the intransitive ones should be placed. Similarly, in the second example.

**Everyday situation.** A can be, for example, the ball, B – a red ball. The ball is the class of the red ball, while the red ball is a type of a ball. Certainly, the part of A, which is out of B, should contain all the balls, except for the red ones.

Independently compose and solve a similar exercise (both, in mathematics and Georgian) where the words are given and a Euler-Venn diagram is to be built!

**Exercise 2.** Euler-Venn diagrams are given (Fig.4):

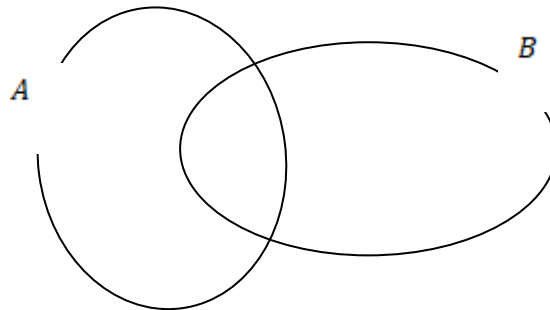


Fig. 4

**Solution.** View carefully the drawing: the circles (or closed curves) intersect. This means that if A is one concept and B – the other one, there is an item that belongs to both, A volume and B volume. It is not difficult to select the concepts for the drawing.

**Mathematics.** A) A – isosceles triangle, B – right-angled triangle. In the intersection there will be right isosceles triangles. In the part of A, out of the cross-section, there will be all isosceles triangles that are not right-angled etc. b) A – numbers that are divisible by 3, B – numbers divisible by 5. The intersection will contain the numbers that are divisible by both, 3 and 5, i.e. those that are divisible by 15 (15, 30, 45, 60...) etc.

**The Georgian language.** A – inanimate nouns, B – specific nouns. The cross-section will contain all inanimate specific nouns. In the part of A that is out of the intersection, all inanimate abstract nouns will be placed while the part of B, out of intersection, will contain animate specific nouns.

**Everyday situations.** A – a rubber ball, B – a red ball. In the intersection there will be a red, rubber ball. The part of A, out of intersection, will contain all balls except for those, that are red and in the part of B, out of intersection, there will be all red balls that are not made of rubber.

**Exercise 3.** The following concepts are given: root- syncopating nouns and family nouns. Compose the corresponding Euler-Venn diagrams.

**Solution.** View carefully the word connections, you will notice that the nouns that are non-root syncopating, are out of the first connection and all nouns except for the family ones are left out of the second connection. Some family nouns are root-syncopating whilst some are not. Some of the root-syncopating nouns are the family ones while some of them are not. Hence, these two connections of words, more exactly, their meanings, have common elements, i.e. there are the root-syncopating family nouns and they also have non-common specific elements, i.e. the Euler-Venn diagrams of the given word connections (concepts) will be Fig. 4: A – root-syncopating nouns, B – family nouns.

Intersection contains root-syncopating family nouns. In the part of A, out of intersection, there are the root-syncopating non-family nouns and in the part of B, out of intersection, there are the root-syncopating family nouns.

**Exercise 4.** Given: words, nouns, adjectives. Analyze interrelations between them and compose respective Euler-Venn's diagrams.

**Solution.** No complicated considerations are required to make a conclusion that the corresponding Euler-Venn diagrams are constructed as follows:

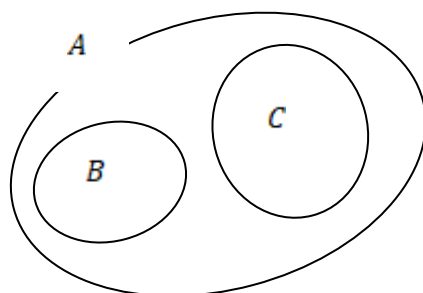


Fig. 5

**Exercise 5.** Euler-Venn's diagrams are given (Fig.6):

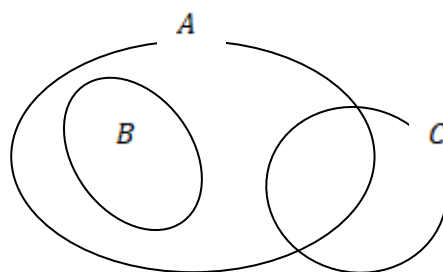


Fig. 6

Select the concepts according to the given diagrams.

**Mathematics.** A B concept is required that has all elements common with A, though not filling A. In addition, the C concept should be found that has common elements with A and has nothing in common with B. Such are, for example: A – integers, B – natural numbers, C – negative numbers. In the part of A, out of the intersection with B and C, there will be only zero and in the intersection of A and C, there will be the negative integers. In the part of C out of A, there will be all negative numbers, with the exclusion of negative integers.

**The Georgian language:** a) A – a ball, B – a non-rubber red ball, C – rubber toys. In the intersection of A and C, there will be a rubber ball, in the part of C, out of A, there are all the rubber toys except for the balls. In the part of A out of intersection with B and C, there will be all balls that are not red and are not made of rubber.  
b) A – root-syncoating nouns, B – root-syncoating geographical names, C – eliding stem nouns.

Certainly, in the intersection of A and C, there will be the nouns that are root-syncoating and stem eliding ones (for example: ქვეყანა (a country), ქარხანა (a plant), ფანჯარა (a window), ბეგარა (taxation), პეპელა (a butterfly) etc.), in the part of C, out of A, there will be only nouns with eliding stem, in the part of A, out of intersection with B and C, there will be the root-syncoating non-geographical nouns.

**Exercise 6.** Given: A – connecting conjunctions, B – grouping conjunctions, C – composed conjunctions. Analyze their correlation and compose respective Euler-Venn diagrams.

**Solution.** As a result of analysis of correlations between the given concepts we make the conclusion that the grouping conjunction is a type of connecting conjunction. Therefore, set B is entirely included into A. It has nothing common with C, as grouping conjunctions (“and”, “or”) are simple. A and C have both, common and different elements. Hence, the relevant Euler-Venn diagram will be: Fig. 6.

**Exercise 7.** Euler-Venn diagrams are given (Fig.7):

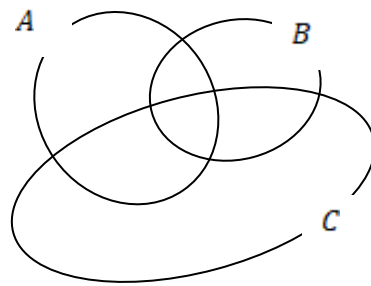


Fig. 7

Select the concepts in accordance with the given diagrams.

**Solution.** From the diagrams it is clear that all three concepts should have the intersections by pairs and in addition, all three concepts should have the common elements.

**Mathematics.** A – natural numbers multiples of 2, B – natural numbers multiples of 3, C – natural numbers multiples of 5. In the intersection of A with B, there will be the numbers divisible by 6, in intersection of A with C, there will be numbers divisible by 10 and in the intersection between B and C there will be the numbers divisible by 15. In the intersection of all three sets there will be the numbers divisible by 30. Substance of the other areas of the diagram is clear as well.

**The Georgian language.** A – words with the stems which end in vowels, B – words with full stems, C – words with simple stems. We know that there are the words with full stems which end in vowels, there are also the words with simple stems which end in vowels and there are the words with full and simple stems. In addition, there are words that have full simple stems ending in vowels. Hence, it is easy to see which words are placed in which areas of the diagram.

**Exercise 8.** Given: A – wooden things, B – round things, C – tables. Analyze correlation between them and compose relevant Euler-Venn diagrams.

**Solution.** As there exist a round wooden thing, a wooden table and a round table, A, B and C pairs have common elements, i.e. pairs of these sets are intersecting and their relevant concepts are compatible in pairs. Existence of a round wooden table means that there are the common elements of all three sets as well. Hence, the sought diagrams are as per Fig. 7.

Knowledge of the correlations between the concepts and use of Euler-Venn diagram is very helpful for designing logical activities for the elementary school students and solving of the problems intended for testing of general skills.

**Dividing of the set into the classes** that do not intersect both, in the Georgian language and mathematics is a very significant operation. Let us examine this issue using the examples.

**Mathematics.**

**Exercise 9.** A set of numbers is given {12, 15, 35, 36, 60, 288, 355, 405, 1272, and 1293}

1. Apply to it two characteristics: divisibility by 3 and divisibility by 5!
2. What classes of numbers are obtained?
3. Are these classes non-intersecting? Why?
4. Distribute the given numbers in Euler-Venn diagrams!

**Solution.** As a result of distribution of these numbers in an Euler-Venn diagram based on the given characteristics, the given set of numbers was divided into three non-intersecting classes; i.e. given that X is the set of multiples of 3 and Y – set of multiples of 5, we obtain three non-intersecting areas on the diagrams (Fig. 8):

- A – numbers that are multiples of 3 and are not multiples of 5.
- B – numbers that are multiples of 5 and are not multiples of 3.
- C – numbers that are multiples of both, 3 and 5.

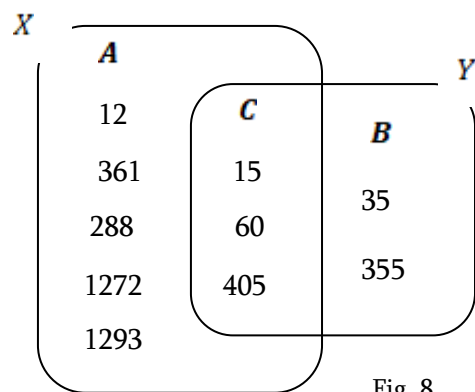


Fig. 8

Classes obtained as a result of division are non-intersecting as none of the pairs have common elements.

### The Georgian language

**Exercise 10.** A set of words is given: {ჭარხალი (a beetroot), ქარხანა (a plant), მასწავლებელი (a teacher), ხმალი (a sword), ძვალი (a bone), ირემი (a deer), ძმა (a brother), დედა (mother), ხე (a tree), პეპელა (a butterfly)}.

1. Apply to it two characteristics: *root-syncoating and eliding stem!*
2. What classes of words are obtained?
3. Are these classes non-intersecting? Why?

**Solution.** As a result of distribution of the given words in an Euler-Venn diagram based on the given characteristics the given set of words was divided into three non-intersecting classes, i.e. assuming that X is the set of eliding stem words and Y – set of root-syncoating words, on the diagram we shall have three non-intersecting areas (Fig. 9):

- A – words that have eliding stem and are not root-syncoating.
- B – words that are root-syncoating and have no eliding stem.
- C – words that are root syncoating and have eliding stem.

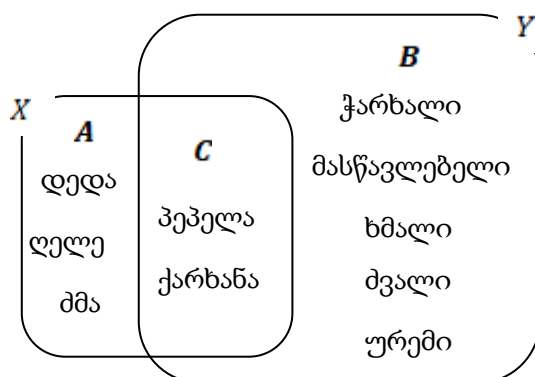


Fig. 9

Classes obtained as a result of dividing are non-intersecting as none of the pairs have common elements.

### Logical problems

**Problem 1.** All children in the class study English and French languages. 17 of them study English language and 15 – French. And 8 children study both languages simultaneously. How many children are in the class?

**Solution.** Discussion is as follows: let us find the number of children studying English and French languages. These will be  $17+15=32$  children. According to the statement of the problem, 8 children study both languages simultaneously. And hence, we can calculate number of children in the class. For this, from 32 children, studying English and French languages, we have to deduct 8 children studying both languages simultaneously as this number was counted twice:  $32-8=24$ .

If we have drawn Euler-Vann diagrams, the problem would be solved very easily.

**Answer:** there are 24 students in the class.

**Problem 2.** Of 100 students, 31 study English language, 29 – German, 44 – French, 6 English and German, 9 – English and French, 5 – German and French and 4 students study all three languages. What is the number of students who do not study any language?

Solution by discussion, similar to the previous problem, is quite difficult and hence, it is easy to make mistakes. Therefore, let us solve this problem directly using the Euler-Venn's diagrams (Fig. 10).

**Solution.** Certainly, the given set of 100 students is divided into non-intersecting classes (sub-sets) based on three characteristics, as the number of languages is three. At the same time, these three sets are intersecting, i.e. Euler-Venn diagrams will be as follows (Fig. 10A):

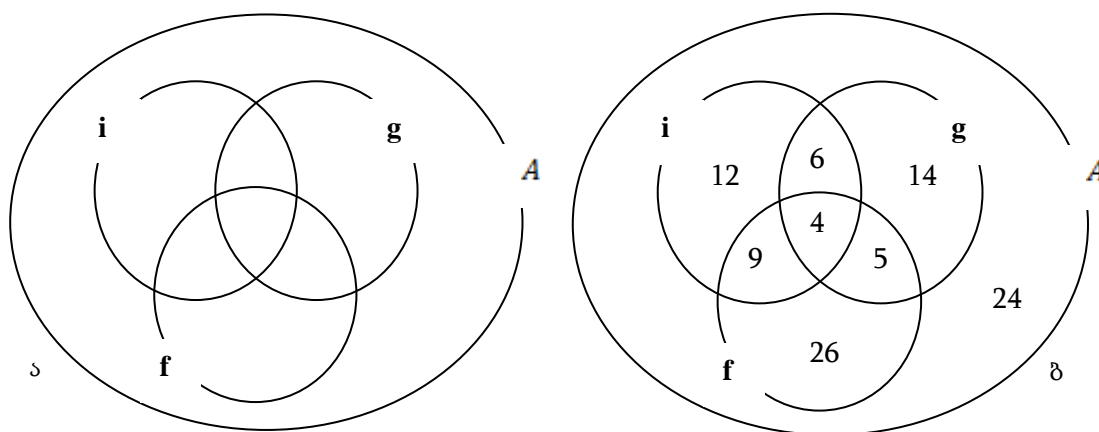


Fig. 10

Where A is the given set of 100 students and i, g and f are, respectively, English, German and French languages. Let us include into the diagrams the known numbers of students learning by two and three languages: 6, 9, 5 and 4 (Fig. 10B). Let us calculate the numbers of students studying one language: 12, 14, 26 (these are obtained as follows:  $12 = 31 - (6 + 9 + 4)$ ;  $14 = 29 - (6 + 5 + 4)$ ;  $26 = 44 - (9 + 5 + 4)$ ) and place these results into the diagrams. Further, we shall easily find the number of students not studying any language:

$$100 - (12 + 14 + 26 + 9 + 5 + 6 + 4) = 100 - 76 = 24.$$

**Answer:** 24 students do not learn any of the languages.

We should also note use of the concept of correspondence of the sets.

**Exercise 11.** A and B word sets are given (Fig. 11). Draw the arrows from the elements of the first set drawn as points to the elements of the other so that the correspondence was found between the sets A and B:

**In the Georgian language:** based on similarity of stems.

**In mathematics:** based on equality relation.

**Solution.**

(The Georgian language) based on morphological analysis of the words and seeking of the words with similar stems, the correspondence graph will be as follows (Fig. 11):

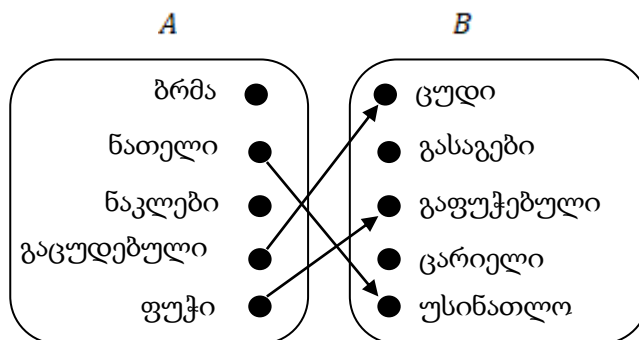


Fig. 11

(Mathematics) if we calculate the expressions, the graph of correspondence will be as follows (Fig. 12):

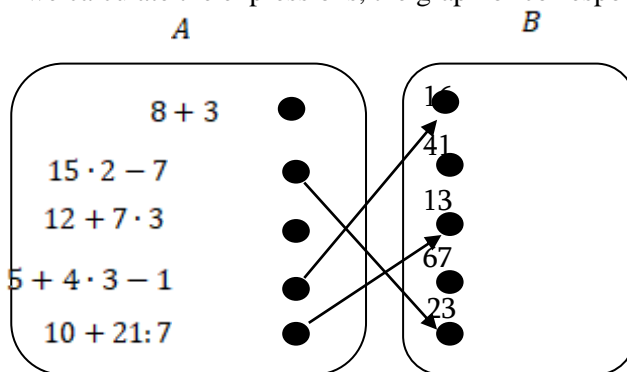


Fig. 12

**Exercises with empty spaces** are used in all disciplines but in mathematics they are of particular significance as they serve to numerous goals, among which the main goal is the development of a functional idea. In mathematics, the empty spaces are in the equations, in equations and, generally, in predicates, sometimes these are simply unknown values and sometimes – the variables. Such exercises play a particular role in the teaching of the Georgian language as well.

In the Georgian language a word can be taken separately, unlike mathematics, as a word has the meaning and any letter cannot be substituted into the empty space. For example:

**Exercise 12.** Fill in the empty spaces to obtain words:

ბა\*ი, მაგ\*და, საც\*რი, ნა\*ადული, მერ\*ი, ე\*ო.

**Exercise 13.** Fill in the empty spaces to obtain words:

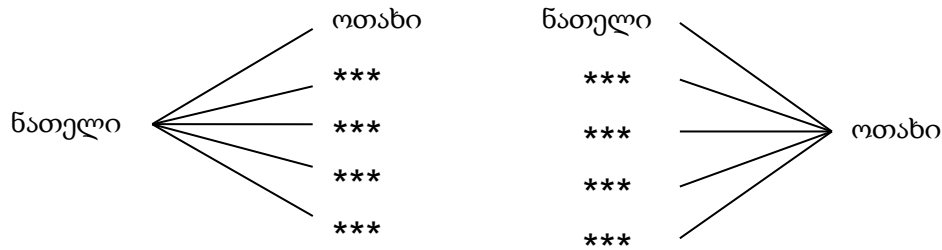
მა\*არ\*ბელი, ს\*ქ\*ნელა, ს\*\*ო, ნი\*\*ი, ან\*ა\*ა, თ\*ა, გ\*\*ა.

In such exercises the results can differ. For example, the first word of the first exercise can be “ბარი” for one student and “ბანი” – for the other etc. The fourth word of the second exercise can be interpreted by one student as “ნიავი” and by the other – as “ნიორი”. The fifth word of the same exercise can be “ანდაზა” for one student and “ანკარა” – for the other etc.

This is to be welcomed.

The empty spaces may imply the words or even sentences. For example:

**Exercise 14.** Examine carefully the given words and fill the empty spaces.



**Exercise 15.** Fill in the empty spaces based on the first pair of words: კატა კნავის, ძაღლი \*\*\*, თაგვი \*\*\*, ძროხა \*\*\*, ვირი \*\*\*, მამალი \*\*\*, ბატი \*\*\*, ცხენი \*\*\*, იხვი \*\*\*, დედალი (კვერცხის დადების შემდეგ) \*\*\*, კრუხი (საშიშროების მოახლოებისას) \*\*\*, ღორი \*\*\*, ირემი \*\*\*, ძაღლი (ცემისას) \*\*\*, კატა (მოფერებისას) \*\*\* etc.

It seems that integration of mathematics and the Georgian language takes place on the basis of their interdisciplinary links and it occurs against the background of understanding of the isomorphism of general internal regularities of these two disciplines. Therefore, such integration can play a decisive role in the activation of bilingual teaching.

## References

- Gabunia, 2010 - Kakha Gabunia, Specificities of Content and Language Integrated Teaching in Bilingual Classroom Setting: Journal Bilingual Education, #1, 2010. Tbilisi.
- Mehisto, Frigols, Marsh, 2008 - Peeter Mehisto and Maria Jesus Frigols and David Marsh, Uncovering CLIL; Macmillan Books for Teachers, 2008.
- Coyle, Hood, Marsh, 2010 - Do Coyle, Philip Hood, David Marsh, CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning); Cambridge, 2010.

**Kikvadze Maia**

*Shota Rustaveli Batumi State University, Georgia*

## **The importance of stress and intonation in the process of learning Georgian as a second language**

### **Abstract**

Listening as a skill plays a great role at the first stage of language learning. Listening helps understanding and enables language learners to perceive information, express their ideas, etc.

Listening means “cooperation between the teacher and the listeners.” The strategies of teaching L2 must be worked out by teachers based on the abilities of the class.

Students studying Georgian as a second language have problems with correct pronunciation of words and phrases in rapid speech. At the first stage language learners do not know grammatical rules well and they study the language by imitating their teacher’s words and phrases. It is clear that the role of listening is great at the first stage.

Time after time language learners get used to the teacher’s voice, tone and articulation system. They pay attention to the teacher’s verbal and non-verbal signs and start to understand the language. In the process of learning and understanding the language, language learners pay great attention to stress and intonation. Georgian language has weak dynamic stress. Foreign language teachers always pronounce words clearly, marking stressed syllables. They also mark learners’ attention to certain phonemes and point at certain endings of the words, stressing the last syllables of the words; Thus, initially, language learners study the language through listening, ignoring grammar rules.

Language learners easily learn language through dialogues. The role of stress and intonation is great in dialogues. The forms of the words in short sentences are more easily remembered than in long texts. In the process of teaching L2 we pay attention to the parts of speech that are frequently used in communication.

In the process of listening and speaking we frequently use the method “parallel dialogues” that means involvement of another person in the process of speaking. This is an interactive lesson is a great fun for language learners and is practically proved. Listening to the dialogues and repeating it, is another helpful method employed by us.

We observed that language learners in dialogues prefer using short answers. Teachers should point to the problem and try to eradicate students’ tendency to answer the questions too briefly.

Learning a second language through listening is one of the best teaching strategies.

**Key words:** *listening, strategy, stress, intonation, dialogue.*

### **Introduction**

Acquisition of a new language is not an easy easy process. It requires much energy from both language learners and foreign language teachers. Many factors should be taken into consideration while teaching but much is dependent on a successful teaching process.

Listening as a skill is of the greatest importance at the first stage of language learning. The process resembles the process of learning a native language by a child. “A year old child starts to study the language through listening, he/she pays attention to the meaning of words, word combinations and a linguistic context. A two year old child guesses nearly all of what is said, because he has learnt the language through listening. Therefore, at the first stage a child acquires the language through listening (geofl.ge).

Listening helps understanding. It enables language learners to perceive information, express their ideas etc. Communicative strategies require from participants asking and answering questions, thanking, giving advice, recommending, etc. Different types of texts created in the process of communication have to be phonetically, grammatically and structurally correct.

Listening means “cooperation between the teacher and the listeners.” The strategies of teaching L2 must be worked out by teachers based on the abilities of the class.

“Methodology of teaching a foreign language is based on traditional and communicative linguistics. Traditional linguistics guarantees acquisition of language as a system and its certain aspects (phonetic, lexical and grammatical), while communicative linguistics makes it possible to use a language as a system in communication. Traditional and modern linguistics have one and the same goal, they both help language learners to acquire the language and be able to communicate in a foreign language (Shaverdashvili, Fhitskhelauri, Ramishvili & Gvasalia, 2014: 13).

While working on the topic the following methods were used by us: active listening, questioning, repeating, communicative, co-operative and “parallel dialogue” methods.

### **The Main Part:**

“Listening skills which are one of the main aspects of language acquisition are given priority as they enable the language learners to achieve correct pronunciation as the basis of successful interaction” (Dzamashvili, 2014: 34).

Listening activities, such as discriminatory and differential exercises aim at finding differences between phonemes, morphemes, words, syntagmas and sentences (Shaverdashvili, Fhitskhelauri, Ramishvili & Gvasalia, 2014: 90).

Students studying Georgian as a second language have problems with correct pronunciation of words and phrases in rapid speech. On the first stage, language learners do not know grammatical rules well and they learn the language by imitating their teacher’s words and phrases. It is clear that the role of listening is great on the first stage.

Time after time language learners get used to the teacher’s voice, tone and articulation system. They pay attention to the teacher’s verbal and non-verbal signs and start to understand the language. In the process of learning and understanding the language, language learners pay great attention to stress and intonation patterns. We believe that while listening, listeners should pay more attention to the stress of the utterance.

“Stress is a degree of force given to a certain syllable or a word in a sentence.” According to Arnold Chikobava “Stress is a force given to this or that syllables in a word.” G. Akhvlediani gives us the almost similar definition of the term: “marking of certain elements of speech and making them louder than others is called stress” (Feikrishvili & Saghinadze, 2014: 37 - 38). “Stress may come on certain syllables of a word, on certain words or phrases in the sentence” (Kenchiashvili, 2014).

The Georgian language has a weak dynamic stress. Foreign language teachers always try to pronounce words clearly, marking the stressed syllables. They also draw the learners’ attention to certain phonemes (example **k**-argad, not g-argad, **p**-uri, not ph-uri -mispronounced by learners) and point at certain endings of the words, stressing the last syllables of the words (Mariam-**is** odjakh-**is** tsevreb-**is** gatsnoba minda). Thus, initially, language learners study the language through listening, ignoring grammar rules.

Language learners easily learn language through dialogues. The role of stress and intonation is great in dialogues. The forms of the words in short sentences are more easily remembered than in long texts. In the process of teaching L2 we pay attention to the parts of the speech that are frequently used in communication. These parts of speech are:

#### **a) Pronouns:**

Question: **Shen** studenti khar? (Are you a student?)

Answer: diakh, **me** studenti var (Yes, I am a student).

Question: es **shen-i** tsignia? (Is it your book?).

Answer: diakh, es **chem-i** tsignia (Yes, it is my book)/

Rogor-**i**? (what kind?) → karg-**i**, lamaz-**i**, akhal-**i** (good, beautiful, new)

Romel-**i**? (which?) → pirvel-**i**, meore ... (the first, the second)

Romel-**ma**? (which?) → pirvel-**ma**, meore-**m** (the first, the second)

Ramden-**i**? (how many / how much?) → or-**i**, bevr-**i**, tsota... (two, many/much, little/few).

Ramden-**ma**? (how many / how much?) → or-**ma**, bevr-**ma**, tsota-**m**...

### b) Verbs:

- dges ramden-**i** leqtsia **g**-aqvs? (How many lectures do you have today?)

- dges otkh-**i** leqtsia **m**-aqvs. (Today I have four lectures)

- **is** davaleba-**s** tser-**s**, **shen**? (He is writing homework, and you?)

- **me** tsign-**s** **v**-kikhulob. (I am reading a book)

- ra-**s** **tser**? (shen) (What are you writing?)

- tseril-**s** **v**-tser (me). (I am writing a letter)

- ra datser-**e**? (shen) (What did you write?)

- tseril-**i** da **v**-tser-**e** (me). (I wrote a letter)

- ra-**s** datser? (shen) (What will you write?)

- tseril-**s** da **v**-tser (me). (I will write a letter).

### g) Adverbs:

rogo-**r**? (how) → karg-**ad**, lamaz-**ad**.... (well, beautifully)

ranair-**ad**? (how) → karg-**ad**, lamaz-**ad** ....

In the process of listening and speaking an activity called “parallel dialogues” is frequently used. Participants of the so called “parallel dialogues” are the teacher and two students. The teacher asks the first student a question and at the same time warns her/him to pay attention to the endings of personal names. The student answers either correctly or incorrectly.

**Teacher:** Tamar, davit-**is** deda qartul-**i** eni-**is** mastsavlebelia?

**Tamari:** diakh, davit-**is** deda qartul-**i** eni-**is** mastsavlebelia.

For checking the answer, the teacher involves another student in the dialogue. The second student uses the same “Yes” or “No” and evaluates the first student’s answer.

**Teacher:** Davit, Tamar-**is** pasukh-**i** stsoria?

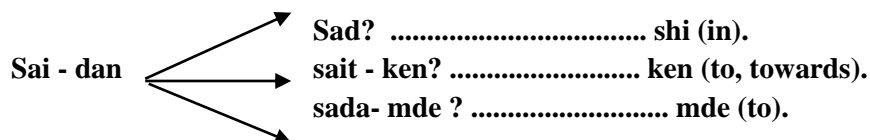
**Daviti:** diakh, Tamar-**is** pasukh-**i** stsoria.

The above discussed activity helps foreign language learners to learn the endings of personal names in different grammatical cases and to construct simple sentences.

We observed that language learners prefer using short answers in dialogues. They think that short answers “yes” or “no” are quite enough. Teachers should point to the problem and try to eradicate students’ tendencies to answer the questions too briefly.

Foreign students have difficulty studying Georgian prepositions. We shall concentrate mainly on prepositions - **dan**, - **mde**. While teaching prepositions, we use question words like: saidan? saitken? sadamde? - that are stressed in interrogative sentences. Question word – saidan? – reveals several positions:

**sai - dan – sad? Sakhli - dan universitet - shi (preposition – shi (in))**  
**sai - dan – sait - ken? Sakhli - dan Universitetis - ken (preposition – ken (to, towards)).**  
**Sai - dan – sada-mde? Sakhli - dan universiteta - mde (preposition – mde (to))**  
 Below is the scheme that will make it easier to understand the essence of the activity.



Foreign students can't differentiate between the forms **bevri** (many/much) and **dzalian** (very). In Georgian they belong to different parts of speech. **Bevri** (many/much) is a quantitative numeral, while **dzalian** (very) is an adverb of manner. But the problem is that the Turkish has an identical lexeme **çok** to denote **bevri** and **dzalian**. **Çok** can be used with nouns (**çok** kitap – many books, **çok** kalem – many pens, **çok** insan – many people ...) and verbs (**çok** seviyorum – to love something very much, **çok** istiyorum – to want something very much, **çok** özledim – to miss someone very much...). This is the most difficult problem for Turkish language learners. They use words **bevri** and **dzalian** correctly with nouns, but make mistakes while using the same lexemes with verbs (bevri mikvarkhar, bevri momenatra, etc).

Using a native language is quite reasonable at the first stage. It has a more positive effect rather than a negative one. Students study a foreign language easily and show motivation (Dzamashvili, 2014: 80).

We try to define to Turkish students that, in Georgian **bevri** (many, much) is mainly used with nouns (bevri megobari (many friends), bevri tsigni (many books), bevri samushao (much work), bevri tirili (much cry), bevri stsavla (much learning), derived words (bevri chemiani (many relatives), bevri khutiani (many excellent marks), quantitative numerals. Question word - ramdeni (how many?) is followed by bevri, where the intonation rises and stress falls on pairs: ramdeni-i? – bevri-i. **Bevri** is used even with verbs: bevri davtsere (I have written much), bevri tsavikitkhe (I have read much), bevri vimushave (I have worked much). Question word **ramdeni** can be used even with verbs (ramdeni davtsere – how much did I write?).

**Dzalian** is used with a) adjectives (**rogor-i?**) We try to draw the language learners' attention to the last vowel – dzalian lamaz-i, dzalian bednier-i (very beautiful, very happy); b) verbs (**rogor? (how?)**).



(mistake: *bevri mikvars, bevri momtsons...*)

Foreign language learners should pay attention to what parts of speech follow bevri and dzalian (bevri kalami, dzalian momtsons, dzalian lamazi).

Foreign students make mistakes with words end at -ze, -shi. They reveal the tendency of retaining vowel **i** before – ze, -shi, for example: sakhl-i+ -shi > sakhlshi. Vowel **i** is even retained with verbs, especially with the first person forms: **vikitkhulob** instead of vkitkhulob, **vitser** instead of vtser. Every foreign student has problems with the pronunciation of ts, k, ch when they are pronounced after prefix v - (vikitkhulob, vitser). Students should realise that semantically vitser is different from vtser. But “vikitkhulob” is an artificial form and has no meaning.

## Conclusion

Learners of the Georgian language have problems in the pronunciation of certain sounds, they use some word forms properly in the sentences. That is why it is important for the teacher to talk slowly, using short

sentences and easy phrases. The teacher should use proper stress and intonation patterns to make the words easily understandable for the learners.

At listening lessons teachers should give priority to dialogues, practical exercises, interviews and use short and funny texts in the process of teaching. There should be collaboration between language learners and teachers. A friendly atmosphere at the lesson is essential for successful communication.

We believe that there are several ways to acquire a new foreign language and some of the best are learning through audition, pronunciation and drawing the learners' attention to stress and intonation.

## References

- Dzamashvili, 2014 - Dzamashvili, E. (2014). Methods of presenting listening material at English lessons I – IV forms, dissertation thesis. Telavi. Georgia.
- Feikrishvili, 2014 - Zh. & Saghinadze Feikrishvili, Zh. & Saghinadze, R. (2014). Phonetics and Morphology of the Georgian Language. "Universali" .Tbilisi. Georgia.
- Kenchiashvili, 2014 - Kenchiashvili, N. (2014). Stress from the linguistic point of view.
- Odzeli, 2014 - Odzeli, M. (2014). Georgian as a foreign language (geofl.ge). Tbilisi. Georgia.
- Shaverdashvili, Fhitskhelauri, Ramishvili, Gvasalia, 2014 - Shaverdashvili, E., Fhitskhelauri, N., Ramishvili, F. & Gvasalia, M. (2014). Basics of Teaching a Foreign Language, Vol 1, Ilia State University Tbilisi. Georgia
- <https://natiakentchiashvili.wordpress.com>

**Kikvidze Zaal**

*Arnold Chikobava Institute of Linguistics, TSU, Georgia*

## **The Language Situation, Sociolinguistic Profile Formulae and Bi- and Trilingual Ballot Papers**

### **Abstract**

In order to describe a language situation it is necessary to choose an adequate model which is a very complicated task owing to the fact that every language situation is unique in itself. During the 1960s, there were efforts made to discover general patterns for multilingual communities. Those efforts led to the identification of national sociolinguistic typologies and profile formulae. Their advantage is that they have been designed based on objective criteria and that they allow designations for newly discovered circumstances. I thus picked the sociolinguistic profile formula and applied it to the language situation in Georgia's province of Kvemo (Lower) Kartli. The choice appeared to be successful in two ways: 1) the sociolinguistic profile formula appeared to be an adequate model for the language situation in this case; 2) a new function (viz., use as a language of ballot papers) was identified, so far not dealt with in the sociolinguistic literature. Hence, a new designation was added to the formula.

**Key words:** *bilingualism, language situation, Georgia.*

In order to describe a language situation it is necessary to choose an adequate model which is a very complicated task owing to the fact that every language situation is unique in itself. During the 1960s, there were efforts to discover general patterns for multilingual communities. Those efforts led to the identification of national sociolinguistic typologies and profile formulae (see, for instance, Stewart, 1962, 1968; Ferguson, 1962, 1966; Haarman, 1986; Haugen, 1972).

Three general categories were set up: **Lmaj** – *major language*; **Lmin** – *minor language*; **Lspec** – *language of special status*.

Five language types were acknowledged: Vernacular (V), Standard (S), Classical (C), Pidgin (P), and Creole (K).

Various societal functions were identified: *Group* function (g), *Official* use (o), *Language of wider communication* (w), *Educational* use (e), *Religious* purposes (r), *International* use (i), *School subject* (s), *Provincial* (p), *Capital* (c) and *Literary* (l).

With a view to the aforementioned formulaic approach and based on the Constitution of Georgia ("The official language of Georgia shall be Georgian. The official language of the Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia shall be Georgian and Abkhazian"), the formula will be the following:

$$2Lmaj = Lmaj1 (So, Sg, Sr, Se) + Lmaj2 (Sp, Sg, Ss)$$

where **Lmaj1** is Georgian [a standardized vernacular (S), with its official (o), group (g), religious (r) and educational (e) functions] and **Lmaj2** is Abkhazian (a standardized vernacular (S), with its provincial (p), group (g), school subject (s) functions]. However, this hardly reflects the multilingual spectrum of Georgia, particularly with respect to various provinces. Therefore, it is more adequate to target regional language situations and establish respective descriptions. In the present paper, I concentrate on Kvemo Kartli (Kikvidze, 2014) for which one can provisionally assume the following regional sociolinguistic profile formula:

$$1Lmaj (So, Sg, Sr, Se) + nLmin$$

where **1Lmaj** is Georgian; as for the **n** in **nLmin**, it designates an unspecified number of minority languages within the region. Hence, for Kvemo Kartli can be specified in the following way:

**Table 1**

LANGUAGE	STATUS & FUNCTIONS
Georgian	Lmaj (So, Sg, Sr, Se)
Azerbaijani	Lmin (Sg, Se)
Urum	Lmin (Vg)
Armenian	Lmin (Sg, Se)
Russian	Lmin (Sw, Se)
Arabic	Lspec (Cr)
Classical Armenian	Lmin (Cr)
Pontic Greek	Vw
Modern Greek	Sl

Irrespective of its unarguably useful and clear specifications, the existing pattern seems to be insufficient. For instance, since the early 1990s, both the ballot papers and all kinds of election-related documentation have been published in Georgian. Naturally enough, this situation caused practical problems for those citizens of the country who did not speak Georgian. Thus, their linguistic deficit was regularly converted into a deficit in their socio-economic capital. In order to cope with the said challenge, the Central Election Commission of Georgia published four linguistic versions of ballot papers:

- 1) Georgian
- 2) Georgian-Azerbaijani
- 3) Georgian-Armenian
- 4) Georgian-Azerbaijani-Armenian

I am presenting the case according to the 2017 municipal elections in Georgia:

**Table 2. Districts with compact settlements of ethnic minorities** (as of October 21, 2017)

District No.	District name	Number of voters	Georgian-Azerbaijani	Georgian-Armenian	Georgian-Armenian-Azerbaijani
11	Sagarejo	15,227	13	0	0
15	Lagodekhi	8,668	7	0	0
17	Telavi	5,771	4	0	0
21	Gardabani	40,639	32	0	0
22	Merneuli	93,611	72	8	4
23	Bolnisi	39,193	43	2	0
24	Dmanisi	14,932	32	0	0
25	Tsalka	7,448	3	12	0
26	Tetritskaro	1,486	2	3	0
37	Akhaltzikhe	6,596	0	8	0
40	Akhalkalaki	35,422	0	63	0
41	Ninotsminda	21,026	0	37	0

(CESKO)

This innovation should be reflected in respective sociolinguistic profile formulae. Hence, I suggest that we should introduce a new item to the list of functions:

- 11) *Ballot* (b) – a standard language which functions as a language of ballot papers both in national and municipal elections.

Hence, the following amendments are to be introduced:

Table 3

LANGUAGE	STATUS & FUNCTIONS
Georgian	Lmaj (So, Sg, Sr, Se, Sb)
Azerbaijani	Lmin (Sg, Se, Sb)
Armenian	Lmin (Sg, Se, Sb)

In the present paper, I attempted to check how adequate the sociolinguistic profile formula model would be for a description of a language situation in one region (Kvemo Kartli) of Georgia. It has been found that the model is adequate; however, as it has happened before (see, for instance, Stewart 1968; Cooper 1989), following the identification of a so far undocumented, albeit actually existing, function, it was necessary to introduce a new, additional designation. It is a positive contribution to the study of both the region in point and language situations around the world, and to the typologizing of multilingual situations in general.

## References

- CESKO - <http://cesko.ge/geo/list/show/111810-etnikuri-umtsiresobebit-kompaqturad-dasakhlebuli-saarchevno-ubnebi> (accessed: February 28, 2018).
- Cooper, R. (1989). *Language Planning and Social Change*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Ferguson, C. A. (1962). The language factor in national development. In Rice, F. (ed.). *Study of the Role of Second Languages in Asia, Africa and Latin America*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, 8-14.
- Ferguson, C. A. (1966). National Sociolinguistic Profile Formulas. In Bright, W. (ed.). *Sociolinguistics, Proceedings of the UCLA Sociolinguistics Conference*. The Hague: Mouton, 309-324.
- Haarman, H. (1986). *Language in Ethnicity: A View of Basic Ecological Relations*, Berlin: de Gruyter.
- Haugen, E. (1972). Language and immigration. In Dil, A. S. (ed.). *The Ecology of Language: Essays by Einar Haugen*. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1-36.
- Kikvidze, Z. (2014). The sociolinguistic profile of Kvemo Kartli, Georgia: Dimensions and formulas. Paper presented at the International Workshop *Visible and invisible borders: Language use expressing group belonging and change in the Georgian Greek community* (September 1-3, 2014; Frankfurt/Oder, Germany -- Słubice, Poland).
- Stewart, W. (1962). An outline of linguistic typology for describing multilingualism. In Rice F. (ed.). *Study of the Role of Second Languages in Asia, Africa and Latin America*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, 15-25.
- Stewart, W. (1968). A sociolinguistic typology for describing national bilingualism. In Fishman, J. (ed.). *Readings in the Sociology of Language*. The Hague: Mouton, 531-545.

**Popiashvili Nino**

*Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Georgia*

## **The main issues connected to teaching the Abkhazian and Ossetian languages between the 20s and 50s of the XX century<sup>1</sup>**

### **Abstract**

The development of the Abkhazian and Ossetian languages between the 20s and 50s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century is of vital importance from linguistic, political, ideological, and didactic points of view. Noteworthy is the fact that in this period, the Abkhaz and Ossetian languages were evolving through the use of alphabets of different languages.

In particular, it should be noted that from the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century the Abkhaz and Ossetian languages were developing on the basis of the Russian alphabet. Afterwards, the written Ossetian (1923) and Abkhazian languages (1926) were based on the Latin alphabet, which is connected to the activities of Nicholas Marr. From 1938 there were more changes to the alphabet for both languages and the Russian alphabet was used for the Ossetian language in North Ossetia whereas the alphabets for the Ossetian and Abkhazian languages in South Ossetia and Abkhazia were based on the Georgian alphabet. In 1954, the Russian alphabet replaced the Georgian alphabet in South Ossetia and Abkhazia.

Recognition of Nicolas Marr's "Iapetus theory" in the Soviet Union led to the first changes and Latinization of the Ossetian and Abkhazian alphabets. It should be noted that from the 20s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the writing system of Turkic languages of Central Asian countries was also based on the Latin script.

The alphabet change is a complicated and painful issue that reflected on the educational process of Abkhazian and Ossetian languages, as well as on the literature development on these languages. The paper deals with the philological, political and pedagogical aspects of the above-mentioned issues.

**Keywords:** *Abkhazian language, Ossetian language, bilingual education, Soviet Union, Nikolas Marr theory*

Georgia is a multicultural and multiethnic country. Abkhazians and Ossetians whose linguistic and cultural development was taking place in this country are to be mentioned in this respect. The end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century and the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century was characterized by many important political, social, cultural, educational and pedagogical aspects for Georgia. The country's ancient educational and literary traditions were focused on learning and teaching the languages of ethnic minorities, amongst them, the Abkhazian and Ossetian languages.

From the laws adopted during the First Republic of Georgia (1918-1921) it is evident that ethnic minorities living in Georgia besides speaking the official language, were given the opportunity to study,

---

<sup>1</sup>*This research was supported by the Shota Rustaveli National Science Foundation (SRNSF) (grant number PhD\_F\_17\_175). The project title is: Teaching Abkhazian and Ossetian Languages: History and Contemporary Situation.*

make official proceedings and even deliver a speech in their native language in the Parliament of Georgia (the law of October 1, 1918 of the Republic of Georgia "State language" and the law of 15 October 1918 "the use of the language"). Later, when Georgia was forced to become part of the Soviet Union (from February 25, 1921) two autonomous units in the territory of the country were created.

On March 4, 1921, the Soviet Socialist Republic of Abkhazia (SSRA) was established by the Soviet Union, and in 1931 it was transformed into an autonomous republic referred to as the autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic of Abkhazia.

In 1922 the Autonomous District of South Ossetia was created, which was supposed to be subordinated to the central government of Georgia.

The Abkhaz and Ossetian languages belong to different families of languages, but their development, including the development of Abkhazian and Ossetian alphabets, was happening in parallel with each other and in harmony with common political processes of the period. It is important to distinguish and highlight the main trends that determined the teaching of Abkhazian and Ossetian languages.

The main events of learning and teaching of Abkhazian and Ossetian languages will be reviewed within the scope of this article. The main issues will be a history of writing alphabets in Abkhazian and Ossetian languages, political linguistics, pedagogical and other aspects of alphabetical changes, history of teaching Ossetian and Abkhaz languages and pedagogical and methodical issues.

We must emphasize the fact, that the presented research is the first try of a classified and synthetic study regarding Abkhazian and Ossetian languages. Research methodology is based on bilingual teaching methodology on the one hand, and on the other hand, on the main trends of scientific, historical and pedagogical sciences, including the views expressed by Georgian, Abkhaz, Ossetian and Russian scientists.

The Abkhazian language is the language of the Abkhazian-Adyghe group, the family of Ibero-Caucasian languages. The scientific exploration of this language began at the end of the nineteenth century. A Russian scientist Peter Uslar created the alphabet in 1862 based on the Russian graphics. At the same time, a Russian scientist, Ivane Bartolomayi (1813 - 1870), a member of the Petersburg Academy, created and published the Abkhazian alphabet based on the Georgian script, though the teaching of the Abkhazian language through the Georgian script **was** soon stopped.

The next stage of the development of the Abkhazian language was already in the Soviet Union. The issues were solved according to Soviet ideology, including the development of the Abkhazian alphabet and the teaching of the Abkhazian language.

The Ossetian language belongs to the Northern group of Indo-European languages. Ossetians are ethnogenetically related to Scythians, Sarmatians and Alanians. Although, due to the long life in the Caucasus, the Ossetian language was influenced by the Ibero-Caucasian family, it still maintained the linguistic characteristics of the Old Iranian language.

The first script of the Ossetian language was made in Greek symbols (Abaev, 1949). By the end of the eighteenth century, Gayoz Rector (1746 - 1821) together with Pavel Genacurov created the Ossetian alphabet on the basis of the Slavic ecclesiastical font. In 1798 Gayoz Rector and Genacurov translated a "short catechism" from Russian into the Ossetian language.

At the same time, the Ossetian alphabet was developed on the basis of the Georgian script. John Yalguzidze (1775 - 1830), a famous bibliophile, created the Ossetian alphabet according to the Georgian script, translated theological books into the Ossetian language and published them. The first manuscript was published in 1802. In 1844, the Ossetian script of the old Slavic alphabet was created by French scientist Andreas Schreen.

The teaching of the Ossetian language was happening in parallel to South and North Ossetia which spoke one and the same language. Consequently, educational issues should have been similar, but according to political and social issues, there were some differing features in terms of the teaching of the Ossetian language.

According to several sources, in South Ossetia, Ossetians studied literature in Georgian, Ossetian and Greek languages. Information about these issues were provided by Z. Chichinadze. He mentioned that "Ossetians were

taught how to read and write in Georgian, Ossetian, Greek, and Assyrian and Roman ... Ossetian was the language of instruction for ecclesiastic and church affairs; great Ossetian kings and nobles taught in this alphabet which drew the Ossetians and Georgians nearer." (Chichinadze 1913: 101). According to the information by Z. Chichinadze, the following kings took care of the education of Ossetians: Bagrat IV ((1018 - 1072), who was married to the Ossetian king's daughter, Borena; David the Builder (1073 - 1125). Teimuraz I, known as Teimuraz, King of Kakheti (1589 - 1663) found shelter in Ossetia in 1640, as well as King Archil (1647 - 1713) (Chichinadze 1913:14).

The next stage of the education of Ossetians was the establishment of the Ossetian theological commission in which Georgian clergy were also included. The Commission was created under the leadership of Archimandrite Pakhom in Mozdok in 1743, and in 1814 was moved from Mozdok to Tbilisi. Schools were opened and local population was educated by priests. As it is known, the first theological school was opened in Mozdok in 1766, but the decision to open it had been in existence since 1753.

During the Tsarist autocracy in Russia, a two-way tendency was observed regarding the teaching of the Ossetian language: regional policy and centrist policy (see 1993: 45). These issues were largely reflected on the educational policy, including the education of Ossetians and the teaching of the Ossetian language. If the regional policy implied the support for socio-political, cultural and educational initiatives in the region as well as taking decisions based on the interests of the region, the center-oriented policy fought for the unification of all the processes, according to the Center's interests.

The first ecclesiastical Schools for South Ossetians were opened in 1828 in Java, Ceselat and Bekmar. It is known that in 1864, 140 children studied in the School of Religions (Bepiev, 2008).

The issue of teaching the Ossetian language at the Seminary of Tbilisi is to be discussed separately. This issue remained unknown to the scholars interested in the teaching of the Ossetian language for a long time, because during the Soviet Union these sources were not actively used in scientific circulation. However, the materials regarding teaching Ossetian became available after the investigation of the history of Tbilisi Theological Seminary (Gamakharia, 2006: 133)

The Ossetian language was taught by a well-known Georgian writer and public figure Daniel Chankadze (1830 - 1860) at Tbilisi Theological Seminary. "He produced the Georgian-Ossetian and Ossetian-Georgian dictionary, which was published by Shifnner, collected Ossetian proverbs and folk stories. It should be noted that the Georgians educated in this seminary were well aware of the Ossetian language and wrote letters to each other in this language" (Bepiev, 2008).

It should also be mentioned that, in the Java region and Ksani Gorge, religious schools for Ossetian children were opened in 1826. By 1864 9 theological schools had been opened. In Tskhinvali, elementary schools were opened already in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. By the initiative of Anna Amlakhvari, a boarding school where reading, theology and agriculture were taught, was opened in 1875.

From 1864 to 1990, 24 schools functioned in South Ossetia. Along with theological schools, secular schools called Ministry schools, were also opened. The first school of this type was opened in Tskhinvali in 1881. By 1915, there were now 20 secular schools. A primary school was opened in Java, on the basis of the school which was opened in 1826. In 1907 the Ossetian evening school was opened in Tbilisi, which was later led by a famous linguist, Academician Vasil Abayev. In 1913 a primary school for Ossetian children was opened Tbilisi.

The issue of teaching the Ossetian language was first raised in the North Caucasus in 1749 - 1752, during the Russian - Ossetian negotiations followed by the unification of North Ossetia with Russia in 1774. During one of the negotiations between the Russians - Ossetians in St. Petersburg, a decision was made about the establishment of an Ossetian school in Mozdok.

From the 20s of the 19th century the process of the establishment of Ossetian schools in North Ossetia began. In 1836 the Vladikavkaz theological school opened the program of school education, because the main

mission of the theological school was preparation of the clergy who could work as teachers. In 1847, after the establishment of the Caucasian "Okruq" institution, the Ossetian language teaching moved up to a new stage although this decision was not implemented in practice, and by 1860, there were 7 Russian preschool schools in North Ossetia in which 107 children studied in Russian "(Kambalov, 2007).

From 1860 the education issues in North Ossetia were led by the "Society for the Restoration of Orthodox Christianity in the Caucasus". The main goal of this society was to integrate the goals of secular and religious education, and then to expand activities and open primary schools. Consequently, in 1864 - 1867, the number of schools reached 30. "Separate school buildings were constructed and the educational process was financially supported [History of the autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic of North Ossetia 1959: 180], although the language of instruction was solely Russian (Kambalov 2007).

From the 70s of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the Russian education policy continued to change from the centralized policy to regionalism and there were some changes regarding the education of Ossetians. Accordingly, the Ossetian language was taught together with Russian in theological schools, but in 1884 the policy changed and the parish schools moved under the authority of the theological department, which had an impact on the teaching of the Ossetian language (Gabeev 1940: 18). Secular schools (called "Ministry" schools) in North Ossetia were created in Muslim settlements in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century. The main reason for this was the impossibility of teaching the Muslim population by Christian methodology.

By 1917, there were 52 church and 35 public schools in North Ossetia. At the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, there was a number of educational institutions working in Vladikavkaz: two boys and two girl's gymnasiums, two schools, Pedagogical Seminary, Pedagogical Institute and the Cadets Corps. In the above mentioned institutions the language of tuition was Russian; Ossetian was not taught at all. "In Ardon Theological School, which was created in 1887 and first converted into a religious mission seminary in 1895, and in 1909 was transformed into a regular seminary, the Ossetian language was taught as a mandatory subject" (Kambalov 2007).

The issue of nationalization of schools among the Ossetian population in North Ossetia began in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. It should be noted that both the tuition of the Ossetian language and the learning of the Ossetian language were related to one and the same educational policy. Consequently, the practical expression of the principles of Russification was not a primitive prohibition of the native language, but the total absence of support for teaching it. The imperial politics in the field of education was the "support of educational protectionism" (Blarov 1999, p. 138). At the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, it became possible to learn the Ossetian language as a compulsory subject, but only for 2 years. It should also be noted that the learning processes, including the lack of methodical material and textbooks were indicated as acute (Kambalov 2007).

The teaching of the Abkhaz language can be dated from 1810 when the Abkhazian Province was still independent. By the initiative of Iaone Ioseliani, a teacher in the village of Likhni, a theological school was to be established at the residence of the Governor of Abkhazia, where Abkhazian children would be educated in their native language. The idea was supported by the Abkhazian government, however, the Russian authorities refused to create such a school (Gvantseladze 2010).

In 1851, following the decision of the Russian Church Synod, an Abkhazian theological school was open under the leadership and supervision of Alexander Okropiridze. He was a teacher in the village of Likhni, where a school was opened in 1852. Among the courses taught at the school were the Russian and Georgian languages (both secular and liturgical languages), correct writing in Russian and Georgian, maths, grammar of Russian and Georgian, glossary, geography and exercises in the Abkhazian language (Gamakharia, 2006, pp. 11-17).

This school existed until 1855. It is important to ask the following question: Which language basics were the basis for teaching the Abkhazian language in Likhni theological school? As is known, the alphabets by Peter

Uslar and Ivan Bartolomei were not yet created. In our opinion, neither Arabic nor Latin alphabets were used for the Abkhazian language.

From the 1860s a new wave of the Abkhazian language started. As we have already mentioned, in 1862 Peter Uslar created the alphabet of Abkhazian based on the Russian script. At the same time, in the same year, a commission, initiated by the Society for Restoration of Orthodox Christianity of the Caucasus, was set up in Tbilisi to develop the Abkhazian manual. The chairman of the Commission was General Ivan Bartolomei, Correspondent Member of the Petersburg Academy, Archaeologist and Numismatist, who served in the Caucasus, specifically in Abkhazia and Tbilisi, from 1850. The alphabet created by Bartolomei was not in use. "Uslar denounced the commission to the authorities, which was why The Bartolomei Commission was forced to use P. Uslar's script based on Kirilica" (Gvantseladze 2012).

In the 70s of the 19th century, Abkhazian villages were taught in Abkhazian, but in 1884 teaching in the Abkhazian language was abolished and the language of instruction was only Russian. "There was definitely a progressive phenomenon from the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> century in establishing parish and secular schools in several Abkhazian villages where Abkhazian children were able to obtain primary education, but the language of instruction in these schools was Russian: Abkhazian was only an auxiliary language employed to facilitate learning the Russian language ... Since the creation of the Abkhazian script by Uslar, the Abkhazian language was rarely used in education in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. In 1864, when Russia finally conquered the Province of Abkhazia, the Russian authorities tried to organize teaching in the Abkhazian language and in 1865, a year after the first Abkhazian manual was published, schools were opened for Abkhaz children in several Abkhazian villages, in which, "although the Abkhazian language was also taught, the language of instruction was in Russian", (Gvantseladze 2010).

From the 60s of the 19th century the active educational movement started in Georgia, the Society for the Spreading of Literacy among Georgians was founded, methodical and educational manuals were created, among them was "Dedaena" (Mother Tongue) by Iakob Gogebashvili, published in 1876. In addition, the following important textbooks were published: "The Georgian Language Alphabet and First Reading Book for children" (1868), "The gateway to the nature" (1868) and "Ruskoe Slovo" (1887). The teaching of the Abkhazian language was also influenced by these educational processes. "The Abkhazian alphabet" by A. Chachua followed the pedagogical principles created by Gogebashvili in the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and was published in 1909. According to Iakob Gogebashvili, a scholar and teacher, teaching in the Abkhazian language was necessary and obligatory. In this period the idea regarding the creation of literature in the Abkhaz language was put forward and together with the issues of teaching and learning the Abkhazian language and implementing courses of ecclesiastic studies.

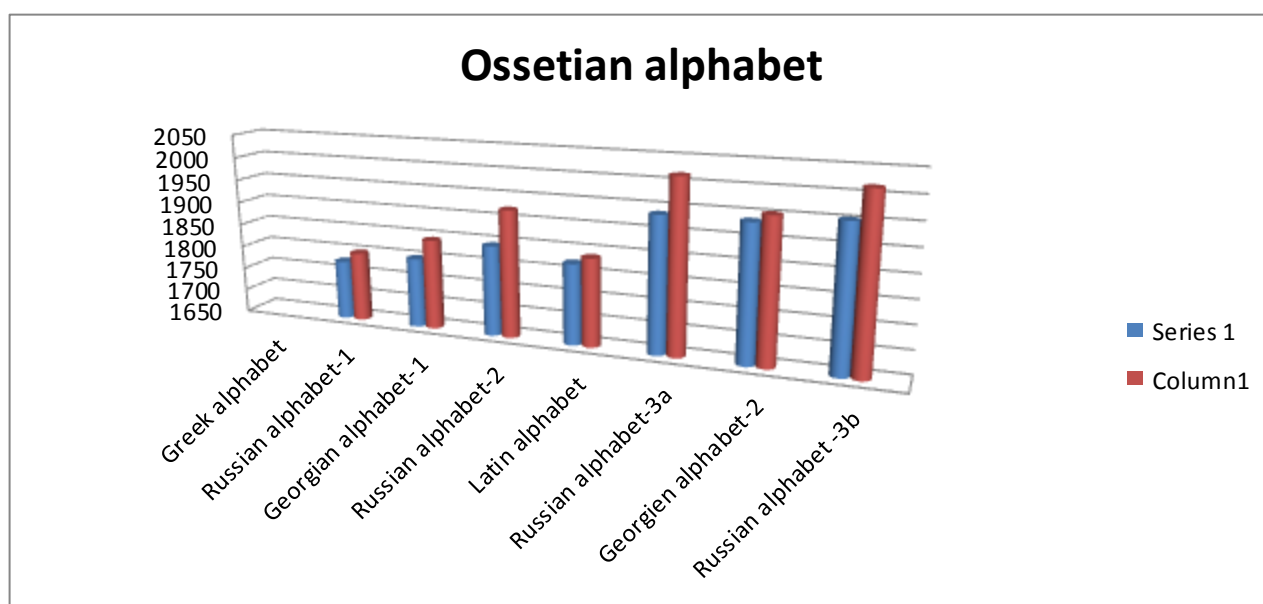
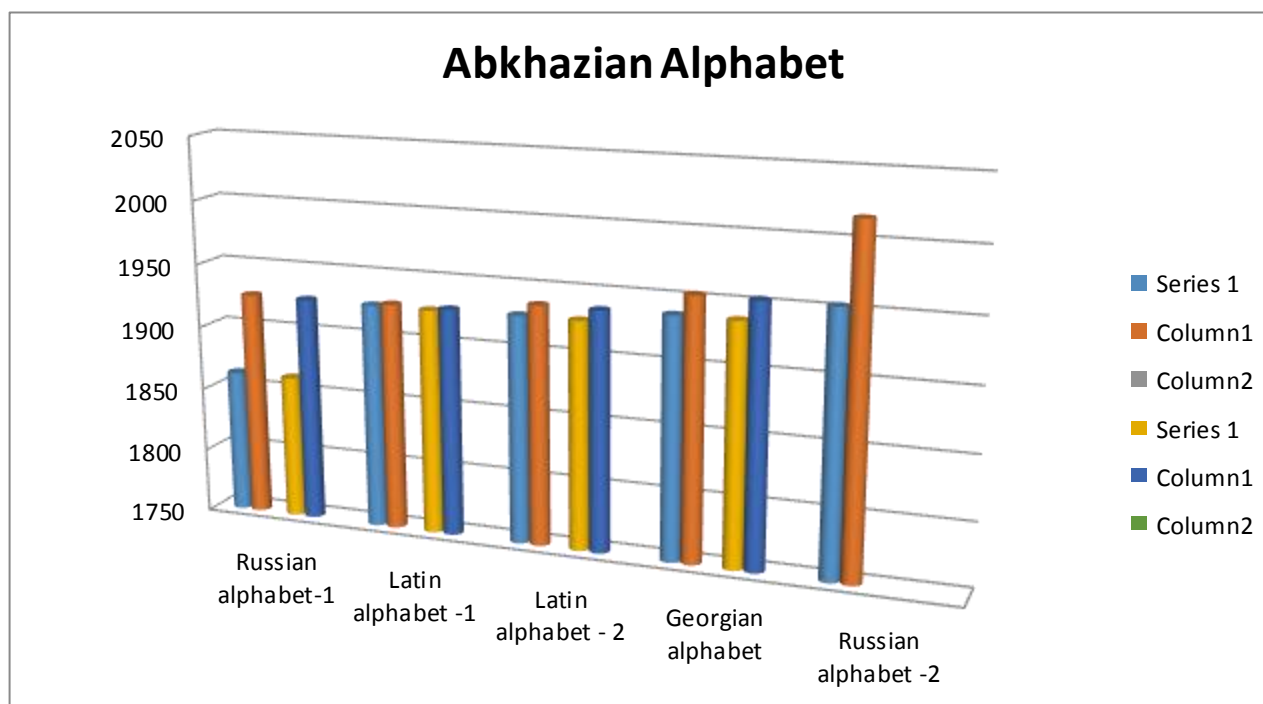
In 1915, a Pedagogical Seminary was established in Sukhumi, where a well-known activist and public figure Dimitry Gulia was actively involved. At the Seminary a handwritten literary journal "Sharpesdva" was founded in 1919 and the newspaper "Apsni" in Abkhazian was published in the same year.

Such was the experience of teaching Abkhazian and Ossetian languages in the 20s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, when the process of frequent change of both alphabets began.

The 20s - 50s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century in the development of Abkhazian and Ossetian languages is of vital importance from linguistic, political, ideological and pedagogical points of view. In this period the Abkhazian and Ossetian languages developed using alphabets of different languages: "Language Policy is a system of various events and legislative acts, based on the countries / governments and society institutions and which reflect specific social-linguistic goals. This may include maintenance or change of existing functional-language norms, supporting any language, popularization, etc." (Gabunia 2017, p. 47).

If both alphabets were based on the origin of the Russian script in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, the process of Latinization of the alphabet began in the 20s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, resulting from the ideological influence of the Soviet Union. In 1923 the Ossetian language, and in 1926 the Abkhazian language were based on the Latin alphabet which is connected to the name of Nikolas Marr. Since 1938 the alphabet has been changed for both languages and the Russian alphabet was introduced for the Ossetian language in North Ossetia, and for the Ossetian and Abkhazian languages in South Ossetia and Abkhazia.

In 1954, the Russian alphabet was again replaced by the Georgian alphabet in South Ossetia and Abkhazia. The discussed issues can be expressed as follows:



The recognition of "Japhetic theory" by Nikolas Marr's in the Soviet space caused the first changes and Latinization of the Ossetian and Abkhazian alphabets. It should be noted that the Latin alphabet was based on the writings of Turcic languages of Central Asia since the 20s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

A change of alphabets is a painful and challenging process which had an influence over the educational processes connected with the Abkhazian and Ossetian languages, as well as over the literary process and development of these languages. In this regard it is important to observe the teaching and learning as well as recognizing pedagogical and methodological issues of both the Abkhazian and Ossetian languages and singling out common trends.

The Soviet Union, which was a multiethnic and multicultural state, involved many languages and cultures with dominant Russian and / or Soviet culture. In the Soviet Union, Russian was also granted the status of the second language. For decades, the ideological influence of the Russian language and culture led to the development of the Soviet culture, which was entirely Russian.

At the same time, the Russian language became the essential / mandatory and elite language. The multilateral and compulsory status of the Russian language brought a great ideological impact on the majority of peoples living in the Soviet Union and the formation of their identity with Russian language and culture. "Russians, Armenians, Azerbaijanis, Abkhazians, Ossetians, Greeks, Kurds and others became part of the Russian political and linguistic community" (Tabatadze, 2016).

It should be noted that after the foundation of the Soviet Union, certain terms and obligations were established regarding teaching of the national languages, but the introduction of the teaching of the Ossetian language lacked adequate learning and methodical resources, as well as qualified teachers and well-developed curriculum programs. Also, the Russian language remained the main language. At the second congress of Ossetian schools teachers, the issue of preparation of the relevant field specialists at the Vladikavkaz Teaching Institute of the Ossetian language was raised. Five-week methodical pedagogic courses were created for the Ossetian language teachers. The preparation of the teachers started in August 1920 under the supervision of the Public Education Department of the Tergi Public education supervision Party. Consequently, in the 20s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the development of the Ossetian language began, and the preparation for the establishment of the National School based on the Ossetian language base. The foundation was laid regarding the process of staff training and textbooks. In addition, the base for the foundation of printing houses was established.

The alphabet created by C. Guriaev and based on the Iron dialect, was published in 1923 whereas the Alphabet created by M. Gardanov was based on the Digor Dialect. 25 manuals were written, 20 collections for literature lessons, two folk collections and 3 scientific research were developed.

In 1922 – 1924 In Vladikavkaz there were 21 schools at the first stage of education and 6 schools at the second stage of education. The academic process included ten languages: Russian, Ossetian, Armenian, Persian, Georgian, Hebrew, Tatar, German, Greek and Polish employing corresponding alphabets (Magidov 1979: 54). This culminated in the decisions of the Central Committee of the 8th (1919) and 10th (1921) Congresses. In other schools, mainly in villages and peripheries, the language of instruction was Russian, rarely - Ossetian.

The teaching of Ossetian in South Ossetia was widely associated with the availability of learning materials, though it should be noted that the issue of teaching the Ossetian language had a great importance in Tskhinvali State Pedagogical Institute founded in 1932, with the Faculty of Agrobiology and later addition of the Department of Philology, with the sub-departments of Georgian, Russian and Ossetian philology.

The learning and teaching process of Ossetian and Abkhazian languages is deeply connected with Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, where, starting from the 20s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, there were scientific studies of these languages, singling out grammatical and linguistic categories and teaching of the Ossetian and Abkhazian languages.

The issue of changes in Ossetian and Abkhazian alphabets had some influence on the teaching of these languages. Observation of school textbooks, scientific works and original or translated literary publications revealed that one and the same book, textbook or research was often printed in several alphabets, namely using Latin and Georgian fonts. Also, school textbooks were published in a number of scripts, which naturally

complicated the study of this language for schoolchildren, and also made it difficult to create or translate literature in this language.

Russian alphabetization was the next stage in teaching Abkhaz and Ossetian languages. After the introduction of the Russian alphabet, the Abkhazian and Ossetian scripts were based on the Russian Alphabets.

When discussing the Abkhazian language and issues regarding bilingual education and pedagogical and methodical issues, it is important to note the difference between the teaching of the Abkhazian language and the reform of school education in Abkhazia in the 30s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. In particular, the issue of transferring the Abkhazian alphabet into the Georgian alphabet after rejecting the theory by Nikolas Marr was carried out by contemporary Abkhazian scientists due to Stalin's Georgian origin.

Since 1937 - 38, after the change of alphabet of the Abkhazian and Ossetian script from the Latin alphabet into the Georgian, the basic language of Abkhazian and Ossetian schools became Georgian instead of Russian. In this regard, Dimitri Gulia, the founder of Abkhazian literature, wrote: "This event will definitely promote and strengthen the entire Abkhazian culture, because the Georgian alphabet is the most appropriate and complete version for the Abkhazian language." (Gulia, 1937). The issue of introducing the Georgian alphabet was discussed on 4 - 5 December 1937 at the N. Marr Research Institute in Sukhumi with the participation of Abkhazian, Georgian and Russian scientists. At the meeting a famous Abkhazian scientist and public figure B. Bghazhba noted that "this alphabet perfectly expresses the entire sound system of the Abkhazian literary language" (Bghazhba, 1987: 19).

The reform of Abkhazian and Ossetian languages was completed in 1938. It was decided that the Ossetian language writing in North Ossetia had to be based on the Russian script and in South Ossetia on the Georgian language. In February 1938, the Central Executive Committee of the Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia adopted a resolution on the transfer of the Abkhazian script into the Georgian graphic system. "The reason for this does not lie either in Stalin's and L. Beria's ethnicity and their patriotism, or in any specific anti-Abkhazian direction and, especially, in the attempt made by Georgians to abolish Abkhazian ethno cultural identity, but in linguistic-historic circumstances, which reveal that among the languages of the republics of the Soviet Union, only Georgian was diametrically different from "kirilica" regarding its alphabet. Obviously, the Kremlin would not either neutralize this Georgian specific feature in its decision or make a separate decision for Georgia" (Izoria, 2015: 28).

The following decisions were adopted by the Central Committee of the Soviet Union and the Politbureau in 1937 – 1938: "About Reorganization, Liquidation and Transformation of Artificially created districts and Village Councils and Reorganization of National Schools" and "About the Compulsory learning of the Russian Language in Schools of National Republics and Districts ". In the first resolution, which was adopted on 24 January 1937 by the Communist "Orgburo" and on December 17, 1937 adopted by the Politbureau "hostile elements working in the peoples' commissariats of the Soviet Republics and Autonomous Republics who establish Special National Schools (German, Finnish, Polish, Latvian, Greek, Estonian, Chinese and others) and transformed them into the places in which children were subject to the "bourgeois-nationalists influence".

It was mentioned in the resolution

"a) special national schools (German, Finnish, Polish, Latvian, Estonian and others) will be transformed into ordinary types of Soviet schools. National departments at regular Soviet schools should be eliminated.

b) Reorganization will be done as follows: "It is necessary that special national schools be converted into ordinary schools through introducing curricula and academic plans of Russian type Soviet schools, the language of instruction should be Russian or a language of a republic ..."

These measures were to be carried out before 1 August 1938 (Lezhava, 1997: 112). In our view, this issue is directly related to Stalin's condemnation of the theory of Nikolas Marr, because, besides Abkhazian and Ossetian languages, studying in other languages was also abolished.

Apparently, in the 30s of the Soviet era, teaching in national languages was prohibited in secondary schools. In spite of this, until 1945 the teaching of Abkhazian and Ossetian languages did not completely stop.

In regard to the teaching of the Abkhazian language it is also worth mentioning that the political aspects of the given issue are exemplified in the regulations issued by the local Abkhazian Education Commissioner, and published in the letter written by the teachers (see G. Lezhava, D. Jojua, T. Gvantseladze, L. Izoria, Bangage, Lakoba and others).

In the discussed model the Russian language was replaced by Georgian at the initial stage of school education. In paragraph b of the Decree it is stated that schools should be converted into the usual type of the Soviet schools and the language of instruction was indicated to be the language of the republic or Russian. Consequently, Abkhazian and Ossetian schools should be converted into Georgian schools or Russian schools. In North Ossetia, which was part of the Russian Federation, schools became Russian, but the Georgian language had to be closer to Abkhazian and Ossetian people living in the Republic of Georgia, whose native language alphabet was based on the Georgian language. There is a sharp contrast regarding this issue between the opinions of the Abkhazian and Georgian scholars. According to the Abkhazian scholars, it was an imposition of the Georgian culture upon the Abkhazians and restriction of the Abkhazian language and literature. According to the Georgian scientists, the teaching in the Georgian language was not unacceptable for the Abkhazian population and pedagogical, scientific and intellectual circles. According to the opinion of the school teachers, head teachers and the representatives of the regional divisions (B. Katsia, N. Geria, A. Marghania, M. Bouava etc.), the transfer of Abkhazian schools into Georgian was entirely acceptable (see Papaskiri, 2007: 144- 145).

Due to the transfer of Abkhazian schools into Georgian, there was a Special Commission for the preparation of the school reform created by the District Committee of the Abkhazian Autonomous Republic in January 9, 1945, under the leadership of M. Delba, Chairman of the Council of Ministers. After two months of work, March 12, 1945, the Commission submitted its conclusion according to which an important part of the Abkhazian population is fluent in the Georgian language. The reason for this is the lexical closeness of the Georgian and Abkhazian languages and the unified alphabetical system. On 13 March 1945, the District Committee of the Abkhazian Communist Party of Georgia adopted a decree, according to which, in 1945 - 1946 the language of instruction in Abkhazian schools had to be Georgian. On 13 June 1945, this resolution was approved by the Bureau of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Georgia.

For the history of the development of the issue, it should also be noted that on February 25, 1947 three researchers in the same research institute (N. Marr Abkhazian Scientific Research Institute), candidates of Philological sciences K. Shakril, B. Shinkuba, candidate of Historical Sciences addressed the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union with a protest letter. This letter is important due to its political, ideological, national as well as pedagogical aspects.

Specifically, the address states that a part of the authors and Abkhazian people want to the Abkhazian language to be made a language of instruction, to remove the Georgian language and add the Russian language. It should also be noted that in 1967, in the letter of protest of the Abkhazian youth there was a demand for the introduction of teaching in Abkhazian (for more details see Lejava 1997, Papaskiri 2007).

The replacement of the Russian language by the Georgian was determined by the 1937 resolution. As revealed by the studies, this did not cause and should not have caused the reduction of the number of hours Abkhazian and Ossetian languages were taught.

The replacement of the Russian language is directly related to the change of the Abkhazian and Ossetian script from Latin into Georgian, which, in turn, was condemned by Nikolas Marr's theory.

We think it is important to remember the memoirs of Kandid Charkviani, secretary of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Georgia in 1938 - 1952. It was the period when the Abkhazian and Ossetian scripts were transferred from the Latin alphabet and when the Russian language was replaced by Georgian. K. Charkviani noted in one of the interviews: "There is a misunderstanding on the issue of schools; we have not taken the Abkhazian language anywhere. The Abkhazian language is still there, the issue concerns

only the primary education. The primary school was Abkhazian, but not fully, because some courses were taught in Russian, because there was no terminology, no textbooks, and no teachers.

So, in fact, it was a Russian school. This was initiated by a group of Abkhazian intellectuals who addressed the Central Committee with the request to replace Russian by Georgian in schools. .. but by this the Abkhazian language and literature was not limited at all, because the classes and hours remained as they were. As for the Georgian school, where the Abkhazian children would learn - they would also have similar conditions to study the Abkhazian language and literature. Such was the attitude. But now they have changed everything and it looks as if we had cancelled the Secondary school. How could we have cancelled something which did not exist? There was no Abkhazian high school. If anyone complains about something, I think it can be only one thing, namely that we replaced the language of instruction into Georgian and not in every school. Only in schools where the Georgian language was more popular (Charkviani, 2013: 47-48).

It should be noted as a conclusion that in the 20 - 50s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the teaching of Abkhazian and Ossetian languages was associated with the Soviet ideological issues, including similar processes of alphabet changes, which complicated both pedagogical and methodological processes of the language learning and created preconditions for political confrontation and finally, became a reason for political confrontation. In addition, in the same period, there were processes of alphabetization of the population and changes in primary and secondary education. However, using the example of teaching of Abkhazian and Ossetian languages it can be claimed that it was the support of the Russian-speaking education and national differentiation of schools was conditional.

## References

- Абаев, 1949 - Абаев В.И., 1949. Осетинский Язык и фольклор, М. – Л., 1949.
- Abkhazian Alphabet, 1892 - Абхазская азбука. 1892 Главнейшие молитвы и заповеди на абхазском и церковно-славянском языках. Тифлис.
- Akhvlediani, 1960 - Ахвледиани Г. С., 1960. Сборник избранных работ по осетинскому языку, Тбилиси: «Тбилисский Государственный Университет».
- Andronikashvili, 1996 - Andronikashvili Mzia., Resources of Iranian-Georgian linguistic interaction. II. Tbilisi, 1996.
- Bepievi, 2008) - Bepievi Naira., The issue of Ossetians education, Materials of the International Scientific Conference of the National Center of Manuscripts, Tbilisi, 2008.
- Bghazhba, 1987 - Bghazhba Kh., Book of Works I. Sokhumi. 1987.
- Bleichsteiner -(1918) Bleichsteiner Robert., 1918. Überblick über kaukasische Völker und Sprachen; in: Berichte des Forschungsinstituts für Osten und Orient. Bd. 2. 66-85. Vienna.
- Bzarov, 1999 - Бзаров Р.С., Развитие национального образования в Северной Осетии, Мах дуг, 1999, №7.
- Chichinadze, 1913 - Chichinadze Z. Ossetian History, Tbilisi, 1913.
- Collection of Legal Acts of the Democratic Republic of Georgia 1918-1921, "oIverta Mkare"., Tbilisi, 1990.
- Collection of Legal Acts of the Democratic Republic of Georgia, 1990)
- Gabeev, 1940 - Габеев А. Я., Владикавказское осетинское духовное училище, Ученые записки Северо-Осетинского государственного педагогического института. Т. Орджоникидзе, 1940.
- Gabunia, 2017 - Gabunia Kakha., Aspects of the Language of Minority Language in the Post-Soviet Georgia: "Georgian-Ossetian Relations - History and Modernity",
- Gagloev, Tshibirov, 1982 - Гаглойти Ю. С. Чибиров Л. А., 1982. Юго-осетинский

- Gamakharia, 2006 - Gamakharia J., Saint Bishop Alexander, Okropiridze) and Abkhazia, Tbilisi, 2006.
- Gulia, 1937 - Gulia Dimitri, Newspaper "Sabtshota Abkhazeti", 1937, #6. Sukhumi.
- Guriev, 1995 - Гуриев Т. А., Памятники особого рода: язык, Владикавказ. 1995.
- Gvantseladze- Gvantseladze Teimuraz., From the history of the transfer of the Abkhazian
- Gvantseladze, 2010 - Gvantseladze Teimuraz., Functioning of the Abkhazian Language in Education, SPEKALI, Electronic Bilingual Scholarly Peer-Reviewed Journal of the Faculty of Humanities at Ivane Javakhsishvili Tbilisi State University. <http://www.spekali.tsu.ge/index.php/ge/article/viewArticle/2/20>
- Gvantseladze, 2012 - Gvantseladze Teimuraz., The Abkhazian Language and the Georgian Graphics, SPEKALI, Electronic Bilingual Scholarly Peer-Reviewed Journal of the Faculty of Humanities at Ivane Javakhsishvili Tbilisi State University. <http://www.spekali.tsu.ge/index.php/ge/article/viewArticle/5/44>
- Izoria, 2015 - Izoria Levan, Abkhazian separatist movement, 1945-1993; Dissertation <https://sangu.ge/images/2015/lizoria.pdf>
- Jojua, 2007 - Jojua D., Abkhazia in 1938-2006: Aspects of regional historical process. Tbilisi. 2007.
- Kambalov, 2007 - Камболов Т.Т., Языковая ситуация и языковая политика в Северной Осетии: история, современность, перспективы: Монография / Под редакцией доктора филологических наук М.И. Исаева; Северо-Осетинский государственный университет. Владикавказ: Издательство СОГУ, 2007.
- Lezhava, 1997 - Лежава Гоча., Между Грузией и Россией. Современные факторы Абхазо-Грузинского конфликта, XIX-XX в.в.).
- literary language to the Georgian diagram. <http://www.amsi.ge/istoria/div/gvanc.html>
- Materials of III International Conference, Ivane Javakhsishvili Tbilisi State University Publishing House, Tbilisi, 2017.
- Papaskiri 2007 - Papaskiri Zurab., Materials from the historical past of modern Abkhazia, II, 1917-1993. Tbilisi, 2007.
- Tabatadze, 2016 - Tabatadze Shalva., "Multilingual / Bilingual Education Policy in Georgia": <http://www.scribd.com/doc/16213298/Multilingual-Educational-Policy-by-Shalva-Tabatadze-Georgian-Version>
- Tedeevi, 1985 - Tedeevi Olga., The first Ossetian manuscript language, Tbilisi, "Mecniereba", 1998.
- Tsharkviani, 2013) -Tsharkviani Gela., Interview with my father, "Artanuji", 2013. государственный педагогический институт, Цхинвал, «Ирыстон».

**Protassova Ekaterina**

*University of Helsinki, Finland*

## **Multilingual Education and Family Language Policy**

### **Abstract**

In the post-Soviet realm, people confront bilingualism and diversity, combining their old views upon the ranking of different languages and statuses of certain ethnic societies with their newly adopted democratic post-socialist understanding of multiculturalism. This article takes two important theoretical issues – family language policy and multilingual education – and projects the previous findings upon possibilities and restrictions in the transmission and maintenance of Russian as a heritage language on the pre-primary and primary levels in Finland, Germany and France. An overview of the parents' attitudes towards bilingualism in these countries demonstrates that many families are interested in bilingual or trilingual upbringing and that parents are plurilingual themselves. The strategies that the families apply to raise their children bilingually are discussed and compared. It is stated that the differences are caused by historical and personal experiences and traditions, by family composition and possibilities to maintain language academically.

**Key words:** *Bilingualism, family language policy, multilingual education.*

### **Introduction**

Today, different kinds of migration and mobility are meeting changing views of parents who want to have the best possible education for their children. Generally speaking, there are two types of education available: the one fosters the natural way of language acquisition and of cognitive development, and the second enhances it through organized and aim-directed activities. Languages shape our world, therefore, the interconnectedness of language and cognition is evident; yet, it also plays out at the level of interactions, body language, sociality, temperament, emotions, values and other behavioral features. The degree of bilingualism varies according to individual opportunities; it depends on socioeconomic status, education, individual capacities and the character of juxtaposition of both languages. Most often, research is upon English language acquisition and immigrant populations acquiring the dominant languages of the host countries.

Nowadays, parents are well informed that children growing up multilingually have certain privileges. Not only can they become more competent speakers of many languages and connoisseurs of many cultures, they can also benefit from several effects through an early start in the use of those languages. As Bialystok & Werker (2017) put it, the specificity of a multilingual environmental input, communicative and cultural experience of bilinguals influence the verbal behavior and cognitive development of such individuals who already have their genetic predispositions and certain other family conditions. Some children may be bilingual but not biliterate, some start to acquire a second language not at home, but later in the environment and may meet a third language at school as the language of instruction (+ some foreign or second languages as well). The same level on bilingual proficiency achievement may have a different history and future in one's life; therefore, it may be extremely difficult to compare memory, attention, executive functions and other cognitive skills in monolingual and bilingual children.

Language is also a tie to a culture that can grow to be very important for the child. It can be the culture of relatives, of a bigger world or just of a small community, yet, it makes the person who is familiar with different cultures special and unique. Texts written in other languages are precious resources and sources of information. Multilinguals are more tolerant in their reasoning and attitudes, they can develop more friendships, enter a

number of different communities, they learn other languages more easily and might find better jobs. Speaking two languages inevitably implies overcoming difficulties such as: not enough input, teasing from peers, more workload at school, uselessness, but this creates a stronger personality. The dominance of the language may change during the lifetime, and the efforts to interest children in it can provoke alternative periods of refusal and acceptance.

The new post-Soviet generations are growing up in the era of personal independence, globalization and with a spectrum of opportunities for personal decisions and life trajectories. There are many paths into the multilingual world. What is important now is the parents' awareness about how to meet such goals. It means that the researchers and educators have to provide knowledge about bi- and multilingualism for positive constructions of the family language policies. Parents should discuss bilingualism's strengths and weaknesses with their children and encourage them to continue to speak and write in their two languages.

### **Family language policy**

Spolsky (2012) claimed that language policy happens on the family level. It constitutes an important part of the neighborhood, community, working place, army etc. tangible practices. The family commits to acquiring a second language while maintaining the first one and exhausts for this purpose material, financial and identity issues. The strategies that families tackle range from informal to formal teaching, communication arrangements, roles of parents and grandparents, schooling, stigmatization, ideologies, choices of language varieties etc.

Minority parents have trouble in maintaining heritage languages. Usually integration into a majority entails a full or a part rejection of the first language in the middle or late childhood, or children become passive bilinguals but very rarely balanced bilinguals. Parents, especially mothers, feel frustrated when they cannot transmit their language to the children because they want to stay good parents and rely on online and offline advice from experts, family, friends and their own experience in justification of their linguistic approaches. According to King & Fogle (2006), parents learn a lot in order to prepare themselves to raise children bilingually, and for the middle-class well-educated parents, promoting additive bilingualism is nowadays a trend, although the family dynamics and other intervening factors may impede the achievements. Curdt-Christiansen (2009) promotes the view that socio-political and economic factors influence the family language policy that some immigrant parents really believe in languages and consider the social and schooling role of languages as very important and act accordingly in an explicit or implicit way. Such attitudes impact on children's behavior and their identity.

Family language policy is a multidisciplinary field of studies. Schwarz & Verschik (2013) investigated successful decisions made by all of the actors – parents, children and educators – who occupy important positions and demonstrate flexible attitudes. They address a reversing language shift model, a language ecology model, group socialization theory, micro, macro and intermediate levels, language policy model, cultural-historical-activity theory, and parent-child language practice models. Combining quantitative and qualitative approaches, they show that the family is the place where community meets the individual and *vice versa*, where practices mirror ideologies of the surrounding society, where majority and minority fight for their rights, and individual impacts on the process are valuable. Smith-Christmas (2015) demonstrates that despite all the efforts and participation in a language immersion program, children might struggle with their heritage language with not very much success; the results also depend on adults' and community linguistic practices norms and ideologies.

If we scrutinize the transnational and multilingual families, we come to a conclusion, as Hua & Wei (2016) proved, that even in the same family, diverse generations have different views on bilingualism. The perception of social relationships, their migration backgrounds, social structures in which they are involved, as well as their own identities shape such opinions. Some maintain the transnational networks though in several generations, some abandon one of the languages in favor of another, some base their existence on the cultural

memory and imagination. Throughout the world, questions of family language policy in the home should be adjusted to the wider society; the decisions are made differently in diverse settings (Macalister & Hadi Mirvahedi, 2017).

It is only natural that caretakers are concerned about a child's bilingualism: whether it can do children any harm, could they be semi-lingual, could they have doubts about their identities etc. Grosbeak (2010) who is one of the most influential scholars in the field claims that the most important thing is sufficient exposure to at least one, preferably to both of the languages, and that at least some of the interactors never switch to another language. Parents should take into account the importance of respective languages for the child and to monitor situations where the child encounters people who speak these languages to keep record of his achievements. The differentiation between languages must purposely be a strict one, although the reality of life might change and thus, the family has to readjust its language behavior. Children themselves understand the needs of learning or skip the languages when they become unnecessary, and when they grow older, they might participate in the decisions of the family. Bilingual children often have lacunae in vocabulary, but they outperform monolinguals in selective (attention) control and analysis, because they acquire and use these languages separately. If the family wants to use a language at home, which is not the language of the outside world, they may try it even if they are not perfect speakers of the language themselves, nevertheless, they must introduce it in a way that communication in this language starts to be vital and advantageous for the child. When addressing a child in one language, adults must comprehend how and for what it must be absorbed. It is not fruitful to combine two languages; rather, both of them should stay separated like in a monolingual situation, as often as possible; whenever conceivable, they must be sources of joy. Summing up these reasoning, I should emphasize that bilingual education must avoid doubling of the same information under the same circumstances, yet, translanguaging adherents do not refuse to combine languages while teaching in a way how it occurs naturally in bilingual communication (cf. **Garcia & Wei 2014**).

Maybe the most influential scale for the measurement of language maintenance is the Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale, or GIDS, proposed by Fishman (1991, 2001). It comprises eight stages of endangerment for heritage languages. UNESCO has proposed a 6-degree Framework (UNESCO 2009) for saving endangered languages; the Ethnologue has 14 levels. The framework to examine language vitality was proposed by Grin (2003) and Lo Bianco & Peyton (2013) who discerned three factors, which are necessary for language maintenance or for language revitalization: (1) Capacity, which presupposes that a person is proficient in a language (both, formal instruction and informal transmission are necessary), and uses it; (2) Opportunity, which involves creation of domains where the language is used in a natural way, is welcome, it is expected; (3) Desire, which means creation of investment in the learning of the heritage language connected to rewards that it brings for those who have studied it.

### **Multilingual education in support of the family language policy**

In many cases, the goal of the language policy is to give global and easy access to high levels of English language proficiency for all socio-economic groups without producing undesirable consequences for local or just smaller languages and cultures (King, 2017). In reality, it is challenging to separate languages and to provide support for each of them on the family, societal and educational levels. Contemporary societies are predominantly heterogeneous, the economy depends upon information, the logistics in international, and proficiency in many languages is a commodity. Global networks function in many languages and are contingent on various cultures. Electronically mediated communication in English as a lingua franca and not so frequently other languages promote plurilingual repertoires of individuals in multilingual cosmopolitan cities and elsewhere. The language of schooling must be understandable for the students if they have to incorporate the new knowledge into that previously acquired. To my mind, it seems that the CLIL-method should definitely contradict such claims. Even when we intensify the language learning, it remains perplexing how to keep pace in the same tempo for all languages used in curriculum. All the models of bilingual education (pyramid or

reversed pyramid, 50/50, one new language every second year, studying the subjects to be examined in the languages in which they will be assessed, two-way-classrooms, immersion etc.) encounter obstacles caused by the presence of average children. Today, teacher encourage students to become independent learners and to act in the real world where their abilities are observed and inspected.

Cummins (2007) divided BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency/Academic Language Proficiency). The first refers to what all typically developing human beings employ to communicate with each other and what language learners on average will be able to do after 1 – 3 years of learning a second language. The last is more sophisticated and requires reasoning skills that provide learning through the language; this level can be reached by those who study in the first language after 5 – 7 years of sufficient exposure to a second language. If children study in a different language, it takes them about 7 – 10 years to be able to catch the contents like their peers.

Vygotsky (1962: 110) wrote: “Success in learning a foreign language is contingent on a certain degree of maturity in the native language. The child can transfer to the new language the system of meanings he already possesses in his own. The reverse is also true – a foreign language facilitates mastering the higher forms of the native tongue. The child learns to see his language as one particular system among many, to view its phenomena under more general categories and this leads to awareness of his linguistic operations”. Timpe-Laughlin (2016) formulates the guidelines for organizing successful learning of a second language: enhanced input to afford opportunities for noticing; opportunities for learners to compare and possibly reflect on certain pragmatics phenomena to facilitate understanding and awareness building; opportunities for social interaction. Hélot & Ó Laoire (2011) contend that the times of diversity of students’ backgrounds at schools oblige educators and teachers to question the traditional ways of teaching all over the world.

In the Convention on the Rights of the Child, one reads that governments ensure “the development of respect for the child’s parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own”. Migrant and indigenous children suffer the most in what concerns their future in a multilingual society where they experience trouble while keeping their languages. At the same time, they should become modern competent citizens, fluent in many languages, skilled workforce. Modern handbooks and recommendations for multilingual education emphasize the decisive role of the mother tongue in multilingual education (e.g., Advocacy Kit, 2007; Ball, 2013; Skutnabb-Kangas & Heugh, 2013, Wyse *et al.* 2016, Sandberg 2017). Because of a solid foundation for focused subject learning, it makes learning accessible, it promotes collaboration between home and school and it supports literacy in all languages. Parents are aware of what is happening in the school, and all actors and stakeholders are able to communicate with each other. When the contents are not clear, parents can facilitate them for their children who in turn may concentrate on autonomous development and creativity instead of grinding incomprehensible texts. Inclusion into multilingual education means organization of favorable conditions, i.e. benefiting from sociolinguistic situation, clearing up the goals and objectives of language teaching and learning, stimulating a positive atmosphere, spreading information about the institutions through different media, integrating the plans into the general curriculum and building upon financial and human sustainable resources. Multilingual education needs locally significant materials and specially trained teachers who would implement appropriate methodology and pedagogy and who understand the needs of parents and children and enhances the intergenerational transmission of the own languages in the home environment. The ‘first language first’ principle does not contradict teaching through different languages, but after the mother tongue literacy is fully acquired.

Let me name just a few tendencies in contemporary trends in teaching, which relate to language teaching, that currently inspire the instructional practice and affect the mode how we think about new ways of education for the future. *Critical pedagogy in language teaching*, as Crookes (2010) puts it, combines language studies and curriculum with the idea of social justice, it means that it acts in service of those who are underprivileged

and marginalized, e.g. the ethnic minorities. It also implies the use of critical pedagogy of Paulo Freire who worked for changes in the life of such people. The term *Multimodal pedagogies* covers various forms of communication in learning environments connected to multimodality, or multiple modes, of meaning making, which refers to such things as body language, gestures, activities with visual and auidial substances etc., yet, first, with media and technologies. Students may fill in their reports and presentations as creative multiliteracy texts (Angay-Crowder *et al.* 2013). *Positive pedagogy* (O'Brien & Blue, 2017) affirms that success and positive learning experiences, cognitions and emotions make students flourish at school. Trying to find out what is positive within the classroom and what promotes this positivity, researchers discovered behaviors, dispositions, practices, talking manners, social and emotional resources, building materials, individualized learning goals that permit to live here and now and foster self-expression, self-development, and self-determination in individuals and collectives. Other often quoted methods are *PBL* (Project/Problem/Portfolio Based Learning), *PhenoBL* (Phenomena Based Learning), *IBL* (Inquiry Based Learning), *AL* (Active Learning), *CLIL* (Content and Language Integrated Learning) and some more. All of them prioritize the superiority of the creativity, motivation, liberty of choice and autonomous learning.

### **Russian-speaking diaspora and maintenance of the home language though education.**

About 30 million people speaking Russian live outside Russia; inside Russia, about the same number of people are native speakers of other languages (cf. Protassova, 2010). These combinations of linguistic backgrounds influence the family language policies towards child multilingualism. The well-known variables in individual heritage-speaker profiles are age, background, and motivation, exposure to the heritage language, productive and/or receptive skills and gaps in acquisition (Brecht & Ingold, 1998, Andrews, 2000, Isurin, 2008, Pavlenko & Driagina, 2008, Pereltsvaig, 2008, Polinsky, 2008). In the last few years, methods of teaching the Russian language and culture outside of Russia to the heritage speakers of Russian increased considerably. The teaching materials were designed for the specific needs and requirements of heritage learners drawing them into both languages and encouraging the Russian-speaking families to maintain their language in the daily life. It means training children in the practical use of language in all its functions, promoting linguistic variation and vocabulary growth, and combining authentic Russian materials with those created for the local purposes.

If we compare the prerequisites for language maintenance at the societal level with what happens in reality to the Russian language (RL) in three European countries, Finland, Germany and France, we can predict the future of the family RL transmission. RL cannot be used at the nationwide level; despite its longstanding presence, it has no official status. RL is used in public and private educational institutions, working places, and local mass media. Before the Ukrainian crisis, the Russia-European relations were characterized as “Strategic Partnership”, including cooperation in the Nord Stream pipeline building. The mutual trade was important, but not crucial for the European economy. In Finland, before 2014 and later again in 2017 the Russian tourists are spending more than tourists from any other country are.

In **Finland**, Russian is considered to be the largest immigrant language. There is also a historical Russian minority. The repatriation wave ended in 2016. In recent years, business people and students joined the community. Finland provides students with a legal right to mother tongue instruction (Viimaranta, *et al.* 2017). Yet, the parents mentioned several implementation problems and shortages of the educational system, regarding the quality and quantity of the instruction, the quality of the books etc. There are several bilingual Finnish-Russian schools and many pre-primary educational institutions, as well as non-compulsory organisations offering courses in Russian for children.

In **Germany**, the Russian speakers do not have any status. Most of them are Russian-Germans who feel obliged to be regarded as Germans and often name themselves *Rusaki*. The Kontingentflüchtlinge are mostly Russian speaking Jews. There are several state and private Russian-speaking schools and many day care centres. Russian is also taught as a foreign language in many public schools. Quite a lot of Russians speak German as a foreign language and many Germans are to a certain degree proficient in Russian. Russian-

Germans are ethnically Germans, they are not asking for any minority rights and they wanted to integrate as quickly as possible, guessing that the government who had invited them was awaiting this from them.

In **France**, the Russian-speakers mainly come from immigrant and mixed-marriage communities. The old White Emigration forms a base for the long tradition of the Russian presence. No official statistics are known. RL instruction happens in some private institutions. Only in Paris is there a bilingual day care centre on a daily basis. All other institutions operate two days a week, on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

We conducted surveys in each country (e.g., Burd, *et al.* 2014; Solntseva, & Protassova, 2018). Parents of bilingual children are usually born in different countries on the territory of the former Soviet Union and immigrated at least five years ago. All of participants find themselves on the crossroads of different family values and educational priorities in Europe *vs.* in Russia including the baseline principles of the child- *vs.* teacher-centred approach, learning for today *vs.* for the future, learning for yourself *vs.* for society. They have to answer certain questions, e.g., who speaks the truth: the textbook or the family? What are the functions of the school? Is natural acquisition better than the enhanced development? Which languages are more important? What kind of the Russian past are we constructing in the corresponding country and is it better than the situation that we have nowadays?

In Finland, about 70% among parents of bilingual children, and in Germany, about 80% of such parents opt for the majority language first solution, but they also do not want to abandon the home language Russian. However, most of the parents are against full immersion into the majority language. About 70% of pre-primary students' parents in both countries and about 60% among parents of primary school students put psychological comfort in the first place, almost nobody thinks that bilingualism could be dangerous or that home education in Russian would be enough. About 90% on average prefer communication in two languages in the educational institutions and about 55% in both countries think that Russian is a key to mutual understanding. English is slightly more important in Germany than in Finland. Parents appreciate the Finnish culture a little bit more than the German culture; about 6% think that the Russian culture is not so important at this age. In Finland, more parents of pre-schoolers, and in Germany, more parents of schoolchildren think that Russian language and culture will be needed for the future life success. In France, parents have to organize bilingual education themselves, and here is what they think about it. At the pre-primary level, half of the participants wanted children to use both languages equally; one fifth wanted Russian to dominate, and 17% wanted children to learn three languages simultaneously. On the primary level, 11% opted for French domination, 56% preferred bilingualism, and 23% preferred the balance of the three languages. For the secondary school, parents designed dominance of French in 14% of cases, bilingualism in 44%, and 32% insisted on trilingualism. In professional education, 17% wanted French, 28% wanted French and Russian, 15% wanted English and French, and 35% wanted three languages. Even in the family education, 53% wanted French and Russian, 18% wanted three languages, 17% wanted Russian dominance, and 6% were ready for French dominance. In the leisure time, 51% used two languages, 29% used three languages, 10% used predominantly French, and 6% used almost Russian only. Other numbers were not significant.

All parents in the three countries address their children in Russian, in France more than in Germany, and in Germany more than in Finland. All children have majority-language-speaking friends. Smaller children use overall more Russian; later, they use more majority language.

Overall, it seems to be a critical mass in number of speakers and the time of sojourn in a country after which parents begin to be more interested in preserving the other language of their family. If we compare the situation in Germany to that in Finland, we see that the state does not promote the use of Russian and does not care so much about it, but the scope of the country is that much bigger therefore it is convenient to have some initiatives. The support for Russian depends even more on parents and private initiatives in France. The Russian-speaking population of Finland has a higher education and comes from Russia and Estonia more often than from Kazakhstan, so the language is not so different from the standard and the ties to Russia are closer.

---

The Russian culture is more substantial in France. Heller (2010) and Pavlenko (2012) write about commodification of language. When Russian parents feel that Russian language proficiency might be important for their children, they take more efforts to make them study it.

### **Discussion and conclusion**

Having insufficient experience with the language maintenance in the Soviet Union and estimating from their previous experience that speaking an alternative to the state language could be bad for them, in the 1990s, Russian-speakers were not making enough efforts to teach language to their children. Literacy in the language was usually not transmitted through education, because they were not aware of the opportunities to study it and showed no interest in it. Not all members of the community wanted to read newspapers in Russian, they preferred television; presumably, for most of the families, literacy had no big importance. In their country of origin, children learned Russian as their first language, yet the changing environment in Europe resulted in reduced input and mixed language of their surroundings. The childbearing generation, the young adults, knew the language, but developed the attitudes that led to the maximal use of the language of surroundings in the family. The RL remained a language of intra-generational communication. Only a few wanted to transmit it to children; usually, they said that they 'had nothing against multilingualism and that they respect other language groups' immigrants who speak their own language not in clandestine but overtly. At the same time, they condemned those who didn't learn the dominant language of their environment. The most important thing that we observed with many immigrants was the belief that the language cannot be learned in a class but had to be acquired through real communication. This belief had numerous consequences.

Today, the grandparent generation remains speakers of Russian and bearers of the Soviet traditions. The intergenerational transmission is again interrupted, but there is much more awareness of how to promote the use of Russian and what privileges it brings to be a speaker of Russian and the user of the Russian-language culture in the sphere of emotions, cultural traditions, mood, job, food, festivities, broader life perspectives etc. If the language remains in the family, it can be used, it does not disturb their life but offers new perspectives and adds to competitiveness. Variables in individual heritage speakers' profiles apply to all bilingual situations.

World politics influence the family language policy. Facts about multilingualism and language acquisition must be taught at school. Languages have no universal value; they are ranked in each country according to the particular history of relationships with a respective country and immigration-emigration-repatriation. Parents often cannot monitor what they are doing, yet, the educational policy of the country has an impact upon the family language policy. People commonly highly appreciate the Russian culture; nevertheless, only a few are acquainted with it. Bilingual parents need support in questions of bilingualism, child upbringing and home practices of the language maintenance.

## References

- Advocacy Kit (2007). *Advocacy Kit for Promoting Multilingual Education: Including the Excluded. Overview of the Kit*. Bangkok: UNESCO.
- Andrews, David. R. (2000). Heritage Learners in the Russian Classroom: Where Linguistics Can Help. *ADFL Bulletin* 31.3.
- Angay-Crowder, Tuba, Choi, Jayoung, Yi, Youngjoo (2013). Putting multiliteracies into practice: Digital storytelling for multilingual adolescents in a summer program. *TESL Canada Journal / Revue TESL du Canada*, V. 20, No. 2, 36–45.
- Ball, Jessica (2013). *Mother tongue-based multilingual education: Towards a research agenda*. MTB-MLE Network. Victoria: University of Victoria.
- Bialystok, Ellen, & Werker, Janet F. (2017). The systematic effects of bilingualism on children's development. *Developmental Science*; V. 20, No. 1, e12535.
- Brecht, Richard D, & Ingold, Catherine W. (1998). *Tapping a national resource: Heritage languages in the United States*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Burd, Marina (2011). *Psichologo-pedagogicheskie osnovy vzaimodejstviya detskogo sada i sem'i v processe vospitaniya i obuchenija russkomu jazyku detej-bilingvov doshkol'nogo vozrasta (na primere Germanii)*. Moscow: GIRJ im. A.S. Pushkina.
- Burd, Marina, Moin, Victor, Schwartz, Mila, Lukkari, Valeria & Protassova, Ekaterina (2014). Ustanovki roditel'ej detej, poseshchajushchix dvujazychnye detskie sady i shkoly v Finljandii i Germanii. In: Protassova, Ekaterina (Ed.) *Mnogojazychie i oshibki*. Berlin: Retorika, 11 – 26.
- Crookes, Graham (2010). The practicality and relevance of second language critical pedagogy. *Language Teaching*, V. 43, No. 3, 333 – 348.
- Cummins, Jim. (2007). *Literacy, technology, and diversity: teaching for success in changing times*. Boston: Pearson.
- Curd-Christiansen, Xiao L. (2009). Invisible and visible language planning: Ideological factors in the family language policy of Chinese immigrant families in Quebec. *Language Policy*, V. 8, No. 4, 351 – 375.  
Ethnologue: [www.ethnologue.com/about/language-status](http://www.ethnologue.com/about/language-status)
- Fishman, Joshua A. (1991) *Reversing language shift*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Fishman, Joshua A. (Ed.). (2001). *Can threatened languages be saved? Reversing language shift, revisited*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Garcia, Ofelia & Wei, Li (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education*. Houndmills: Palgrave.
- Grin, François (2003). *Language policy evaluation and the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Grosjean, François (2010). *Bilingual: Life and Reality*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Heller, Monika (2010). The commodification of language. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, V. 39, 101 – 114.
- Hélot, Christine & Ó Laoire, Muiris (Eds.) (2011). *Language Policy for the Multilingual Classroom: Pedagogy of the Possible*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters
- Hua, Zhu & Wei, Li (2016). Transnational experience, aspiration and family language policy. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, V. 37, No. 7, 655 – 666.
- Isurin, Ludmila (2005). Cross linguistic transfer in word order: Evidence from L1 forgetting and L2 acquisition. In J. Cohen & K. McAlista (Eds.), *ISB4: Proceedings of the International Symposium on Bilingualism*, pp. 1115 - 1130. Somerville, MA: Cascadia Press.

- King, Kendall & Fogle, Lyn (2006). Bilingual Parenting as Good Parenting: Parents' Perspectives on Family Language Policy for Additive Bilingualism. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, V. 9, No. 6, 695 – 712.
- King, Lid (2017). *The Impact of Multilingualism on Global Education and Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge English Language Assessment.
- Little, Sabine (2017) Whose heritage? What inheritance? Conceptualizing family language identities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, V. 18, No. 1, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1348463>
- Lo Bianco, Joseph & Peyton, Joy K. (2013). Vitality of heritage languages in the United States. *Heritage Language Journal*, 10, 3. I - viii.
- Macalister, John & Hadi Mirvahedi, Seyed (Eds.) (2017). *Family Language Policies in a Multilingual World: Opportunities, Challenges, and Consequences*. New York: Routledge.
- Meng, Katharina (2001). *Russlanddeutsche Sprachbiographien*. Tübingen: Narr.
- O'Brien, Mia & Blue, Levon (2017). Towards a positive pedagogy: designing pedagogical practices that facilitate positivity within the classroom. *Educational Action Research*, <https://doi.org/10.1080/09650792.2017.1339620>
- Pavlenko, Aneta (2012). Commodification of Russian in post 1991 Europe. In Bär, M., Bonnet, A., Decke-Cornill, H., Grünewald, A. & A. Hu (Eds.) *Globalisierung, Migration, Fremdsprachenunterricht. Dokumentation zum 24. Kongress für Fremdsprachendidaktik der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Fremdsprachenforschung (DGFF)*. Hohengehren: Baltmannsweiler, Schneider, 27–43.
- Pavlenko, Aneta & Driagina, Victoria (2008). *Advancing in Russian through Narration*. Philadelphia: Calper Publications.
- Pereltsvaig, Asya (2008). Aspect in Russian as grammatical rather than lexical notion: Evidence from Heritage Russian. *Russian Linguistics* V. 32, No. 1, 27–42.
- Ping, Wang (2016). Assessment on language rights in educational domain: shift-oriented, maintenance-oriented or something else? *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, V. 19, No. 1, 89 – 107.
- Polinsky, Maria (2008). Gender under incomplete acquisition: Heritage speakers' knowledge of noun categorization. *Heritage Language Journal*, V. 6, No. 1, 40 – 71.
- Polinsky, Maria & Kagan, Olga (2007). Heritage languages: In the “wild” and in the classroom. *Language and Linguistics Compass*, V. 1, No. 5, 368 – 395.
- Protassova, Ekaterina (2010). Multilingual education in Russia. In: Lähteenmäki, Mika; Vanhala-Aniszewski, Marjatta (Eds.) *Language Ideologies in Transition: Multilingualism in Finland and Russia*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, 155–174.
- Protassova, Ekaterina (2007). Sprachkorrosion: Veränderungen des Russischen bei russischsprachigen Erwachsenen und Kindern in Deutschland. In: Meng, K. & Rehbein, J. *Kindliche Kommunikation - einsprachig und mehrsprachig*. Münster: Waxmann, 299–333.
- Sandberg, Annina (2017). *Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education among Linguistic Minorities*. Helsinki: Indira.
- Schwarz, Mila & Verschik, Anna (2013). Achieving success in family language policy: parents, children and educators in interaction. In: Schwarz, Mila; Verschik, Anna (Eds.) *Successful Family Language Policy: Parents, Children and Educators in Interaction*. Dordrecht: Springer, 1–20.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, Tove; Heugh, Kathleen (Eds.) (2013). *Multilingual Education and Sustainable Diversity Work: From Periphery to Center*. New York: Routledge.
- Smith-Christmas, Cassie (2015). *Family Language Policy: Maintaining an Endangered Language in the Home*. Houndmills: Palgrave.

- Solntseva, Olga & Protassova, Ekaterina (2018). Dvujazychnye sem'i i podderzhka russkogo jazyka vo Francii. In: Nikunlassi, Ahti; Protassova, Ekaterina (Eds.) *Mnogojazychie i sem'ja*. Berlin: Retorika, 72 – 93.
- Spolsky, Bernard (2012). Family language policy – the critical domain. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, V. 33, No. 1, 3 – 11.
- Timpe-Laughlin, Veronika (2016). Learning and development of second and foreign language pragmatics as a higher-order language skill: a brief overview of relevant theories. *ETS Research Report Series*.
- UNESCO (2009) UNESCO Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger, UNESCO, [www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?pg=00139](http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?pg=00139)
- Valdés, Guadalupe (2005). Bilingualism, Heritage Language Learners, and SLA Research: Opportunities Lost or seized? *The Modern Language Journal*, V. 89, No. 5, 410–426.
- Viimaranta, Hannes, Protassova, Ekaterina Mustajoki, Arto (2017). Aspects of commodification of Russian in Finland. *Russian Journal of Linguistics*, 21(3), 620 – 634.
- Vygotsky, Lev S. (1962). *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Wyse, Dominic; Hayward, Louise; Pandya, Jessica (Eds.) (2016). *The SAGE Handbook of Curriculum, Pedagogy and Assessment*. London: Sage.

*Rusieshvili Manana, Gabunia Kakha and Petriashvili Izabella*  
*Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Georgia*

## **Multilanguage Strategies in Tertiary Education (Using the example of Georgia)**

### **Abstract**

This paper discusses the issues of multilingual education in Georgia using the example of teaching Georgian as a state language and English as a foreign language to the representatives of ethnic minorities of Azerbaijani and Armenian origin. The data are based on the findings of the project “Elaboration of Multilingual strategies for integration of ethnic minorities into society (using the example of Georgia)” carried out at Tbilisi State University.

Having explored the problems and challenges students of ethnic minorities face in Georgia, the article offers several recommendations.

**Key words:** *Language teaching, Multilingual strategies, integration of ethnic minorities into society.*

### **Introduction**

As is well known, in order to have a good command of a language (whether it is a state, regional, foreign or a minority language), the policy employed must be based on certain principles in accordance with the state policy regarding the issue. Georgia, as a multi-ethnic and multilingual country, faces such a problem and therefore is interested in the integration of ethnic and language minorities into Society.

Since 2006 the provision of multilingual education has been one of the major challenges of the Language Policy in Georgia. Therefore, it can be claimed that the issues regarding multilingual education have already been recognized and the first steps have been made to identify and deal with them. However, it is clear that the issue has not been finally resolved.

Clearly, in non-Georgian schools the methodology of teaching both Georgian as a State Language and English as a foreign language needs to be enhanced and recommendations based on the research have to be implemented in schools as well as at the University level.

At the moment, although it can be stated that the Ministry of Education and Sciences has implemented a number of measures in terms of enhancement of multilingual education in schools, it is also vitally important to elaborate strategies and major directions regarding the tertiary stage of education.

As is known, The European Commission promotes language learning and linguistic diversity across Europe so as to improve basic language skills and due to this, enable citizens to communicate in two languages other than their mother tongue. This "Barcelona objective" was agreed in 2002 by the EU's heads of state and government.

The 2008 Communication "Multilingualism - an asset for Europe and a shared commitment" outlines the Commission's activities in this area.

Against the background of these decisions, the current situation in Georgia is as follows: representatives of national minorities are presented with an opportunity to enroll in Georgian Universities on the basis of the results of the testing in a general ability 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 University of their Choice in Georgia. Consequently, the Georgian language preparation educational program aims at providing the non-Georgian speaking students with communicative skills.

A trial program aiming at facilitating enrollment in Georgian Universities for national minorities (1 + 4) was adopted in 2010. This program 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 arose, the description and analysis of which are crucial for enhancing the Program.

It is worth noting that the situation tends to be difficult regarding two of these issues - teaching Georgian as a state language to the students mentioned above and regarding teaching English as a foreign language. A project "Elaboration of Multilingual strategies for integration of ethnic minorities into society (using the example of Georgia)" was carried out at TSU in 2016 and was 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. (Rusieshvili et al 2016a; Rusieshvili et al, 2016 b) As well as this, the analysis of the data and provision of recommendations embracing the challenges such students face were also provided. The project data were collected based on field research the aim of which 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. As is known, TSU offers students the opportunity to learn Georgian as a state language and one or more international languages (most often, the choice falls on English). However, the scientific foundations of this approach as well as specific issues accompanying this process had not yet been studied. The questions on the questionnaire included questions aimed at revealing not only linguistic but also extra linguistic factors which enhance or hamper the origins of multilingual education in Georgia.

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 the students in English at the moment of their start at the 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.

The participants of the project were 432 students learning Georgian on the original 6 year Program. It is also worth noting that not only students, but also 30 teachers involved in the program participated in the survey. 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.

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 Georgian as well as the English language obtained at a school level and about the possible reasons behind a low level of competences in Georgian.

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

### **Results of the research**

One of the major issues is the low level of State as well as the English languages at the point of enrolment at the University (A1 - A2) and the reasons for this, as pointed out, are low levels of teachers of both the

languages at schools, the lack of effective textbooks, the national academic plan and a resistant language environment in their region, village and town.

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 (and English) As expected, the teachers as well as the students pointed out that there is no social communication between the teachers and students outside of the classroom although both parties were positive about the availability of academic consultations (both individual as well as group) when needed.

On the other hand it was also obvious that Azerbaijani and Armenian students have difficulties integrating with Georgian students and the reason for this is, as indicated, a low level of knowledge of Georgian,

From this point of view, it would be advisable for the universities to plan more events in order to enhance integration of minorities in the Institution.

The research regarding the issue of learning the state and foreign (English) languages revealed the necessity for several important recommendation below:

1. In different universities the preparation programs in the Georgian language are designed differently – there is no common standard. It is necessary that the Ministry of Education determines officially the levels of Georgian language knowledge (according to the Common European Framework for Languages) and standardizes the outcomes for the 1-year preparation programs in the 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 a second language lack the necessary qualifications and experience: most of them are not aware of the newest methods and strategies. Therefore, it is necessary to arrange training sessions 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 non-Georgian speaking students who are citizens of Georgia, but also to foreign students, who study on the Georgian programs.

10. It is important as well that academic support centers 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 at 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 and for 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, Azerbaijani, 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.

## References

- CEFR - Common European Framework of Reference for Language, 2001;
- Gabunia, Odzeli, Tabatadze, 2008 - RECOMMENDATIONS ON LANGUAGE POLICY TO PROTECT LINGUISTIC MINORITIES, Tbilisi, 2008.
- Rusieshvili et al, 2016 a - Manana Rusieshvili, Izabella Petriashvili and Kakha Gabunia, Multilingual Strategies for intergration of ethnic minorities into society (Usinf the example of Georgia), In: International Journal of Multilingual Education, #3, 2016: 60-69.
- Rusieshvili et al, 2016b - Manana Rusieshvili, Izabella Periashvili and Kakha Gabunia, The enhancement of state and foreign language teaching to national minorities in Georgia (using the examples of Azeri and Armenian students),. In: International Journal of Multilingual Education, 9, 2016: 55.
- Tabatadze 2014 - Shalva Tabatadze, Positive Effects of Bilingualism on Cognition and Language Acquisition: International Journal of Multilingual Education, #3, 2014.
- Tabatadze, Gorgadze, 2013 – Sh. Tabatadze, N. gorgadze, EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE QUOTA SYSTEM IN GEORGIA, Tbilisi, 2013.

Saginadze Rusudan

*Akaki Tsereteli Kutaisi State University, Georgia*

## Teaching Verb Person Relation to Non-Georgian Speakers

### Abstract

At the initial stage of language learning, when all the attention is focused on the use of phrases for communication, a particular approach is needed in order to solve one problem: what dosage of theoretical material of grammar is recommended for learners to be provided with? The issue can't be resolved unilaterally without considering various circumstances. It's necessary to take into consideration subjective and objective circumstances. Namely, the category of language learner (level of language knowledge, duration of learning process...) and motivation to learn the language. In all cases we believe that the initial stage should be directed towards strengthening the competence of communication, more specifically, grammatical material should be provided with the dose required for practical communication. This can be reflected by ready-to-use communicational phrases, exercises, schemes...

One of the difficult problems that affect the language teaching process for non-Georgian speakers is the fact of understanding and realizing various forms of the Georgian verb, especially the ones that show person relation, person combinations, etc. and using them in communication. As a result of polypersonalism of the Georgian verb, it's difficult for a non-Georgian speaker who is used to using a completely different system of language to perceive grammatical persons indicated in the Georgian verb, to use them in the form of verbal expressions and to express their thoughts in the right way. For example, the language learner may say: "Tsigni **megobartan** gaugzavnet, tu sheidzleba!" instead of the proposal: "tsigni **megobars** gaugzavnet, tu sheidzleba!" (send the book to a friend). In this sentence the person relation is expressed by the word with **-tan** suffix, which is characteristic to languages having different systems (Turkish, English...).

What method should we use in order to make the beginner language learner better understand verb person relation? We think that the verbs that are related to persons should be selected by means of active forms, necessary for simple communication, such as: **gaketeba (to make)** (vuketeb (I am making it to him/her) – miketebs (He is making it to me)...), **darekva (to call)** (girekav (I'm calling you) – mirekav (you're calling me)...). Furthermore, we can introduce the verbs of expressing hither-thither orientation: **mitsera-motsera** (write to him – write back to me) (vtser – mtsers...) (I write to him – he writes back), **mitsema-motsema** (give it – give it back) (vadzlev – madzlevs...) (I give it to him – he gives it back)... as well as: "speech of circle" **velaparakebi – melaparakeba** (I talk to him – he talks to me), **veubnebi – meubneba** (I say it to him – he says it to me)... with auxiliary verbs **mikvarkhar** (I love you), **vukvarvar** (He loves me)... These verbs should only be provided to the learner at the present time, by means of phrases.

After studying the main tenses of the verb, we can introduce the table of verb person combination of active usage, including three basic tenses. Thus, according to levels of language knowledge in language learning process, we provide learners with verbal and non-verbal means of the scheme of person combinations at first, then – ready-to-use phrases easy to perceive and memorize and later, at the last stage of the study, according to verb groups, we move to a systematic study, which involves studying different types of verbs expressing person relation by means of tables.

**Key words:** *Communication, method, phrases, person, combination*

### Introduction

At the starting level of language learning, when all the attention is focused on the use of phrases for communication, a particular approach is needed to solve one problem: what dosage of theoretical material of grammar is recommended to provide the learners with? The issue couldn't be resolved unilaterally, without considering various circumstances. It's necessary to take into consideration subjective and objective

circumstances. Namely, the category of language learner (level of language knowledge, duration of learning process...) and motivation to learn the language. In all cases we believe that the starting level should be directed towards strengthening the competence of communication, more specifically, grammatical material should be provided with the dose required for practical communication. As pointed out, “the main reason for teaching the second language is to understand, to give the content and to express an opinion, so, knowing lexical grammatical structures of the second language should not be the end in itself, but it should serve the development of communicative skills” (<http://mastsavlebeli.ge/?p=3707>). According to the given approach, during our research, we use the communicative method of learning, which “implies mainly using the system of communicative activities that are by themselves based on grammatical legitimacy” and we depend on the theory and practice of diathesis by D. Meliqishvili. We obviously take into consideration, that interactive principles of learning will make the learners be more active and take part in a communicative system, which involves working in couples and in groups. We think that the aim will be reached by verbal and non-verbal means, which should be reflected by ready-to-use communicational phrases, dialogues, different types of exercises suitable for a specific communicational situation, schemes and tables.

### The Main part

One of the major problems that affects the language teaching process for non-Georgian speakers is that of understanding and realizing various forms of the Georgian verb, especially the ones that show person relation, person combinations, etc. and using them in communication.

According to the polypersonalism of the Georgian verb, some objective persons can be simultaneously related to the subjective person of the verb. A. Shanidze distinguishes possible and impossible combinations of the verb persons, on the basis of which he mentions the number of possible forms. In the given number, the scientist excludes the repeated (similar) forms: “the number of unrepeated forms in one screeve of the verb with two persons (except the imperative) is about 18 (nine – of subjective in the singular and nine – of subjective in the plural), but sometimes there can be more than that: 19, 20, 21 and even 22! It depends on the ability of this or that verb to give unrepeated forms” (Shanidze, 1980: 228). Verb personality doesn’t influence the number of possible persons, it doesn’t matter if the verb takes two persons or three. As A. Shanidze explains, in the verb with three persons “whatever combination we take of these three persons, from the two objectives, one will definitely be the third in the set, this third objective person is usually direct, which has no mark, but even if it had, the person is unchanged and therefore it cannot affect the number of markers – the difference in forms here depends only on the relationship between the subjective and indirect-objective persons and their change in number” (thereby, 229).

A. Shanidze has given all these in his table of combinations, where there is evidence, that it is impossible to combine I person with the I and II person with the second (thereby, 234).

As it is pointed out by D. Meliqishvili “Stative verbs cannot be merged with more than two persons and cannot express them either. Dynamic can take two, three and sometimes four persons as well. But it can express only two of them with personal markers and by the one with vowel prefix – correlation with the third person m-khatav-s is me (he draws me), m-i-khatav-s is me mas (draws he it to me), da-m-i-tchir-a man me (he caught me), da-m-i-tchir-a man me is (he caught it to me)...“ (Meliqishvili, 2014: 129). In his opinion, the main function of vowel prefixes **a, e, i, u** to express the verb person correlation, is an indication of the existence of the objective person in the verb. From **a, e, i, u** vowel prefixes, **i** is considered as retreatment formant by B. Jorbenadze (**tsers – i-tsers, aketebis – i-ketebis...**), **a, e, u** prefixes are called the prefixes pointing to the indirect objective person (Jorbenadze, 1983: 209).

D. Meliqishvili, with the help of the tables, shows us, that in case of **S<sub>1</sub>O<sub>2</sub>** and **S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>1</sub>** combinations there is the objective person marker presented in the verb. But in case of **S<sub>3</sub>O<sub>1</sub>**, **S<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub>** and **S<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub>** combinations, it is the possibility of marking – both persons **L**-subject and **L**-object, because “the marker of **L**-S<sub>3</sub> is a suffix and in all other cases markers are prefixes. At this point, it’s easy to notice that the actant in narrative (agent subject of

active verb) is expressed by v-set marks (**L-S<sub>1</sub> – 3-, L-S<sub>2</sub> – Ø, L-S<sub>3</sub> – -s, -s, -o**); actant in dative **m**-set marks (**O<sub>1</sub> – m-, O<sub>2</sub> – g-, O<sub>3</sub> – h-, s-, Ø**); actant in nominative case is expressed by the mark of both sets“ (Meliqishvili, 102). According to this rule, person combinations will be expressed by markers like the following: **g**-tser me shen (**S<sub>1</sub>O<sub>2</sub>**) (I am writing to you), **m**-tser shen me (**S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>1</sub>**) (you are writing to me), **m**-tser-s is me (he is writing to me); (**S<sub>3</sub>O<sub>1</sub>**), **g**-tser-s is shen (**S<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub>**) (he is writing to you) and **s**-tser-s is mas (he is writing to her) (**S<sub>3</sub>O<sub>3</sub>**).

It's difficult for non-Georgian speakers, having completely different system of language to perceive and understand the number of persons merged with the verb, to express them in a verb form and give a clear opinion. For example a language learner may say: “**gamigzavne** tserili!” (send a letter for me) instead of the proposal “**gamomigzavne** tserili!”(send me a letter) – in this proposal the **ga**-prefix of hither orientation is used instead of **gamo**-prefix of thither orientation. In this case the addressee is the one who asks for sending the letter for him/her. This is the **S<sub>1</sub>** person. The language learner is focused on this person and expresses this relation by the verbal form with **i**-prefix; in other cases the language learner may say: “Tsigni **megobartan** gaugzavnet, tu sheidzleba!” instead of the proposal: “tsigni **megobars** gaugzavnet, tu sheidzleba!” (send the book to a friend). In this sentence the person relation is expressed by the word with **-tan** suffix, which is characteristic to languages having different systems (Turkish, English...).

What method should we use in order to make the beginner language learner better understand the verb person relationship? We think that the verbs that are related to persons should be selected by means of active forms, necessary for simple communication, such as: **gaketeba (to make)** (vuketeb (I am making it to him/her) – miketebs (He is making it to me)...), **darekva (to call)** (girekav (I'm calling you) – mirekav (you're calling me)...). For a better explanation and understanding of these verbs, the constructions with markers can help: **miketebs is me mas (she is making it to me)** (miketebs deda me satchmels) (mother is making dinner to me) = **aketebs is mas chemtvis (she is making it for me)** (aketebs deda chemtvis satchmels) (mother is making dinner for me); **mirekavs is me** (she is calling me) (mirekavs megobari me) (a friend is calling me) = **rekavs is chemtan** (she is calling me) (rekavs megobari chemtan) (a friend is calling me)...

**I** – Verb + prepositional constructions:

**miketebs is me mas (she is making it to me)** miketebs deda me satchmels (mother is making dinner to me)

**mirekavs is me** (she is calling me) mirekavs megobari me (a friend is calling me) = **rekavs is chemtan** (she is calling me) rekavs megobari chemtan (a friend is calling me)...

Futhermore, we can introduce the verbs of expressing hither-thither orientation, as well as: “speech circle” and with auxiliary verbs **mikvarkhar** (I love you), **vukvarvar** (He loves me)... These verbs should only be provided to the learner in the present form, by means of phrases. For example, *me megobars vurekav* (I am calling a friend); *deda koveldghe mirekavs...* (Mum calls every day)... *me mshoblebs tserils vtser* (I write a letter to my parent); *mama internetshi mtsers* (Dad writes to me in the internet)... *mdzghols tankhas vazlev* (I give some money to the driver); *gamkidveli purs madzlevs* (The shop assistant gives me some bread)... *mezobeli koveltvis kartulad melaparakeba* (My neighbour always talks to me in Georgian); *me dzalian mikvarkhart* (I love you very much)... *me mas dzalian vukvarvar* (he loves me very much)...

Therefore, at this stage of language learning, when we are not yet in the grammar field and we try to focus learner's attention on person relations and make him memorize the relevant forms only for communicative purpose, we bring:

**II** – Verbs of various forms and semantics:

**a)** The verbs of expressing hither-thither orientation: **mitsera-motsera** (write to – write from) (vtser – mtsers...) (I write to him – he writes back), **mitsema-motsema** (give it – give it back) (vazlev – madzlevs...) (I give it to him – he gives it back)...

**b)** Verbs of the “speech circle”: **velaparakebi – melaparakeba** (I talk to him – he talks to me), **veubnebi – meubneba** (I say it to him – he says it to me)...

We may distinguish auxiliary verb forms as well: **mikvarkhar** (I love you), **vukvarvar** (he loves me).

At this stage of the language learning process, it's necessary to use every form of teaching in order to make it easy to perceive and understand the verbs expressing person relation. We mean: listening, speaking, writing,

reading. Appropriate material should be included at each level of studying, phrases, verbs ... At first they should listen to the given material, then repeat it, read it, write it and make a dialogue.

**a) Dialogue**, in which the verbs expressing person relations should be used. Then we will take similar dialogues or give them gap-filling exercises in order to use person relation correctly.

**b) Working on the text:** We will choose the text, in which the **relative** verbs will be given. Then they should copy out such kind of verbs.

Thus, at the starting level, the language learner will memorize such kind of verb forms by using verb person combinations several times in reading texts and other type of materials.

At the next (III) level, attention will be paid to the following, which person of the verb is related to which person and show this by means of the table of person combination. We have already mentioned the possibility-impossibility of the verb person combinations by A. Shanidze. We will make a simple table with the help of this one, in which only subject and object persons will be presented:

**Table 1.**

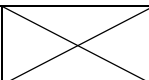
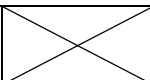
Person		objective					
		I	you	He/she Him/her	we	you	them/they
subjective	Me (I)	X			X		
	Shen (you)		X			X	
	Is (he/she) Mas (Him/her)						
	Chven (we/us)	X			X		
	Tqven (you)		X			X	
	Isini/ mat (they/them)						
<b>Number of ob. person</b>		<b>singular</b>			<b>plural</b>		

**Note:** The cells of impossible combinations are crossed out in the table.

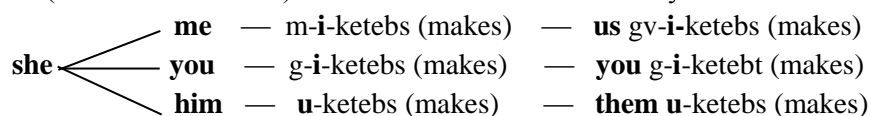
After paying attention to the possibility-impossibility of verb person combinations, we will show another table to the language learner, in which one of the verb person combinations will be given in the form of present tense. Repeated form will be marked by the star.

**Table 2.**

Person		objective					
		I	you	Him/her	us	you	them
subjective	I	X	gtser (write to)	gtser (write to)	X	*gtsert (write to)	*vtser (write to)
	you	mtser (write to)	X	stser (write to)	gvtser (write to)	X	*stser (write to)
	He/she	mtsers (writes to)	gtsers (writes to)	stsers (writes to)	gvtsters (writes to)	*gtsert (writes to)	*ststers (writes to)
	we	X	gtsert (write to)	vtsert (write to)	X	*gtsert (write to)	*vtsert (write to)

	<b>you</b>	mtsert (write to)		stsert (write to)	gvtsert (write to)		*tsert (write to)
	<b>they</b>	mtseren (write to)	gtseren (write to)	stseren (write to)	gvtseren (write to)	*gtseren (write to)	*stseren (write to)
<b>Number of ob. person</b>	<b>singular</b>				<b>plural</b>		

After studying the main forms of the verb we slowly give learners verb combination tables of past and future. At the same time his attention should be paid to the function of the vowel prefix. We take one verb for example: **m-i-keteb**s is me mas (she makes it to me), **g-i-keteb**s is shen mas (she makes it to you), **u-keteb**s is mas mas (she makes it to him)... We will show this material by the scheme:



After working on relevant material, at this stage we may show the verb person combination table of active use to the language learner, in which there will be given only three basic tenses.

### Conclusion

Thus, in the process of language learning, according to the level of knowledge, we give the ready phrases to perceive and memorize, then we give the scheme of person combination by verbal and non-verbal means and later, according to verb groups, we get on more systemic teaching, which means to study various types of verbs expressing person relation by means of tables.

So, when we teach the verb person combinations, a language learner's attention should be focused on the following: a) possibility-impossibility of the verb person, b) correlative markers of the person (person marks and vowel prefixes); c) distinguishing marks of formal expressing of the person. For example, number: **gtser me shen** (I am writing to you) – **gtsert me tqven** (I am writing to you (as many of you))... d) similar forms (coinciding forms): **vtser me mas** (I am writing to him) – **vtser me mat** (I am writing to them); **gtsert me tqven** (I am writing to you) – **gtsert chven shen** (we are writing to you)...

Hereby, the verbal and nonverbal means should be used in the process of learning the verb person relation, which will make it easy for language learner to analyze one of the hardest issues of Georgian language and use it in communication.

### References

Jorbenadze B. (1983). Vowel prefix formation of the verb in Georgian, Tbilisi University Press.  
 Meliqishvili, D. (2014). Systemic morphosyntax analysis of Georgian verb. Tbilisi, Program "Lagos".  
 Shanidze A. (1980). Works, Tbilisi University Press.  
<http://mastsavlebeli.ge/?p=3707>

**Sanikidze Inga**

*Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University, Georgia*

## **The principal methods of teaching the second language and the ways of its practical realization**

**[using the example of the newly created practical guide “The Georgian Language – Law”]**

### **Abstract**

Proper implementation of the state language policy is always a priority of any country. Due to this fact a process of integration within a multilingual society remains an actual problem amongst the current challenges of the Georgian state, the strategic aim is avoiding the phenomena of the so called glottophagical character, which means a pressure of the dominant language, in our case, of the Georgian language onto other languages functioning in the country. Learning the state language to the ethnic minorities is possible to be realized only through the mutual agreement of both parties. In such a case, a free will of various ethnic groups on the one hand and liabilities of the state are considered on the other hand. F. De Saussure notes: “We know the languages mainly in written forms“ (Saussure 2002: 34) and indeed, even in the native language the intermediate link (member) of cognition is mainly the written source which we otherwise call the textbooks. This very basic knowledge starts a practical and active usage of the language which should be realized both in the domestic, household, professional and social-cultural spheres.

Teaching the language itself is not a simple process, consequently, a systematic methodological approach is of fundamental importance. The communicative functioning of the language is performed through separate linguistic symbols: and the latter includes in itself the subsystems of lexical and grammar modeling and the methods of their correct employment. Construction of a language textbook based on the four-componential basis (1. The text [lexis]: 2. Comprehension of the text, 3. Listening, 4. Writing prepares a learner for a motor stage and opens up a wide social environment, This International standard also creates a psychophysiological mood as well – to perceive the second language as an ethno-cultural characteristic of the people speaking it. In the textbook created by us there are envisaged both the general didactical and linguistic methods. The textbook serves the purpose according to which the learner – student will be able to develop a number of skills, including, first of all, the communicative and projecting skills (i.e. the ability to formulate the material).

One of the main goals regarding creating the textbook (The Georgian Language - Law” [the limit level B1+]) was to ease the process of teaching of the Georgian language so that morphologically marked categories were not be left beyond the vision;

That is why while explaining the grammatical forms we took into account the role of the visual memory and allocated specially selected material on special “boards” created on the basis of porcelation. The complex structure of Georgian as a complex agglutinative language is supplied to the learner mainly on the level of communicative grammar. Teaching the Georgian language is given in the context of ESP (Specifically, in the language of law) at the end of not only communicative competence but professional language skills are also improved.

We have also envisaged ethnocultural linguistic aspects, in this case those of the Georgian language ethnic group, and by the end of each teaching chapter considerable space is allotted to frequently used phraseological word combinations. Supplying students with such forms enhances the further process of modeling of the speech act and strengthens its communicative component. This and many other methodologically selected linguistic segments serve as a foundation for the textbook of the Georgian language created by us based on the language as a polyphonic concept. This ESP textbook “The Georgian Language – Law” is a novelty in the

pedagogical space. It creates mainly a linguistic basis and simultaneously shows the ways to the foreigners living in Georgia to their professional activities.

**Key words:** *language teaching, methods, practice.*

Proper implementation of the state language policy is always a priority of any country. Due to this fact a process of integration within a multilingual society remains an actual problem amongst the current challenges of the Georgian state, the strategic aim is to avoid the phenomena of the so called glottophagical character, which means a pressure of the dominant language, in our case, of the Georgian language onto other languages functioning in the country. Teaching the state language to the ethnic minorities is possible to be realized only through the mutual agreement of both parties. In such a case a free will of various ethnic groups on the one hand and liabilities of the state are considered on the other hand. F. De Saussure notes: “We know the languages mainly in written forms“ (Saussure 2002: 34) and indeed, even in the native language the intermediate link (member) of cognition is mainly the written source which we otherwise call the textbooks. This very basic knowledge starts a practical and active usage of the language which should be realized both in the domestic, household, professional and social-cultural spheres.

It can also be argued that the synthesized delivery of the Georgian language and subject specific material from the point of view of teaching has not had a rich experience until the present. The lack of textbooks set up significant obstacles to the proper development of the Georgian state, to its inner communication space and, generally, to its educational system. In order to solve this problem at the state level it was decided to make an unavoidable move and create practical textbooks. Among these is “The Georgian language – Law” [Marginal level B1+]. In the process of work our main goal was to create the linguistic (lingual) basis necessary for the functioning of the professional activities for non-Georgian citizens if s/he aims at starting work in a specific sphere. The above-mentioned course will increase the intellectual-communicative potential, professional motivation and, which is also important, the organic and emotional attitude towards the state language.

Since any type of teaching is a controlled and simultaneously independent process, in the sectoral textbook it is particularly important that the material be delivered correctly, at both linguistic-communicative and professional levels. The well-approved method of construction of the basis of the International four-component method of the target language (1- text [lexis]; 2. Perception of the text, 3. Listening, 4. Writing) did not need any modification. Consequently, the textbook created by us follows a general methodical approach and our position and individualism is revealed in the process of breaking the language material into segments of the Georgian language.

Due to the fact that the target groups of the students are selected mainly from the adult citizens in the intralinguistic space and they should be prepared for the professional education, this textbook was compiled mainly for practical and educational purposes and the third aim -educational was put in the background which is very important for the manuals of other kinds (e.g. general educational).

Now let us speak more specifically about the structure and format of the manual. It consists of eight chapters from which 6 are considered to be main chapters (I, II, III, V, VI, VII) whereas the remaining = two are summarizing (IV and VIII). We consider that it is better to build up our discussion according to those main components which set necessary conditions for mastering communicative or sectoral knowledge which are:

- The main text based on the professional topic and the subject content lexis.
- The topics to be used in the case of situational communication and interactions including the audio records.
- Additional texts – interesting and funny stories, thematic expressions.
- Topics for presentation.
- Topics for writing.
- Linguistic (grammatical and lexical) material, typical of the corresponding level which organically matches the supplied texts and is combined with the above –listed components.

Let us consider each of them separately:

**I.** The main professional (in our case, legal) text which we refer to as a “style” is of a documentary form. We believe that such a methodical approach is correct so as the learner, on the one hand, gets accustomed to working on the specific research text and on the other hand there appears to be a prospect for the pupil to create a professional document (a small text) independently.

Communicative functioning of the language is performed by the so -called lexical units. A different situational context sometimes significantly alters their context or limits their application. As B.Pochkhua writes: “Behind the verbal context there is a real context, objective circumstances, situation. And in the end, this real context determines the capacity of fitting one word to another” (Pochkhua, B. 1974, 251).

Based on this remark of the scholar it is necessary to be careful when dealing with the teaching of the second language. Here the vocabulary should be taught according to the strictly defined order, frequency and topics of the subject matter. Due to this, in the process of working on the textbook the lexical (terminological) groups were selected from texts regarding Jurisprudence and in this process of explanation it was not possible to copy the material directly. For the methodical principle we relied on the means of adaptation (according to the limit level - B1+). As well as this, frequently new, relatively simple, laconic definitions were created by the authors.

**II.** The so called situational texts included in the textbook differ qualitatively from the lexical material of the main texts due to the fact that, according to traditional didactics, the texts developing language and professional skills should be delivered to the learner with some kind of sequence and systematic character. While organizing the material, the situational texts (dialogues) were built on the basis of the specificity of speech acts and differed from the main texts following official documentary style. In the textbook, compiled by us the separate lessons are accompanied by the 2 or 3 situational texts with various instructions, for instance: *[read the dialogue; read out the vocabulary characteristic for the Law, etc.]*.

While teaching the second language a distinguishable place is allotted to the methods referred to as intensive. Amongst them the most important at the lesson is the maximal activation of the listener on the basis of specially created tasks. Such kind of exercises, role-plays, games and audio records activate a hidden psychological mobilization of students and help them activate individual linguistic reserves, knowledge and overcome a communicative barrier. As indicated by M. Feler, saying and understanding is an individual creative process as the system of the language which is used while speaking is social and more or less standard (Feler, M. 1984, 13) and as for employing all possible means at the lesson by the teacher (as one of the methods of intensive teaching), was not reflected fully in the textbook and it depends on the intellectual level, creative capacity and abilities of the teacher; though it does not mean that the compiler of the textbook must not rely on the main frame which the teaching should follow.

**III.** The so called additional texts which are determined thematically and consist of interesting or funny, entertaining stories and expressions also deserve our attention. This component is of a cognitive character and, besides mastering of the language, it raises the interest to a particular professional text, makes the process of teaching entertaining and enriches the intellectual basis of the student. In the textbook well-known expressions of Georgian and foreign thinkers are used (Ilya Chavchavadze, Vaja Pshavela, Thomas Hobs, Benjamin Franklin, and others). In order to facilitate their understanding we included questions.

**IV.** In the textbook a presentation topic is specially introduced as one of the significant teaching segments for each subchapter. This component is not usually included into the International editions of ESP books written according to the recommendations of the European Union (Evan, V. 2011). However, we believe that presenting is an additional means of strengthening the skills of professional communication of the learner of the language. For instance, it is suffice to bring one example in order to illustrate how presenting on the problematic topic or situation can enhance the civic or professional dialogues: *Does the state of being drunk justify the committed crime? Or should all the citizens of Georgia know the Constitution of the country? Under*

the supervision of the teacher the learner of the language is given the opportunity to refine the already learned lexical material, correct the language errors and get ready for fulfilling the written homework.

V. The written homework makes it easier for the student to transpose into the written format all the skills of argumentation and communicating the attitudes obtained during the oral presentation. It also strengthens the knowledge received on the topic of the lesson and gives him/her a possibility to reveal independent abilities.

We will attract your attention to the ways and methods of delivering linguistic (grammatical and lexical) material determined by the level of the language competence. We'll start by stating that in a pedagogical practice visual aids have a universally acknowledged reputation of a reliable means. The Chekh scientist, founder of pedagogics, Ian Amos Komenski referred to it as the Golden rule of didactics (Komenski, I. 1957).

With the help of this method the process of teaching the language becomes effective especially when dealing with the fact of delivering grammar material on the communicative level. In this particular case linguistic definitions, normalized rules are not employed, however, the most significant value is attached to the principle of "parcelation" and showing the fact of application of this or that linguistic form on the communicative level, i.e. the example. While writing the textbook we relied on several kinds of visualization. These are: 1. Sketches, photos; 2. Graphical tables, schemes; 3. Verbal boards on which verbal facts taken as a sample are allocated or phenomena connected with the topic in question delivered to the students in a narrow context (sometimes as a sentence).

From the named visual aids, sketches and photos usually precede the main text and create a favourable psychological disposition (Uznadze, 1994). In addition, the questions which accompany the visual aids, reveal the so called "gnostic capacity", and the latter implies the analysis of the specific topic and as well as in other instances presents the opportunity of activation of individual abilities.

The construction of graphical tables and schemes on which the grammar material of the Georgian language was to be presented was of great importance as the agglutinative nature of this language made the task difficult. In this case the only solution was the use of a systematic, methodological approach and stipulation of the linguistic tradition already tested in other textbooks of the Georgian language. Therefore, we tried to observe the arrangement of the linguistic data or grammatical facts (for instance, noun-verb-syntactic structure). However, direct use of the discussed linguistic material would overload the texts with special terms and difficult grammar definitions. Therefore, grammatical facts were arranged as organically connected with texts. In other words, a corresponding coordination system was created between a specific text and a grammar board. In many cases invariants of the form were also presented. We believe that boards were created based on our approach to the problem, for instance, when working on the problem of prepositions, the so called "parenthe of structure).

It should also be noted that in Georgian linguistic literature there are no definitions, which would teach a Georgian student, or a non-Georgian learner, the use of the parenthesis. From this point of view this segment of the text book is innovative and interesting from the point of view of the teaching of communicative language.

The morphological markers of the Georgian language grammar presented both in the revision and in newly presented material were marked as red segments, based on general principles of parcelation and psychovisual concepts to attract the students' attention to them. The Appendix at the end of the textbook includes paradigmatic tables of the verbs and there were supplemented paradigmatic tables as well to be learned.

The verbal boards with sentences from texts or contexts are interesting as a means for activation of the passive material presented in the text.

Based on purposefulness of the comprehension of the read material a distinguished place is allotted not only to lexical definitions, but to processing of the lexical material of the text based on synonymic and antonymic vectors. Such linguistic operations make it easy to understand the read text and widen the scale of the linguistic knowledge. For this purpose pairs of synonyms and antonyms were placed on visual boards, after the main text in the subchapter of each chapter; However, in those cases when the semantic content of

synonymic pairs were defined by the context, we tried to differentiate them on the basis of specific examples, to make the communicative component stronger.

It should be indicated that we aimed at teaching phraseology and therefore, at the end of each chapter about 4 examples incorporated into the textual material, were arranged on special boards. There is no doubt that in this material ethno-cultural, in this case, psycholinguistic aspects of the Georgian ethnic group. Mastering of them increases the learner's competences and facilitates the degree of communication.

It is interesting to note the assignment given to the pupils-students in the accompanying workbook (it consists of 114 pages). This is one of the most important innovation. Each chapter of the workbook is accompanied by a small literary-situational text with the, instruction: "Read the text and fill in the blanks with the expressions". As one of the strategies of learning a specific language is getting acquainted with ethnic cultures. We tried to emphasize the Georgian character, situational issues or a moral image of the Georgian society.

Thus, practical determination of teaching of the language and the orientation on the result served as the basis for the necessary components of the text-book to build on. A proper design of the textbook determined the main direction, structure and the content of a book and a workbook. This ability implies presenting the material, giving homework and presents the possibility of individual development to review and generalize the gained knowledge.

This and other many methodologically calculated components serve as the basis of the 1 text book of the Georgian language which presents a number of characteristics of a language as a polyfunctional concept.

*Note:* The text-book "The Georgian language – Law" consists of 150 pages and is ready to be printed. The authors are D. Gotsiridze, I. Sanikidze, T. Sharabidze, G. Ugulava, and T. Tskhadaia. The book will be published by the Publishing House "Samshoblo"

## References

- De Sossior, 2002 - de Sossior, F. (2002) *Course of General Linguistics*, Tbilisi. Publishing House "Diogene" (in Georgian).
- Evans, 2011 - Evans, V., Dooley, J. & Smith, D.J. (2011) *Law (Career Paths)*, Made in EU, Express Publishing.
- Feler, 1984 - Feller M.D. (1984) *"The Style and Sign"*, Lvov, Ed. "Visha Shkola" (in Russian)
- Kegl, 1962. - Kegl, *The Explanatory Dictionary of the Georgian language* (1962). Under general edition of Arn. Chikobava. V.7. Tbilisi Publishing House of the The Academy of Sciences of the Georgia SSR (in Georgian).
- Komenski, 1957 - Komenski, Y. A. (1957) *"The World of sensitive things in pictures"*, Editor: A.A.Krasnovsei, M., "Uchpedgiz" (in Russian).
- Pochkhua, 1974 - Pochkhua, B. (1974), *The Lexicology of the Georgian language*. TSU Publishing house (in Georgian).
- Uznadze, 2004 - Uznadze, D. (2004) *Relativity Psychology*, Tbilisi Publishing House "Color" (in Georgian).

**Shavtvaladze Nana**

*University of Georgia, Georgia*

## **The Art of Persuasion in a Multicultural world**

### **Abstract**

Together with grammar and vocabulary, there are many other points that determine Georgian mentality and perception, while teaching Georgian as a foreign language. Language is a representative of the nation and national self-awareness. It is unimaginably hard to differentiate the language, determine the actions and criticize when you are an active and essential part of the same world. It is the same as the air that you breathe but do not feel how polluted it is. Our actions and answers are automatic. That is why each person represents his/her cultural mentality and language reveals it.

The world changes and the process of globalization influences the nations and every representative of the culture. A human being is the face of his/her country and the forms of the language used there. People might migrate to different countries and gain a new lifestyle, this process even more interestingly displays the merging process of the old and new cultures and its possible result. The desire for unity appears when the process of globalization and bordering starts. People's approaches to the living rules match, when it comes to the emulating and bringing something into the fashion according to the society classes. So, the values are the same, but the cultural views differ.

Every nation has a different cultural approach. The reflection of the uniqueness and characteristics of the nation is exactly in this. If we don't have a word and we find it in the process of translation, this means that our ancestors didn't need it, didn't create it as it wasn't necessary for them. The Georgian language is always open to development; it accepts the innovations and generation challenges. It's true that the calques and barbarisms are an accompanying process, but every novelty has its name and the language accepts it or revives it properly to the language.

Generation approaches are taken into consideration when it's about creating the map of cultural mentality. Each period of twenty years influences the nation's development, it's views and approaches. Changes are inevitable processes, traditions are transformed, novelties and emulating are being settled, especially for the representatives of new generation. The mental struggles and battles between the fathers and children continue. Older generations were more distant, shy and respectful to the elders; they even used other lingual capacities. Modern generations prefer to use polylogic forms. Besides this, this is a skillful generation and we have a hope for them to save and develop the language: "Motherland prefers to have a better child than his/her father".

The difference between the old and new generational approaches is obvious, especially in terms of convincing and leadership. Modern people are more convinced about their future. They start fighting for their goals from their early years, their self-consciousness is high and almost every second young person considers himself/herself as a leader.

The biggest determining factor of the mentality is different for every nation. Geopolitical state also decides the mentality, but the primary qualitative function is multiple. Emotion is the steady basis for Georgian mentality. Emotion is the one that makes Georgian self-consciousness special and marvelous. Emotion is a featuring thing for every Georgian generation. The conception of youth about the convincing and leadership, also, the process of managing the cultural map was very interesting for us. That was why we offered the following survey:

Here are the methods that were used during the survey:

- Research Method - Quantitative research
- Research Technology - Submitted, group questioning
- Target segment – Students
- Sample form - Convenient selection
- Sample size - 100 students – 1st and 2nd courses

According to the SPSS, the data were input.

1. Question: First of all in order to convince another person do you consider your principles or do you use these guidelines?

People in their early twenties consider principles as primary: 81% principles as main; 19% - based on the instructions.

2. Question: Which type of leader do you prefer: equal or the one following hierarchical principles?

Opinions are divided into two parts when it came to the subject of leadership and managing: 50% equal, 50% hierarchic.

The creation of the Georgian cultural map has a long route to cover. It is a new stage after several attempts. It is obvious that principles are important and a little bit instructed for Georgians, we might make decisions based on the recommendations. Unfortunately, leadership wasn't obviously shaped, the percentage was divided into two equal parts, some prefer equality, some prefer hierarchy. Lingual aspects that are used for processing the perception of this function are utterly interesting.

**Key words:** *grammar and vocabulary, cultural approach, multiculturalism.*

Language is representative of the nation and national self-awareness and, due to this fact, it clarifies the attitudes towards every point. It's unimaginably hard to differentiate the language, determine the actions and criticize when you're an active and essential part of the same world. It's the same as air, you breathe but don't feel how polluted it is. Our actions and answers are automatic. That's why each person represents his/her cultural mentality and language reveals it.

World changes and the process of globalization influence the nations and every representative of the culture. A human being is the face of his/her country and the forms of the language used there. Of course people might migrate to different countries and gain a new lifestyle, this process even more interestingly displays the merging process of the old and new cultures and its possible result. The desire for unity appears when the process of globalization and bordering starts. People's approaches to the living rules match, when it comes to the emulating and bringing something into the fashion according to the society classes. So, the values are the same, but the cultural views differ.

Every nation has a different cultural approach. The reflection of the uniqueness and characteristics of the nation is exactly in this. If we don't have a word and we find it in the process of translation, this means that our ancestors didn't need it, didn't create it as it wasn't necessary for them.

Such is the word – “maintain”, which is actively used in English language. The direct translation of this word in Georgian has the meaning of “shenarchuneba”, but it doesn’t express the same meaning it comprises in English according to the context. When translating the word “maintain” in Georgian, we can use it in terms of to fix/to repair, to renovate, to renew, to preserve, etc. Culturally we don’t rebuild our houses every year, we don’t repaint the rooms every spring, etc. We don’t have the exact translation of this word, as we don’t use these activities in the same context. Example given, exactly describes our situation: ‘The home maintenance schedule template details quarterly, seasonal tasks to keep your house in good working order.’ According to this situation, we can barely use the expression “to maintain the house”, we’d rather say – to rebuild the house, to repair it, to renovate it. The same can be said about the word “moderate”, which is translated as “zomiereba (keeping with the bounds)”. As we are the maximizing nation, it’s hard for us to keep the balance and gold limits. This is why we rarely use or don’t use this word with its meaning at all. ‘a person who has *moderate* opinions or is a member of a *moderate* political group’. Even in this situation it’s unacceptable for us to express our opinions with phrases like: “moderate opinions” or “moderate political group”. We represent the essence in a different way, but it’s undeniable that the definition of the word “moderate” doesn’t go as far. We can say “s/he had her/his moderality food”, “S/he gave me a moderality reprimand” etc. but we don’t say “moderate opinions”. Probably, we might say s/he defined, designated his/her opinions smoothly or we might give it another interpretation. When studying a foreign language, foreigners pay attention to the inner structure of the language, its development, influences and thoroughly perceive the development of word-building. This proves the character expression, cultural approaches and the characteristics of the nation.

According to our experience and insight, cluster working is very successful for the lexis. Using this approach, you pay attention to the roots and opportunities of production. Determining the root, you highlight the learner’s mind and make it closer to Georgian consciousness and the cultural form of the country. For example, the word “Ga-marj-oba!” we split this word in parts and explain the meanings of each segment. Ga- this is a preverb, which determines the direction from narrator to the listener; Root – marj; -oba – producer of the abstract word. We explain the meaning of the root “marj”; what does the word “marjve” mean for the Georgian people; We get “marjvena (right)”, which is thoroughly important for the Orthodox nation “right hand; an angel standing on the right, etc.”. This is the very word out of which we get “gamarjveba (victory)”, the Georgian people have always been seeking for. This is why, when Georgians meet the greet each other and wish each other to be adroit, have a day beautified by the angel and victory. “Gamarjoba/gamarjobat”. The form “gamarjobat” was unacceptable, it used to be taught to omit – t from the end. This is a copung word, which has the marker of verb production, ga – preverb; why shouldn’t it have “t”, as “t” is considered as the polite form marker and the plural form marker, while “oba” is a suffix for abstract producer.

The word “damelodet (wait for me)” is very interesting and describes Georgians’ inner nature. Just like everyone, from different nations, we also, especially we Georgians hate waiting. It’s hard and unacceptable for us, for such active, emotional people. You can clearly see this in our round and non-rectilinear queues, while driving cars and so on. We claim that this is an un-pleasant process for everyone, but it’s an unimaginable process for the emotional Georgian. This is why, when it comes to the definition of the word “da-m-elod-e” it becomes clear, that da- is the preverb, which doesn’t describe the direction, but it describes the intensity, movement, anxiety. The root “lod” – is a rock (Lodi), which is the biggest stone. When defining this process, old Georgian linked his/her emotions of the period of waiting to holding a heavy rock. , which means that waiting is as hard as holding the heavy rock for his/her consciousness and exactly knows that he won’t be able to wait for long, just like he won’t be able to hold this stone for long. Having explained this to the foreigner, it becomes clear for him/her why we can’t calmly stand in the queues and wait.

There might be many questions about the you – singular/ informal and you – plural/ formal. Older generation prefers to keep the polite, you (plural/formal) form; in spite of this fact they can easily turn to you – singular/ informal form, when it comes to the conversation with the newly met person. This describes that this

person is ready for sharing “goba” (Megobroba - Friendship). This is considered as a cultural activity, as the respect is always shown to the older generation and to the guest by the Georgians and this is why s/he chooses to use you (singular/informal form), as the sign of friendship and support. Younger generations always use you singular/informal when talking between each other. When it comes to the official work, where subordination should be highlighted, you plural/ formal is used.

It's worth paying attention when referring to each other we might use different expressions, these expressions might be considered as quarrels or negative actions. But these are just emotional references to each other, which is full of kindness, joy and positive forms. As for me, when the surroundings are warm, people are also full of love and extra emotions, but we need to say that we can't share this, just like it was about the queues and driving the cars.

We need to highlight the form of negation which is always at the center of attention among the foreigners. Double negation is natural part of Georgian language. In order for the saying to be correct, we define it and sometimes we not only define but add negative particles as well, pronouns or adverbs. For example : -no, no, i'm not coming, - no, no I don't want to come; yes-yes, for sure; no, no I can't come; don't - don't say that; - no one, no one dare calling about you; no one loves me; - I won't go “nowhere”; - I couldn't find the medicine “nowhere”; don't go “nowhere”.

We always choose systematic attitude, so the form of derivation is defined. According to the principle of agglutination, every function has its marker. Such an organized system helps the student to easily perceive complex constructions. For example, possession can be expressed with the possessive case together with the demonstrative pronouns.

Word building is a way of development a language. Here as well, the systematic attitude leads the inner structure of the language, together with a lot of prefixes, suffixes, we can create new words and after activating them you can meet them with changes. For example: tovli (snow) – tovlani (snowy - tovs (it's snowing); khati (icon) –mkhatvari (artist) – sakhati – nakhati (painting) – samkhatvro ( adj. drawing) – mkhatvruli (fiction - dakhatuli (painted - dasakhati (ready to be painted) – khatavs (is drawing) – mkhatavs (is drawing me). Language code describes the characteristics of the people.

The Georgian language is always open to development; it accepts the innovations and generation challenges. It's true that the calques and barbarisms are accompanying process, but every novelty has its name and the language accepts it or revives it properly to the language. The language can accept every challenge or not, it might deny or make it its own. We have a lot of examples of such cases. First meeting, when the student leaves the lessons with almost 40 new words, his condition becomes impressive, makes his motivation bigger and makes him enjoy studying. With a high sense of joy he continues studying a new, hard language. These are those international words that are used in many languages, including Georgian. For example: words with vowel endings are easily adapted: opera, visa, metro... Consonant ending words get -I at the end: proeqti (project); pasporti, banki...

Generation approaches are taken into consideration when it's about creating the map of cultural mentality. Each period of twenty years influences the national development, it's views and approaches. Changes are inevitable processes, traditions are transformed, novelties and emulations are being settled, especially for the representatives of a new generation. The mental struggles and battles between the fathers and children continue. Old generations were more distant, shy and respectful to the elders; they even used other linguistic capacities. Modern generations prefer to use polylogic forms. Besides this, this is a skillful generation and we have a hope for them to save and develop the language: “Motherland prefers to have a better child than his/her father”.

The difference between the old and new generational approaches is obvious, especially in terms of conviction and leadership. Moderns are more convinced about their future. They start fighting for their goals from early years, their self-consciousness is high and almost every second young person considers himself/herself as a leader.

The biggest determining factor of the mentality is different for every nation. The geopolitical state also decides the mentality, but the primary qualitative function is multiple. Emotion is the steady basis for Georgian mentality. Emotion is the one that makes Georgian self-consciousness special and marvelous. Emotion is a featuring thing for every Georgian generation.

According to psycholinguistic analysis, there are 8 forms that defines the main attitudes of the nation or people. These characteristics are important for the relationships, especially for the new ones. Erin Meyer, American researcher, states her opinion about this. She creates the books that describes her experience gained through travelling and sharing cultural attitudes with different nations, she states her perceptions and the evaluation scheme. Her research is truly impressive. If the foreigner knows the cultural map of the new country and has the information with the help of the schemes, it will make easier his arrival in a new country. So, he will have the information about this or that country and be psychologically ready to arrive in a new country. When discussing and analyzing, Erin Meyer has these cases: relationship, evaluation, decision, trust, denial, planning, persuasion and leading; Each of this is activated and defined with different nations of different cultures. Here they are:

Relationship – the quality of the relationship with each other and with foreign guests; how can it be valued? with high or low context.

Evaluation – How do we, Georgians, value things, events, actions, people? do we try not to express our opinions? is it direct or indirect evaluation from us.

Decision – how do we make decisions. is it hard or easy? is it discussed and agreed, or ordered from above?

Trust – what is trust in general, especially in business. We trust people that we know well, according to the tasks fulfilled or according to relationship. Trust can be expressed according to provement.

Denial – How confrontational or non-confrontational are our attitudes. Are we ready to go against or accept everything as it is.

Planning – what is our lifestyle, planned or based on the situations. Do we prefer scheduled time, or do we prefer flexibility?

According to the researches done previously, fifty youngers were surveyed (18-21 > age). According to SPS, data is listed like this: low – 0-20%; lower than medium 21-40%; medium 41-60%; high then medium 61-80%; high 81-100%. The perception of the young generation isn't enough to understand the whole nation, but will help you to understand their attitudes. This generation meets the future with more motivation and loud announcements. Here it is:

1. Relationship – 41%, high context; 9% low context.
2. Evaluation – 19% direct negations; 31% indirect
3. Decision 26% - ordered from above; 24% discussed and agreed.
4. Trust – 40% according to the relationships; 10% according to the tasks.
5. Denial – 36%- confrontatioanl; 14 non-confronational.
6. Planning – 31% flexibility; 19% scheduled time.

What about the persuasion and leadership, they underwent separate research.

Persuasion – what is more preferable for us, our own principles or do we obey the announcements and directions calmly.

Leadership – Are we teamworkers or do we prefer the hierarchic format.

The conception of youth about the convincing and leadership, also, the process of managing the cultural map was very interesting for us. That was why we offered the following survey:

Here are the methods that were used during the survey:

- Research Method - Quantitative research

- Research Technology - Submitted, group questioning
- Target segment – Students
- Sample form - Convenient selection
- Sample size - 100 students – 1st and 2nd courses

According to the SPSS, the data were input.

1. Question: First of all, to convince one another do you consider your principles or do you use these guidelines?  
People in their early twenties consider principles as primary: 81% principles as main; 19% - based on the instructions.
2. Question: Which type of leader do you prefer: an equal or the one following hierarchical principles?  
Opinions are divided into two parts when it came to the subject of leadership and managing: 50% equal, 50% hierarchic.

The creation of the Georgian cultural map has a long road to cover. It's at a new stage after several attempts. It's obvious that principles are important and a little bit instructed for Georgians, we might make decisions based on the recommendations. Unfortunately, leadership wasn't obviously shaped, the percentage was divided into two equal parts, some prefer equality, some prefer hierarchy. Lingual aspects that are used for processing the perception of this function are utterly interesting.

It's preferable to use the appropriate lexic when stating the subject and the characteristics of its cultural map. Active words, phrases, idioms, the ones that enrich and beautify our language.

## References

- Andreeva, 2009 - Андреева Г. М., (2009). *Социальная психология*, Москва, Аспект пресс.
- Meyer, 2015 - Meyer, E., (2015). *The Culture Map*. Unatides State, PublicAffairs.
- Shavtvaladze, 2014 - Shavtvaladze, N. (2014). *Serya Biliki*, Book I, Tbilisi, Forma
- Shavtvaladze, 2015 - Shavtvaladze, N. (2015). *Serya Biliki*, Book II, Tbilisi, Forma
- Shavtvaladze, 2016 - Shavtvaladze, N. (2016). *Serya Biliki*, Book III, Tbilisi, Forma

**Tabatadze Shalva**  
*CCIIR, Georgia*

## **The problems and Challenges of Mother Tongue Education in Abkhazia**

### **Abstract**

This research aims to describe and analyze the existing situation of mother tongue education in de facto republic of Abkhazia. Content and statistical data analyses research methods were utilized in the study. The content and statistical data analysis showed that mother tongue education is not guaranteed in Abkhazia for Abkhazians, Georgians and Armenians due to political, educational and economic factors. Author will argue that it will be difficult to depoliticize the educational system and control economic factors for launching mother tongue multilingual educational reform in Abkhazia; however, international organization focused on education and development together with Georgian and Abkhazian groups can implement several important pilot programs of multilingual education based on internationally acknowledged best practices.

**Key words:** *mother tongue education in Abkhazia, multilingual education.*

### **Introduction**

Georgia is located on the east coast of the Black Sea at the crossroads of Western Asia and Eastern Europe, and borders Armenia, Azerbaijan, Russia, and Turkey. Georgia has a population of approximately 3,700,000 and is a multiethnic country, in which ethnic minorities constitute 13.2 percent of the total population (Tabatadze and Gorgadze, 2017a; Tabatadze and Gorgadze 2017b; Gabunia, 2014; Tabatadze and Gorgadze, 2018; Tabatadze 2015a; Tabatadze, 2015 b). The two largest ethnic groups, the Armenians and Azerbaijanis, reside in two regions of Georgia, and together constitute 10.8 percent of the total population (Tabatadze, 2017). There are two regions in Georgia, Tskhinvali and Abkhazia, which have not been under the control of the Georgian government since the conflict in 1990th.

There are four regions compactly settled with representatives of minorities in Georgia: Abkhazia, Tskhinvali Region, Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe-Javakheti and Tsalka district of Kvemo Kartli. Georgia gained independence in 1991 after the collapse of Soviet Union and two ethnic conflicts started in Georgia in Abkhazia and in Tskhinvali region. The language issue was one of the important causes for starting ethnic tensions and some experts refer these conflicts as “the war of languages” (Svanidze, 2002; Tabatadze, Gabunia, Odzeli, 2008).

Language education in conflicted societies is one of an important topic of discussions. Researchers try to answer the question what is the role of education in bridging and integrating divided societies (Zymbalas and Bekerman, 2013). There are several important practices of school and education management in conflict regions. Some of them are positively evaluated, some of them have contested assessments and there are practices with negative evaluations by international and scientific communities.

### **Language Education in Conflict Affected Regions: International Experience**

Integrated schools and integrated education are one of the widely spread policies in conflicted regions (Zymbalas and Bekerman, 2013). This sub-chapter of the article will introduce international experience of educational practices in conflict affected societies. The experience of Northern Ireland, Israel, Cyprus, Macedonia and Transnistria in Moldova will be discussed.

### *Integrated Bilingual Schools in Israel*

The conflict between Jewish majority and Muslim Palestinian minority is still persisting in Israel. (Bekerman, Zymbalas McGlynn, 2009). The existing conflict is reflected in educational system of Israel, which is divided in two separated systems: Jewish and Arab educational systems. These separated systems were challenged by some innovative approaches and programs. Mostly, integrated bilingual educational programs were implemented in Israel. The first integrated school was created in 1984 in Neveh Shalom. This was first attempt, which was further extended in 1998. Two integrated schools were established in Jerusalem and in Galilee. These initiatives were proceeded by establishment of other integrated bilingual schools and preschools in Israel (Deeb and Kinani, 2013). Curriculum is the same in these schools; however both Hebrew and Arabic languages are used as a languages of instruction in these schools (Bekerman at al, 2009). Schools have two principals, one Jewish and one Arab and subjects are taught by two teachers with one Palestinian and one Jewish in each teacher position (Bekerman at al, 2009).

The Arabic and Jewish were taught by students together in the beginning of the programs. Later, it was decided to separate Jewish and Palestinian students. Arabs taught Arabic as a native language and Jewish as a second language and vice versa (Deeb and Kinani, 2013).

Integrated education in Israel became a reality and tool for reconciliation between Jewish and Arab community. Israel experience shows that bilingual education should be institutionalized led by multicultural education ideology for sustainable results of the program (Deeb and Kanani, 2013). The approach is positively evaluated by different studies:

Integrated bilingual education in Israel remains revolutionary, incomprehensible within mainstream educational trajectories modeled on two, fully segregated systems—one for Jews and one for Arabs. Attempting to integrate different ethnicities, religions, and languages is not a simple endeavor. Attempting to bring together and equalize majority and minority groups in conflict is an even more challenging endeavor. Daring to propose change—to defy the status quo—is, in and of itself, a remarkable first step (p.169, Salman, 2013)

however, the challenges and constraints are also identified. Salman (2013) underlines, that “integrated bilingual school contains sociolinguistic factors that complicate and hinder proficiency in both languages. These include language status, usage, and power “ (p.162). Balanced Arabic-Hebrew bilingualism was not achieved Palestinian-Israeli students quickly demonstrate fluency in Hebrew but Jewish-Israeli children did not able to get high level skills in Arabic language (Salman, 2013) Accordingly , the implementation of more “sustainable educational model“ is needed to achieve more sufficient results through integrated bilingual education in Israel (Salman, 2013, p.169).

### *Integrated Schools in Macedonia*

The Republic of Macedonia is a multicultural and multiethnic state. According to Population Census of 2002, majority of population are Macedonians. Macedonians are 64.18 percent of the total population. 25.17 percent of the population is Albanians. Turkish, Roma, Serbian, Bosnians, Vlach and other ethnicities are also resided in the Republic of Macedonia (Krstevska-Papic and Zekolli, 2013.). Conflicts between Macedonians and Albanians took place in Macedonia. In 2001 Albanian National Liberation Army clashed with Macedonian security forces. International community intervened in the conflict and Ohrid Framework Agreement was signed (Milcev, 2013). The segregation of education was a clear marker of educational system of Macedonia after 2001. It was decided to have unified National Curriculum with Macedonian and Albanian language of instructions (Krstevska-Papic and Zekolli, 2013).

Two important educational programs were implemented to overcome the segregated educational system in Macedonia: Mozaik project in preschools and integrated education in general education system of Macedonia. The integrated primary and secondary education program was initiated and implemented by nongovernmental organization The Nansen Dialogue Centre (NDC) Skopje in the village Preljubiste (Krstevska-Papic and

Zekolli, 2013). The Nansen Model of Integrated and Bilingual Education has non-mandatory nature. Mandatory subjects are taught in mother-tongue of the students; however the extracurricular activities for integrated and bilingual education have informal character and are realized by two teachers from different ethnic background. After the regular classes students with different ethnic background, stay at school and have the joint activities from the program for integrated and bilingual education. The activities are conducted 3-5 times a week with 40 minutes duration (NDC, 2017). Nansen Model of Integrated and Bilingual Education is well evaluated as a good practice of education, which has the quality of education and positive effects on students, teachers and schools in general. (NDC, 2017; Krstevska-Papic and Zekolli, 2013).

The second important educational practice in Macedonia was Mozaik project launched in 1998. The Search For Common Ground Foundation in Macedonia was initiator and implementer of the project (Tankersley, 2001). Mozaik project was bilingual and multicultural educational approach aiming at bridging the ethnic, cultural, and linguistic segregation in public kindergartens in Macedonia (Milcev, 2013). This preschool model was an important tool for development bilingualism at preschool level as well as for development of intercultural sensitivity in kids. Mozaik project became state policy soon and was incorporated in the National Program for Preschool Education in Macedonia (Milcev, 2013).

### *Integrated Schools in Cyprus*

Cyprus became independent in 1960. The independence was gained after a Greek Cypriot struggle against British colonists; however, independence was not aim of anticolonial movement. They aimed to be unified with Greece (Bekerman, Zymbalas McGlynn, 2009). On the other hand, Turkish Cypriots, the largest minority in Cyprus aimed at taksim, ethnic partition. These different aims of majority and minority groups were transformed into conflict in the island in the 1960s and 1974. Since 1974 the Green Line emerged and two communities are divided. The island was divided South Cyprus with Greek population and North Cyprus with Turkish population (Bekerman, Zymbalas McGlynn, 2009). "Educational practices of both Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots (who are educated in segregated school systems) have been systematically used to create negative stereotypes about each other. (Zymbalas, Bekerman, Haj-Yahia, M. M., & Schaade, 2010 p.564).

It is important to underline, that the educational systems in Cyprus are strictly segregated. Children in Cyprus are educated separately; Greek Cypriots attend schools in the south, and Turkish Cypriots in the north. However, from 2003, in the south integrated and multicultural schools emerged as private and public schools. These schools together with Greek Cypriots enrolled Turkish Cypriots and migrant students (Bekerman, Zymbalas McGlynn, 2009; Zymbalas, 2010; Zymbalas, Bekerman, Haj-Yahia, M. M., & Schaade, 2010). Even though, these schools implement reconciliation educational practices, this is not an official educational policy in Cyprus (Zymbalas, Bekerman, Haj-Yahia, M. M., & Schaade, 2010).

The situation is more critical in Northern Cyprus. Greek population is refused to get mother tongue education in Northern Cyprus by Turkish authorities (Public Defenders Office of Georgia, 2015). European Court on Human Rights had a case of Cyprus vs. Turkey, application no 25781/94). The court underlined that Turkey violated educational rights of Greek Cypriots to get education in their native language (European Court of Human Rights, 2014). The case of Greek Cypriots in Northern Cyprus in an important case for mother tongue education in conflict affected regions. The Human Rights Court made clear statement on importance of mother tongue education and concluded that "in spite of the fact that students formally had access to receiving education, ... the practice of Cypriot-Turkish authorities amounted to the denial of the substance of the right to education (p. 22, Public Defenders Office of Georgia, 2015)

### *Integrated Schools and language education in Northern Ireland*

Ireland was part of United Kingdom for centuries (Galagher, 2016.) Irish people strived to be independent and Ireland gained independence in 1920s. Independence was requested by majority of population, who are

Catholics; however in the north eastern part of the island, Protestants were resided in majority. Protestants preferred to have aligned with United Kingdom rather to get independence due to cultural, religious, political and economic reasons (Galagher, 2016). Based on existing situation, the island of Ireland was partitioned in 1921. The largest part of the island became independent Irish Free State, while north part of island remained the part of United Kingdom as Northern Ireland region (Galagher, 2016). Protestants are majority in Northern Ireland wish to maintain their link with the British state, while Catholics, who are minority in Northern Ireland supported nationalist aspiration of a united Ireland, The conflict between these two groups and two objectives was source for conflict. The most recent violent conflict in Northern Ireland took place in 1968 resulted in more than 3,000 dead and several thousand injured. After 1968, Northern Ireland became very segregated society and the segregation was reflected in educational system as well (Bekerman, Zymbalas McGlynn, 2009).

Northern Ireland is a pioneer in establishing integrated schools. The first integrated post primary school was established in Northern Ireland in 1981. Integrated education is the joint education of separated groups and that provides opportunities to develop respect and understanding for alternative cultures (Campell, 2013). In integrated schools, principal can be either Catholic or Protestant; the teachers are both Catholics as well as Protestants. Sixty one integrated schools have been established in 1981-2009 period in Northern Ireland; however, the educational system remained mostly segregated as students attend either Catholic or Protestant schools. (Bekerman, Zymbalas McGlynn, 2009).

To solve the problem of segregated schools in Northern Ireland, the concept of integrated schools was further developed and the new concept “shared education” was introduced in Northern Ireland (Galagher, 2016) Shared education envisages school collaboration, involving Protestant, Catholic and Integrated schools working together. The term ‘shared education’ was introduced to distinguish this educational practice from previous interventions, including from integrated schools (Galgher, 2016). Shared education Project (SeP) was the first attempt to implement shared education concept in practice. As Galagher pointed out, the difference between integrated and shared education was in objectives as “previous educational interventions in Northern Ireland had foregrounded reconciliation as the key goal, but the SeP strategy was based on a four-stage delivery model: (1) establish a school partnership; (2) establish collaborative links between the schools; (3) run shared classes; (4) promote economic, educational and reconciliation outcomes” (2016, p. 368)

The language issue in separated as well as in integrated or shared schools in Northern Ireland was important. Catholic and integrated schools provide Irish language learning opportunities in Northern Ireland. Non-Catholic schools, even those Protestant Grammar schools with sizeable number of Catholic students, do not offer Irish language classes (McKendry, 2007). The Catholic school system was the only system for Irish language and culture (McKendry, 2007). The role of Irish in the integrated school was considered as very important, “the integrated school must offer the Irish language, Gaelic games, Irish dancing and music as options for all pupils” (Spencer, 1987: 108 seen in McKendry, 2007); however, not all integrated post-primary schools offer the Irish language classes today (McKendry, 2007).

Even though, there are some shortcomings of integrated and shared education in Northern Ireland, the practice is considered as successful educational experience in conflict affected societies. The success of the model is based on parental engagement as integrated schools were set up initially through parents’ initiative. Accordingly, parents have a straightforward goal to create peaceful coexistence between the two communities through the school system (Bekerman, Zymbalas McGlynn, 2009).

### *Language Education in Transnistria*

Moldavian Soviet Socialist Republic (MSSR) was created in 1940, when Soviet authorities incorporated Bessarabia (territories on the right – western – bank of the Dniester river) into the Soviet Union. The territory on the left (eastern) bank of the Dniester became part of MSSR in 1940. Until 1940, this eastern bank of Dniestr territory was part of Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic as Moldovan Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic (ASSR), established in 1924. In 1940 Soviet authorities dissolved the Moldovan ASSR and merged part of it

(Transnistria) with the main part of Bessarabia and created the new Moldovan SSR. The Soviet nationality policy was proclaiming Moldovans as different national group from Romanians. The language policy was also focused on assumption that these different nations had different languages. Moldovan and Romanian languages used different scripts, which was the main difference between these two languages (OSCE report, 2012). In Romania, Latin script was used since 1862. In Russian-ruled Bessarabia, the Old Cyrillic script was still used after 1862 and later it was partially replaced by the Russian Cyrillic Script (OSCE report, 2012). In Besarabia, during the Roman rule in 20<sup>th</sup> century, Latin script was used. Soviet authorities created Moldovan Cyrillic script, which was used till the end of 80s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century in Moldova; however at the end of the 1980s, Moldovans demanded recognition that Moldovan and Romanian were one and the same language with Latin script (OSCE report, 2012). The language issue became one of the factors for conflict in Transnistria. From August 1991 to July 1992, the conflict in the Transnistria took place, which was ended with a Russian-Moldovan Agreement on Principles of a Peaceful Settlement signed in Moscow on 21 July 1992 (OSCE report, 2012).

Transnistrian de facto authorities made Moldovan, Russian and Ukrainian languages as official languages in Transnistria (Comai and Venturi, 2015). De facto authorities rejected the Latin script and chose to retain the Cyrillic script in Transnistria (OSCE report, 2012). There are schools with Russian Ukrainian and Moldovan language of instructions in Transnistria. There were 165 public schools in Transnistria in 2013 and approximately 87% of students were enrolled in schools with Russian language of instruction, around 10 % of students in schools with Moldovian (Cyrillic script) language of instruction and 1,46% in Ukrainian schools (Iovu, 2017). The Law on Education of de facto authorities in Transnistria also stipulates the teaching in languages other than official languages in Transnistria (Comai and Vinturi, 2015). However, the situation in practice is different than in articles incorporated in educational law of de facto republic.

There were eight schools in Transnistria with Romanian language of instruction (Latin script). The Latin script schools are administered by Moldovan authorities today. Two of the eight schools, located in Dubasari and Grigoriopol, were closed by Transnistrian authorities and these schools physically moved to Moldovan-controlled territory from Transnistria; the others remain in Transnistrian-controlled areas (OSCE report, 2012; Hammerberg, 2013). In 2004 there was an attempt to close down the schools in Tiraspol, Bender and Ribnitsa forcefully. The de facto authorities requested these schools to work under the legal framework and educational system of Transnistria (Hammerberg, 2013). The policy of de facto authorities toward Latin script schools was assessed as violation of human rights by European Court on Human Rights in the Case of Catan and Others vs. Moldova and Russia, application nos 43770/04, 8252/05 (Public Defenders Office of Georgia, 2015). The Court considered that the forced closure of the schools as violation of rights of access to education in the native language of students. The situation with Latin script schools underlines that pluralistic approach reflected in legislature of de facto state is not implemented in practice toward the specific language groups (Comai and Venturi, 2015).

## **Research Methodology**

This research aims to describe and analyze the existing situation of mother tongue education in de facto republic of Abkhazia. Content and statistical data analyses research methods were utilized in the study. Content analysis is an important research method used for various purposes, including describing characteristics of phenomena or themes (Downe-Wamboldt 1992). Qualitative content analysis is oriented largely to the description of meanings, contexts, and situations (Altheide 1987, seen and cited in Kim 2013). The research used various sources for content analysis, including a) legal acts; (b) scholarly articles and books; (c) reports of non-governmental and international organizations; (d) articles from newspapers, magazines and online agencies.

The statistical data was obtained from official sites of department of statistics of de facto Republic of Abkhazia, de facto Ministry of Education of Abkhazia and Educational Department of Sukhumi as well as from Department of Statistics of Georgia and Gali Educational Resource Centre of Georgia. The statistical data was also obtained from news agencies working in the territory of Abkhazia. The obtained primary statistical data was elaborated and tables developed for analyzing the statistical data in accordance with the objective of the study.

## Research Results

### Ethnic composition of Georgia

The size of different ethnic groups in Georgia and, in general, its ethnic composition reflect political, socioeconomic, and emigrational changes. Georgia's ethnic composition has changed during different historical periods because of these varied factors (Komakhia, 2008). Jaoshvili (1984) described three stages in the process of formation of Georgia's current ethnic composition: (1) Middle Ages to the late 18<sup>th</sup> century; (2) Early 19<sup>th</sup> century until Russia occupied Georgia in 1921, and (3) during the era of the Soviet Union (1921-1991). Komakhia (2008) added a fourth stage to this classification: the period from Georgia's independence to the present (Tabatadze and Gorgadze, 2017). The migration policies of the Soviet Union largely influenced the third stage of ethnic composition. Georgia became part of the Soviet Union forcibly, and a policy of forced migration during that era played an important role in Georgia's ethnic composition (Tabatadze and Gorgadze, 2017). By 1939, Georgians constituted less than two-thirds of the Republic's total population (Jaoshvili, 1984). In 1959 and 1979, non-Georgians resided primarily in cities and towns, which explains the greater ethnic diversity in cities than in rural areas (Komakhia, 2008). There were four compact settlements in Georgia during the Soviet era: Kvemo Kartli (settled by Azeris, Greeks and Armenians), Samtskhe-Javakheti (settled by Armenians), Abkhazia (settled by Abkhazians, Greeks, and Armenians), and South Ossetia (settled by Ossetians). The fourth stage of ethnic composition was influenced by two ethnic conflicts and migrational processes. After the collapse of the Soviet Union, two ethnic conflicts, the Georgian-Abkhazian and Georgian-Ossetian took place. People emigrated from Georgia because of the high unemployment rate after the collapse of the Soviet Union. Georgians, constituting 70.1 percent of the total population in 1989; this number increased to 86.2 percent because of conflicts and migration in 2014. Detailed information on changes in ethnic composition from 1989 to 2014 is presented in Table 1 below:

**Table I. Ethnic Composition of Georgia from 1989-2014 based on the results of population census 1989, 2002, 2014**

	2014	2002	1989	Share in total population (in %)		
				2014	2002	1989
<b>Total Population</b>	<b>3713804</b>	<b>4371535</b>	<b>5400841</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Georgian	3224564	3661173	3787393	86,83	83,8	70,1
Azerbaijani	233024	284761	307556	6,27	6,5	5,7
Armenian	168102	248929	437211	4,53	5,7	8,1
Russian	26453	67671	341172	0,71	1,5	6,3
Ossetian	14385	38028	164055	0,39	0,9	3
<i>Abkhazian</i>	864	3527	<i>95853</i>	0,02	0,1	<i>1,8</i>
Yezid	12174	18329	0	0,33	0,4	
Greek	5544	15166	100324	0,15	0,3	1,9

Kist	5697	7110	0	0,15	0,2	0
Ukrainian	6034	7039	52443	0,16	0,2	1
Others	16963	19802	114834	0,46	0,4	2,1

### Ethnic Composition of Abkhazia

Abkhazia's ethnic composition has always been a topic of debate and manipulation. The first data on the Abkhazian population were available in 1886 (Trier, Lohm and Szakonyi, 2010), and Abkhazians and Georgians interpret even the results of the first population census differently. As the data are debated fiercely, inaccurate, and are subject to different interpretations (Trier, Lohm, & Szakonyi, 2010; Muller, 1999), I will begin the introduction of the demographics of the Abkhazian population during the Soviet era. The first census after the Soviet Union was established was conducted in 1926 and a total of 6 censuses were conducted during that era. Table 2 below shows the ethnic composition of Abkhazia's population during the Soviet times.

**Table 2: Ethnic Composition of Abkhazia during Soviet Union**

Year	Total Population in Numbers	Georgians %	Abkhazians %	Armenians %	Russians %
1926	212033	33,6	27,8	12,8	6,1
1939	311900	29,5	18	15,9	19,3
1959	404700	39,1	15,1	15,9	21,4
1970	487040	40	15,9	11,4	19,1
1979	486082	43,9	17,1	15,1	16,4
1989	524161	45,7	17,7	14,6	14,3

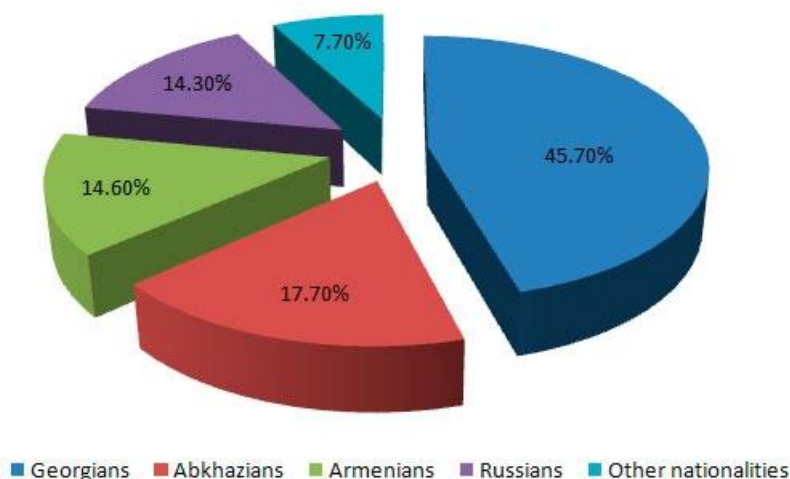
The proportion of Abkhazians decreased during the Soviet era compared to those of other nationalities, and the proportion of Georgians, Armenians, and Russians increased. It is interesting to see the percentile increase of each ethnic group during the Soviet era, as shown in Table 3 below.

**Table 3: Increase of Population from 1926-1989 by ethnic background**

Ethnicity	Year	1926	1939	1959	1970	1979	1989	Increase in 100 % from 1926-1989
Georgians		67494	91967	158221	199595	213322	242304	3,6
Abkhazians		55918	56197	61193	77276	83097	93267	1,60%
Armenians		34700	49700	64400	74900	73350	76350	2,2
Russians		20456	60201	86715	92889	79730	74416	3,6

Table 3 shows that the greatest increase was among ethnic Georgians and Russians, followed by Armenians, and finally Abkhazians, with a 160 percent increase in the ethnic populations during the Soviet era. This difference can be explained easily. The Russian, Georgian, and Armenian populations increased both

through migration, and through natural increases in their populations, while the number of Abkhazians increased through natural increase alone (Chikirba, 2008). Unlike Georgians, Russians, and Armenians, Abkhazians did not live in any other places in the Soviet Union. The last census before the collapse of the Soviet Union was conducted in 1989. The figure below represents Abkhazia’s general ethnic composition in 1989:



**Figure 1: Ethnic composition of Abkhazian Autonomous Republic by 1989 census. Government of Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia [http://abkhazia.gov.ge/index.php?lang\\_id=ENG&sec\\_id=30](http://abkhazia.gov.ge/index.php?lang_id=ENG&sec_id=30)**

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, the de facto government of Abkhazia conducted population censuses in 2003 and in 2011. The population’s ethnic composition also was evaluated during these censuses. The 2003 census showed an increase in the Abkhazian ethnic population, while the number of Georgians decreased because of their displacement from Abkhazia after the war of 1992-1993. Most Georgians left Abkhazia, and only approximately 55,000 returned to the Gali district (Chirikba, 2009). The 2011 census also showed a dramatic increase in the Abkhazian population. According to official data, the number of Abkhazians increased from 93,267 in 1989 to 122,069 in 2011 and the Department of Statistics of Abkhazia announced an even further increase in 2015. An approximate 33 percent increase in the Abkhazian population has been announced during the last 12 years, which indicates that the ethnic Abkhazian population has had an annual increase of approximately 3 percent. Table 4 shows the dynamics of the increase in the populations of different ethnic groups between 1989 and 2015 based on official data of the de facto government of Abkhazia.

**Table 4. Increase of ethnic Abkhazians in Abkhazia based on official data 2003-2015**

Year	1989	2003	2011	2015	Change since 2003 %
Ethnicity					
Abkhazians	93267	<b>94606</b>	<b>122 069</b>	<b>124 455</b>	<b>32,1 %</b>
Armenians	76541	44,870	41,864	41875	-45,3%
Russians	74914	23420	22077	22320	-70,20
Georgians	239872	44041	46367	46773	- 80,5%

This unrealistic increase in the ethnic Abkhazian population raises many questions about the validity of the 2003 and 2011 censuses. The increase in Abkhazians is based only on natural increase, as the migration process did not increase the number for two reasons: (1) In 1989, during the Soviet era, 105,308 Abkhazians lived throughout the Soviet Union. Abkhazians were concentrated in Abkhazia and there were none to immigrate back to Abkhazia, and (2) the Abkhazian diaspora from Turkey also did not immigrate back to Abkhazia (Trier et al., 2010). The natural increase was not sufficiently high to produce these numbers.

According to the Department of Statistics of Abkhazia, the natural annual increase in all of Abkhazia is 450 persons, on average, and only half of those are Abkhazians (approximately 225 persons annually). If we take this average for the period from 2003 to 2015, the natural increase in Abkhazians can be no more than 2,925. This number is only 10 percent of the increase in the ethnic Abkhazian population of Abkhazia declared officially.

Many researchers have questioned the validity of the census data and the magnitude of the population increase (e.g., Trier et al., 2010; Clogg, 2008). The European Centre for Minority Issues (ECMI, 2009) made its own calculation of Abkhazia's population based on data available to the organization. Table 5 below presents the estimated population in Abkhazia by ethnic background.

**Table 5: ECMI estimation of population of Abkhazia by ethnic background (2009)** (Tabatadze, 2018. P. 173)

Abkhazians	65 000-80 000
Georgians	45 000-65 000
Armenians	60 000-70 000
Russians	10 000- 15 000
Greeks	1500
Others	5000
Total	186,500-236 500

The urban and rural distribution of the population in the de facto republic also is relevant to language and educational policies. The tendency for urbanization in Abkhazia is obvious and urban populations have increased, while rural populations have decreased. Language vitalization, as well as the educational language policy, differs in rural and urban areas and thus, it is important to consider the urbanization in Abkhazia. This topic will be discussed later in the article from a language education perspective. Table 6 presents the distribution of the population in urban and rural areas in 2003-2016.

**Table 6: Urban and Rural Distribution of Population in Abkhazian in 2003-2016**

Year	Number of Population			%	
		Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
2003	214016	96125	117891	44,9	55,1
2011	240705	121255	119450	50,4	49,6
2015	243206	122434	120772	50,3	49,7
2016	243564	122547	121017	50,3	49,7

The ethnic distribution of Abkhazia's population by district is interesting as well. The de facto Republic of Abkhazia includes 7 districts and the city of Sukhumi. Even based on the highly contested and inaccurate data of the Abkhazian census and the Department of Statistics, the majority of Abkhazians are found only in Sukhumi and Gudauta, while the majority of the population in the Gali and Tkvarcheli districts is Georgians, and the majority in Gulripshi, as well as the district of Sukhumi, is Armenians. Gagra district has nearly the

same number of Armenians and Abkhazians and these two ethnic groups constitute the majority in Gagra. Table 7 illustrates the ethnic composition of the cities and districts in Abkhazia.

**Table 7: Ethnic composition of Abkhazia by districts**

Ethnicity	Total	Ethnic Composition of Abkhazia by districts of Abkhazia							
		Sukh.	Gagra	Gud.	District of Sukh.	Gulr.	Och.	Tkvarch	Gali
Abkhazian	124455	43369	15255	31058	3500	6038	19780	5243	212
Russian	22320	9537	6261	1896	863	2031	993	558	181
Armenian	41875	6316	15216	3716	6459	8412	1680	49	27
Georgian	43526	1804	991	493	230	791	2037	9503	27677
<b>Total</b>	<b>243564</b>	<b>64441</b>	<b>39625</b>	<b>37922</b>	<b>11513</b>	<b>17973</b>	<b>25458</b>	<b>16385</b>	<b>30247</b>

### Language Education Legislature in Georgia and in the de facto Republic of Abkhazia

According to article 8 of the Constitution of Georgia, the Georgia state language is Georgian and Georgian and Abkhazian in the Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia. According to article 38 of the Constitution of Georgia “Citizens of Georgia shall be equal in social, economic, cultural and political life irrespective of their national, ethnic, religious and linguistic belonging; in accordance with universally recognized principles and rules of international law, they shall have the right freely to develop, without any discrimination and interference, their culture, to use their native language in private and public life.”

The policy on state language in the field of education is regulated by the Law of Georgia on General Education. Article 4 of this law defines the language of instruction as follows: “The language of instruction in public educational institutions is Georgian and Georgian and Abkhazian languages in the Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia...” According to article 4.3 of the Law on General Education, citizens of Georgia for whom Georgian is not their native language shall have the right to obtain full public education in their native language following the curriculum elaborated in accordance with the law. In these public schools, it is compulsory to learn the State language and in the Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia, learning both State languages is required. According to the law on general education, national minorities may establish educational institutions as private legal entities. To do so, they must obtain a relevant license for carrying out elementary basic or secondary educational activities in accordance with the provisions of the law. Regardless of the language of instruction, all Georgian public schools are funded equally, and the Constitution stipulates that the government shall finance full public basic education.

The Law on General Education protects all students from any type of coercion and allows freedom of expression in their native language. Specifically, paragraph 2 of article 13 of the law states: “The use of the learning process at public school for purposes of religious education, proselytism or forcible assimilation is prohibited. This norm does not limit the right to celebrate public holidays and historical events, as well as to carry out of activities directed at strengthening national and universal values.” According to paragraph 6 of the

same article, schools shall protect and promote tolerance and mutual respect among students, parents, and teachers regardless of the social, ethnic, and religious group to which they belong, or their language. Paragraph 7 of the same article states: “The school shall protect individual and collective rights of minorities to freely use their native language, and to preserve and express their cultural origin on the basis of equality of all.” According to Article 4 of the Law of Georgia on Higher Education, the language of instruction in higher educational institutions is Georgian, as well as Abkhazian in Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia.

As Georgian legislature does not function in the Abkhazian Autonomous Republic, I will review the latter’s language education legislature briefly. Its Constitution was adopted in 1994, and Article 6 guarantees all the right to use their native language freely. According to article 12: “Everyone is equal according to the law and courts, irrespective of race, nationality, gender, language, background, property and professional status, place of residence, religion, conviction, ideology or other factors.”

According to the de facto Constitution, Abkhaz is the state and Russian is an official language in de facto Abkhazia. The language of instruction in schools is regulated by the law on state language adopted in 2007. Article 7 of the law stipulates: “The language of instruction in the Republic of Abkhazia is [the] State Language as well as Russian.” The same law indicates that citizens of Abkhazia “...have the right to obtain education in their mother tongue within *the limits of possibilities offered by the system of education.*” Learning Abkhaz is mandatory in all schools and the final exam system was introduced to assess students’ proficiency in the Abkhazian language in Abkhazian public and private schools.

### **Language Education in Abkhazia; Historical Background**

The education system of de facto Abkhazia is mostly rooted in Soviet educational system and the educational reforms were not taken in Abkhazia. The changes were not taken for language education as well. The only initiatives were taken toward Georgian schools.

The possibility of getting education in Abkhazian language was realistic after the development of Abkhazian alphabet in 19th century. The alphabet was important in acquiring education in the Abkhazian language. The first written alphabet for the language was developed by P. K. Uslar in 1862 (Grenoble, 2003), and used Cyrillic, Georgian, and Latin letters. In 1926-1928, N. Marr created a Latin-based alphabet for the Abkhazian language (Grenoble, 2003).

The first attempts to establish education in Abkhazian emerged in the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Gvantseladze, 2010). In 1810, the priest Ioane Ioseliani began to use the Abkhazian language in education in the village of Likhni. However, Russian authorities rejected this initiative (Gvantseladze, 2010). On May 30, 1851, the Holy Synod of the Russian church adopted a resolution, and the four-year school was established in the village of Likhni from the beginning of 1852. This was the first time in history in which the study of the Abkhazian language was introduced (Gvantseladze, 2010). The church school of Likhni operated until October, 1855. The second school that taught Abkhazian was established in Ilori (Gvantseladze, 2010). Teaching Abkhazian was conducted in Abkhazia until 1884, when “The Society for the Restoration of Orthodoxy in the Caucasus” banned teaching the Abkhazian language and Russian only instruction was introduced in Abkhazian schools (Gvantseladze, 2010). From 1852 until 1884, the language of instruction in the schools of Abkhazia was Russian. Although the Abkhazian language was taught as well (Gvantseladze, 2010), having the Abkhazian population learn the Abkhazian language was unpopular ([Linguapedia.info](http://Linguapedia.info), 2011).

The first real attempt to establish Abkhazian schools occurred during the first years of the Soviet era ([Linguapedia.info](http://Linguapedia.info), 2011). At that time, there was a strong emphasis on teaching minority languages (Trier et al., 2010), and as a minority language, Abkhazian also was protected and instruction in the language was introduced in Abkhazia, although until 1932, Abkhazian was the language of instruction only in grades 1 and 2. Since 1932, students have been taught Abkhazian in grades 1-4 in Abkhazian language schools ([Linguapedia.info](http://Linguapedia.info), 2011).

The situation changed during the late twentieth century, when a strong Russification campaign was begun in much of the Soviet Union (Comai & Venturi, 2015). The Soviet authorities decided to change the language of instruction in the Autonomous Republics to Russian or the language of the republic to which the autonomous republic belonged. This decision was realized in the Soviet Union before the 1938-1939 academic years (Papaskiri, 2010). The only case was Abkhazia, where Georgian authorities refused the central government's decree to implement this because of the issue's political sensitivity. Thus, this decision was not implemented in Georgia until 1945, based on the June 12 decree by the Central Committee of the Georgian Communist Party, in which the language of instruction in Abkhazian schools was changed to Georgian beginning in the 1945-46 academic years (Comai & Venturi, 2015). A total of 81 Abkhaz language schools switched to Georgian as the language of instruction and the Abkhazian alphabet also was changed to Georgian script in 1937, and from 1945 to 1953, Abkhaz was taught in these schools only as a separate subject (Comai & Venturi, 2015).

After the political changes in the Soviet Union, Abkhazian schools re-opened beginning in the 1953-1954 academic years, and the Abkhazian alphabet based on Cyrillic also was re-introduced (Trier et al., 2010). Abkhazian schools operated in Abkhazia until the end of the Soviet era; however, the language of instruction in these schools was Abkhazian only in grades 1-4 (Gvantseladze, 2010; Papaskiri, 2010; Comai & Venturi, 2015), and all subjects were taught in Russian in grades 5-11, except for Abkhazian language and literature. A total of 52 Abkhazian language schools and 13 Abkhazian sectors still operated in the Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia by the end of the Soviet era.

During the Soviet era, the educational system and language instruction in Abkhazian schools more or less reflected the republic's multi-ethnic composition, and its principal ethnic groups had opportunities to be educated in the mother tongue (Comai & Venturi, 2015). Georgian, Russian, Abkhazian, Armenian, and even Greeks schools functioned in the Autonomous Republic of Abkhazia until 1938 (Comai & Venturi, 2015). There were 313 schools in Abkhazia in which the language of instruction was Abkhazian, Georgian, Russian, Russian-Georgian, Georgian-Abkhazian, Russian-Georgian-Abkhazian, and Russian-Abkhazian. Table 8 shows detailed information on schools in Abkhazia in the pre-war period.

**Table 8. Schools by language of instruction pre-war period (Tabatadze, 2018, p.174)**

Language of Instruction	Number of Schools	% in Total Number of Schools
Georgian	165	53%
Abkhazian	52	17%
Armenian	43	14%
Russian	21	6 %
Georgian-Abkhazian	3	1%
Georgian-Russian	19	6%
Russian-Abkhazian	7	2%
Russian-Georgian-Abkhazian	3	1%
Total	313	100%

Table 8 provides a clear picture of Abkhazian schools by language of instruction by the end of 1980. Fifty three percent of schools were schools with Georgian language of instruction and ethnic Georgian population composed of 45,7% by that time. Seventeen percent of schools used Abkhazian language for instruction and the Abkhazian population also constituted 17.7 percent of the total population of Abkhazian Autonomous Republic. The same situation was with Armenian schools. The share of Armenian schools was fourteen percent of the total number of schools, while the ethnic Armenian population in Abkhazia was 14.8 percent in 1989 (Tabatadze, 2018).

### Educational System and language education of de Facto Abkhazia

Department of Statistics of de facto Abkhazia published statistical data on public schools of Abkhazia from 2008 since today. According to this data, there were 169 schools in 2008 and 156 in 2017 (Department of Statistics of Abkhazia, 2017). The number of students increased in public schools of Abkhazia from 26, 220 to 27 000 from 2008 till 2017 (Tabatadze, 2018). The detailed information on students population in Abkhazia from 2008 to 2017 is provided in Table 9.

**Table 9. Number of schools and students in Abkhazia in 2008-2017 (Tabatadze, 2018, p.177)**

Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
<b>Number of Students</b>	26220	25558	26282	26315	26138	25969	25577	26696	26611	27000
<b>Number of Public Schools</b>	169	169	169	168	165	166	165	159	159	156

There are 156 schools in Abkhazia and student population composes of 27 000 students. The schools have different language of instructions, specifically Abkhazian, Russian, Abkhazian-Russian, Armenian, and Georgian schools are still functioning in Abkhazia (Tabatadze, 2018). The table 10 presents the number of schools in Abkhazia by language of instruction.

**Table 10. Number of schools by language of instruction in Abkhazia (Tabatadze, 2018, p.177)**

Language of Instruction	Number of Schools	Percentage
Abkhazian	59	36,50%
Abkhazian-Russian	15	9,60%
Russian	46	30,20%
Armenian	25	16,70%
Georgian	11	7%
Total	156	100,00%

It is interesting to note the number of students by ethnic background in Abkhazia and analyze the possibility of mother tongue education for each ethnic group. Of 26,611 students, 53.5 percent is ethnic Abkhazians, while Georgians constitute 17.8 percent of the total student population, Armenians 17.1 percent, and Russians 7.90 percent (Tabatadze, 2018). According to this data, the majority of students are ethnic Abkhazians, followed by ethnic Georgians, Armenians, and Russians. Other ethnic minority students also are represented in Abkhazia's schools. However, the ethnic composition of the student population does not match their distribution in schools with instruction in the mother tongue. Although Abkhazian students constitute 53.3 percent of the total student population, only 31.5 percent is enrolled in Abkhazian schools. Only 7.90 percent of students with a Russian ethnic background study in Abkhazia, while 40.5 percent of the total student population is enrolled in Russian schools. The disproportion in the Armenian and Georgian schools and the ethnic composition of the student population is obvious as well. The distribution of schools and students in Abkhazia by language of instruction and by districts is presented in Table 11:

**Table 11. Ethnic Background of Students and Mother tongue Instruction**

<b>Ethnicity</b>	<b>Number of Students</b>	<b>At schools with mother tongue education</b>	<b>% of students with mother tongue education</b>
Abkhazians	14234	7726	<b>54%</b>
Armenians	4548	1974	<b>43,40%</b>
Georgians	<b>4,743</b>	<b>1,127</b>	<b>23,70%</b>

Based on the statistical data, it is possible to calculate the number and percentage of students who receive education in their mother tongue. Table 11 shows the system's inability to provide mother tongue education for different majority or minority ethnic groups; As Tabatadze points out (2018)

It is clear that mother tongue education is limited in de facto Abkhazia for Georgians, Abkhazians, and Armenians. However the reasons for this and the educational policies are different and selective for each group with respect to mother tongue education. Three types of educational policies can be identified: (1) involuntary/oppressive inability to receive education in the mother tongue; (b) semi-involuntary inability to receive education in the mother tongue, and (3) voluntary refusal to receive education in the mother tongue. The limitations for Georgians are based on the negative aspects of education. Discrimination and oppression are the guiding educational policies toward Georgians, who are denied mother tongue education in Abkhazia; the Abkhazian case differs and can be referred to as semi- involuntary inability, or structural/institutional inability to receive mother tongue education. The system is not developed sufficiently to provide education in the mother tongue. The case of Armenians differs completely. Their rights to education in the mother tongue are guaranteed, and Armenia provides structural and institutional support, although there are some challenges and shortcomings in that process; however, families refuse to receive education in their mother tongue voluntarily and prefer to be educated in Russian (p.189).

### **Conclusion**

The content and statistical data analysis showed that mother tongue education is not guaranteed in Abkhazia for different ethnic groups. There are different factors influencing negatively the process of mother tongue education in Abkhazia. Political and economic factors are among most important factors hindering the process of reforming Abkhazian educational system and introduction of multilingual educational programs. Consequently, it will be difficult to depoliticize the educational system and control economic factors for launching mother tongue multilingual educational reform in Abkhazia; however, international organization focused on education and development together with Georgian and Abkhazian groups can implement several important pilot programs of multilingual education based on international experience and best practices discussed above in this article.

## References

- Bekerman, Z. (2005). Complex contexts and ideologies: Bilingual Education in conflict-ridden areas. *Journal of Language Identity and Education*, 4 (1), pp. 1-20
- Bekerman, Z., Zembylas, M., & McGlynn, C. (2009). Working toward the Deessentialization of Identity Categories in Conflict and Postconflict Societies: Israel, Cyprus, and Northern Ireland, *Comparative Education Review*, 53(2), 213-234. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/597482>
- Campbell, N. (2013). On the Peace Line. In *Integrated Education in Conflicted Societies* (pp. 45-57). Palgrave Macmillan US.
- Chirikba, V.A. (2009) Развитие абхазского языка в условиях полиэтнического общества: вызовы и перспективы. Available at [http://apsnyteka.org/file/Chirikba\\_Razvitie\\_abkhazskogo\\_yazyka\\_v\\_usloviyah\\_polyetnicheskogo\\_obschestva.pdf](http://apsnyteka.org/file/Chirikba_Razvitie_abkhazskogo_yazyka_v_usloviyah_polyetnicheskogo_obschestva.pdf). (Accessed on September, 15, 2017)
- Clogg, R. (2008) The Politics of Identity in Post-Soviet Abkhazia: Managing Diversity and Unresolved Conflict," *Nationalities Papers*, 36, (2):305-329;
- Comai, G., & Venturi, B. (2015). Language and education laws in multi-ethnic de facto states: the cases of Abkhazia and Transnistria. *Nationalities Papers*, 43(6), 886-905.
- Deeb, I., & Kinani, N. (2013). Changing Our Reality. In *Integrated Education in Conflicted Societies* (pp. 33-44). Palgrave Macmillan US
- Department of Education of Sukhumi (2016) *Data on Abkhazian-Russian School of Sukhumi*. Accessed on September 15, 2017 at: <http://www.sukhum-education.org/>
- Department of Statistics of de facto Republic of Abkhazia (2016), *Statistical Data on The Population of Abkhazia*, available at: [http://ugsra.org/ofitsialnaya-statistika.php?arrFilter\\_ff%5BSECTION\\_ID%5D=8&set\\_filter=%D0%A4%D0%B8%D0%BB%D1%8C%D1%82%D1%80&set\\_filter=Y](http://ugsra.org/ofitsialnaya-statistika.php?arrFilter_ff%5BSECTION_ID%5D=8&set_filter=%D0%A4%D0%B8%D0%BB%D1%8C%D1%82%D1%80&set_filter=Y) (accessed 15 September 2017).
- Department of Statistics of de facto Republic of Abkhazia (2016), *Statistical Data on Education in Abkhazia*, available at: [http://ugsra.org/ofitsialnaya-statistika.php?arrFilter\\_ff%5BSECTION\\_ID%5D=10&set\\_filter=%D0%A4%D0%B8%D0%BB%D1%8C%D1%82%D1%80&set\\_filter=Y](http://ugsra.org/ofitsialnaya-statistika.php?arrFilter_ff%5BSECTION_ID%5D=10&set_filter=%D0%A4%D0%B8%D0%BB%D1%8C%D1%82%D1%80&set_filter=Y) (accessed 15 September 2017).
- Department of Statistics of de facto Republic of Abkhazia (2016), *Statistical Data on Birth and Death Rates in Abkhazia*, available at: [http://ugsra.org/ofitsialnaya-statistika.php?ELEMENT\\_ID=155](http://ugsra.org/ofitsialnaya-statistika.php?ELEMENT_ID=155) (accessed 15 September 2017)
- Department of Statistics of Georgia (2002), *Statistical Data on The Population of Georgia*, available at: [www.geostat.ge](http://www.geostat.ge) (accessed 15 September 2017).
- Department of Statistics of Georgia (2014), *Statistical Data on The Population of Georgia*, available at: [www.geostat.ge](http://www.geostat.ge) (accessed 15 September 2017).
- Downe-Wamboldt, B. (1992). Content analysis: method, applications, and issues. *Health care for women international*, 13(3), 313-321
- European Court on Human Rights (2014) Cyprus vs. Turkey. Accessed at [http://www.rulac.org/assets/downloads/Cyprus\\_v\\_Turkey.pdf](http://www.rulac.org/assets/downloads/Cyprus_v_Turkey.pdf)
- Gabunia, K. (2014). Language situation in modern Georgia 2. Caucasian and non-Caucasian languages. *International Journal of Multilingual Education*, 2(2), 1–21. doi:10.22333/ijme.2014.4001
- Gallagher, T. (2016). Shared education in Northern Ireland: school collaboration in divided societies. *Oxford Review of Education*, 42(3), 362-375.
- Grenoble, Lenore A. 2003. *Language Policy in the Soviet Union*. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers

- Gvantseladze, T. (2010). Functioning of the Abkhazian Language in Education. *Bilingual Scholarly Peer-Reviewed Journal Spekali*.
- Hammarberg, Thomas. 2013. "Report on Human Rights in the Transnistrian Region of the Republic of Moldova." United Nations, February 14.
- Iovu, A (2017). *Ethnic minorities in the context of de facto statehood: the situation in Transnistria*. Paper presented in the workshop of Young Researchers in Regensburg; Regensburg, 2017
- Jaoshvili, V. 1984. Georgia's Population in the 18th-20th Centuries. Tbilisi, (in Georgian).
- Kim, Y. (2013). *Multicultural education in social studies textbooks in South Korea and the United States: A comparative analysis* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Komakhia, M. 2008. Georgia's ethnic history and the present migration processes. *Central Asia and the Caucasus* 1, no. 49: 154–160.
- Krstevska-Papic, B., & Zekolli, V. (2013). Integrated Education in the Republic of Macedonia. In *Integrated Education in Conflicted Societies* (pp. 135-145). Palgrave Macmillan US.
- Linguapedia.info (2011) . *Абхазский язык*. Accessed on September 15, 2017 at /languages/abkhaz.html  
<http://linguapedia.info/languages/abkhaz.html>
- McGlynn, C., Zembylas, M. & Bekerman, Z. (Eds) *Integrated Education in Conflicted Societies*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- McKendry, E. (2007). Minority-language education in a situation of conflict: Irish in English-medium schools in Northern Ireland. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 10(4), 394-409.
- Milcev, V. V. (2013). Building bridges at the earliest age through the Mozaik Model for multicultural pre-school education in Macedonia. *McGlynn, C., Zembylas, M & Bekerman, Z. Integrated Education in Conflicted Societies*, 121-135.
- Nancen Dialogue Centre (2017) *Nansen Model for Integrated and Bilingual Education*. Accessed at the website: <http://ndc.net.mk/documents/nansen-model-for-integrated-and-bilingual-education/>
- Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) (2016) *Ethnic Minorities and Civil Integration in Georgia*. Accessed on September 15, 2017 at: <http://www.osce.org/odihr/271456?download=true>
- OSCE HCNM (2008) Statement by Knut Vollebaek. Accessed on September 15, 2017 at: <http://www.osce.org/hcnm/32569?download=true>
- OSCE. 2012. The Moldovan-Administered Latin-Script Schools in Transdnistria. Chişinău: OSCE Mission to Moldova and OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities
- Papaskiri, Z. (2010). Abkhazia. Istorija bez falsifikatsii. Tbilisi
- Public Defender of Georgia (2015). *Special Report of the Public Ombudsman of Georgia, Right to Education in Gali District: News of the 2015-2016 Academic Year and Related Novelties*. Tbilisi. 2015
- Salman, J. S. (2013). A Practitioner's Reflections on Schooling in Bilingual Integrated Contexts. In *Integrated Education in Conflicted Societies* (pp. 157-169). Palgrave Macmillan
- Sputnik-Abkhazia (2016) *Школьная статистика Абхазии*. Accessed on September, 15, 2017 at: <http://sputnik-abkhazia.ru/infographics/20160316/1017530670.html>
- Spencer, A.E.C.W. (1987) Arguments for an integrated school system. In R.D. Osborne, R.J. Cormack and R.L. Miller (eds) *Education and Policy in Northern Ireland*. Belfast: Queen's University Belfast and University of Ulster, Policy Research Unit
- Svanidze, G.(2002) National minorities in Georgia, review. Retrieved on March 25, 2002, from the website: [www.minelres.lv.archive.htm](http://www.minelres.lv.archive.htm)
- Tabatadze, S. (2015a). Teachers' approaches to multicultural education in Georgian classrooms. *Journal for Multicultural Education*, 9(4), 248–262. doi:10.1108/JME-07-2014-0031
- Tabatadze, S. (2015b). Textbooks for minority schools of Georgia; Problems and challenges. *International Journal of Multilingual Education*, 3(1), 1–12. doi:10.22333/ijme.2015.5001
- Tabatadze, S. (2017). Minority education in Georgia: Is it delivering what is expected. *Journal of Diaspora, Minority, and Indigenous Education*, 11(1), 17–30. doi:10.1080/15595692.2016.1245658

- 
- Tabatadze, S. (2017). Minority Education in Georgia: Is It Delivering What Is Expected?. *Diaspora, Indigenous, and Minority Education*, 11(1), 17-30.
- Tabatadze, S., & Gorgadze, N. (2017a). Approaches to multiculturalism in teacher education programs in Georgia. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*, 12(3), 239-253.
- Tabatadze, S., & Gorgadze, N. (2017b). School voucher funding system of post-Soviet Georgia: From lack of funding to lack of deliverables. *Journal of School Choice*, 1-32.
- Tabatadze, S., & Gorgadze, N. (2018). Selective intercultural sensitivity to different sources of cultural identity: study of intercultural sensitivity of students in Georgia teacher education programs. *Journal for Multicultural Education*, (just-accepted), 00-00.
- Tabatadze, S. (2018): Mother Tongue Education in Conflict-Affected Regions: The Case of Abkhazia. Version: 1. Leibniz Institute for East and Southeast European Studies (IOS). Text. [http://doi.org/10.15457/cp\\_1\\_167-196](http://doi.org/10.15457/cp_1_167-196)
- Tabatadze, S., Gabunia, K., & Odzeli, M. (2008). *Recommendations on language policy to protect linguistic minorities*. Tbilisi, Georgia: Centre for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations
- Tankersley, D. (2001). Bombs or bilingual programmes?: dual-language immersion, transformative education and community building in Macedonia. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 4(2), 107-124
- Trier, T., Lohm, H., & Szakonyi, D. (2010). Under Siege. *Inter-Ethnic Relations in Abkhazia*, London: Hurst.
- Zembylas (2010) Negotiating co-existence in divided societies: teachers, students and parents' perspectives at a shared school in Cyprus, *Research Papers in Education*, 25:4, 433-455, DOI: 10.1080/02671520903156603
- Zembylas, M., & Bekerman, Z. (2013). Integrated Education in Conflicted Societies: is there a need for new theoretical language?. *European Educational Research Journal*, 12(3), 403-415
- Zembylas, M., Bekerman, Z., Haj-Yahia, M. M., & Schaade, N. (2010). The politics of mourning in Cyprus and Israel: Educational implications. *Compare*, 40(5), 561-574.

**Targamadžė Vilija, Kriaučiūnienė Roma**  
Vilnius University, Lithuania

## **The Place of Values in Plurilingual Education: A University Teachers' Viewpoint**

### **Abstract**

Contemporary university education is based on the development of students' competences that is generally being understood as the unity of knowledge, skills and value attitudes. While knowledge and skills can be easily measured and evaluated in the teaching / learning process, value attitudes seem to fall in the category of more intangible things, the development of which could not be very easily tested and assessed. Therefore, value attitudes may not always be in the focus of attention of university teachers, although they seem to be responsible for nurturing value attitudes of students. The development of value attitudes in the process of plurilingual education is especially necessary as values can be the core or foundation that helps learners realize the necessity of learning languages, foster their motivation and expand their understanding and acceptance of diversity issues. Thus, the aim of this research was to find out the university teachers' views on the development of students' value attitudes in plurilingual education. The aim was specified by several research questions: why values should be integrated in the teaching of their subjects, what values could be developed within the framework of teaching their subjects at universities, and what teaching / learning methods should be applied. The research was qualitative, there were 10 teachers from different universities of Lithuania interviewed and it was carried out in 2017. The results of the current research were compared with the research into university teachers' viewpoints on the development of value attitudes conducted in 2013, when university teachers from Ukraine, Georgia, and Latvia were interviewed. The conclusion is made that university teachers are aware of the necessity of the development of values in plurilingual education, although they seem to lack the *Know-How*. University teachers have to create favourable learning environment, choose appropriate teaching / learning materials and apply suitable teaching / learning methods.

**Keywords:** *Value attitudes, plurilingual education, university teachers, teaching/ learning process.*

### **Introduction**

Plurilingualism, which is a fundamental principle of the Council of Europe language education policies, is defined by Beacco & Byram (2003, p.15) as: "*the intrinsic capacity of all speakers to use and learn, alone or through teaching, more than one language.*" An expanded viewpoint of plurilingualism, encompassing not only the linguistic but cultural aspects as well, is presented in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* ([https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/framework\\_en.pdf](https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/framework_en.pdf) p.168), where plurilingual and pluricultural competence is referred to as "*the ability to use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a person, viewed as a social agent has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures.*" The updated version of CEFR (2017, p. 28) provides a more extensive explanation of the reason why most of the references to plurilingualism in the CEFR are to 'plurilingual and pluricultural competence': "*This is because the two aspects usually go hand-in-hand. Having said that, however, one form of unevenness may actually be that one aspect (e.g. pluricultural competence) is much stronger than the other (e.g. plurilingual competence)*". Evidently, the development of plurilingual competence of learners is inseparable from the enhancement of their understanding of the culture of

the target language or languages. In other words, strengthening the learners' cultural awareness, as Beacco & Byram (2003) state, is closely related to their acceptance of differences with respect to the collective values, behavior and standards of a different society. Such cultural awareness building is a matter of education which is linked with the process of teaching and learning languages. Given the peaceful philosophy of language learning that plurilingualism is based on and the fact that pluricultural competence does not develop on its own, but is interconnected with the learners' intercultural experience, exposure to and acceptance of cultural differences and the otherness, purposeful educational intervention aimed at the development of pluricultural competence of learners seems to be unavoidable.

### **The problem of the research**

In accordance with Bologna declaration (2005) university education in Lithuania is based on the development of students' competences the latter being understood as the unity of knowledge, skills and value attitudes. The main aim of competence-based learning is to develop not only subject-specific competences necessary for a certain future profession, but to develop students' general competences as well, enabling them to function successfully in multilingual and multicultural professional fields. Thus, the requirements that higher education institutions face nowadays seem to provide favourable conditions for the development of competences and value attitudes of students. However, while knowledge and skills can be easily measured and evaluated in the teaching / learning process, value attitudes seem to fall in the category of more intangible things, the development of which could not be very easily tested and assessed. Therefore, value attitudes may not always be in the focus of attention of university teachers, although they have to be responsible for nurturing value attitudes of students in the teaching / learning process. There is no denying the fact that the development of plurilingual and pluricultural competences is closely linked with the development of students' value attitudes which, alongside the other dimensions of a competence, i.e. knowledge and skills, make up the core foundation of learning languages. Undoubtedly, a better understanding of the meaningfulness of such values as respect, tolerance, sensitivity, and responsibility raises students' awareness of the culture of the *other* and strengthens their acceptance of diversity issues. However, the problematic issue is, whether the teaching / learning process of foreign languages at contemporary universities really serves the development of students' value attitudes to prepare them for a successful communication in a multilingual and multicultural world. Thus, **the subject** of the research is values in language teaching / learning process and **the aim** of the research is to find out university teachers' views on the development of students' value attitudes in plurilingual education. The aim is specified by several **research questions**: why values should be integrated in the teaching of their subjects, what values could be developed within the framework of teaching their subjects at universities, and how and by what teaching / learning methods this process should be handled.

### **The novelty of the research**

It should be mentioned, however, that the concept of plurilingual education is not a new one and there has been a lot of research done recently into different aspects of plurilingual education. A large amount of research is carried out in university settings addressing plurilingual and pluricultural approaches in Foreign Language Education. For instance, the research carried out by P. Lobo (2016) proves that reformulation of foreign language classes with a plurilingual approach can empower students from diverse backgrounds with self-knowledge and tolerance towards alterity. Similarly E. Moore's (2014) research results showed that the use of plurilingual repertoires of learners may be advantageous for learning and participation in similar higher education classroom settings and, ultimately, for strengthening internationalisation. Furthermore, E. Moore, L. Nussbaum, E. & Borràs (2013) provide empirical insights into how internationalisation of universities, - and in particular the teaching of subjects in a second language - can be achieved in harmony with existing plurilingualism at the same time ensuring complexity of disciplinary content. Other scholars (Starkey-Perret &

Narcy-Combes, 2017) tested the implementation of a task-based plurilingual program with postgraduate students of Foreign Languages and International Business in a predominately monolingual area and identified the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats involved. Their research results revealed the research participants' positive acknowledgment of the social value, the intercultural dimension and representations of language acquisition and plurilingualism.

The other research, as presented by C. C. López and M. González-Davies (2016), focuses on how different plurilingual practices (code-switching and translation) can be successfully used in a foreign language classroom to improve students' linguistic capacities. Similarly the findings presented by M. Pujol-Ferran, J. M. DiSanto, N. N. Rodríguez and A. Morales (2016) also show successful application of plurilingual pedagogies across the college curriculum, in science, humanities, education, and linguistics courses. The four case studies presented demonstrate how they integrated dynamic translanguaging teaching practices such as translation, code-switching, cross-linguistic analysis, and the use of students' linguistic repertoires to complete assignments in multilingual classrooms. The researchers found that plurilingual pedagogies enable students to discover their linguistic strengths and utilize them to complete college assignments. Other scientists, such as C. Jeoffrion, A. Marcouyeux, R. Starkey-Perret, M. Narcy-Combes, and I. Birkan (2014) explored the university students' viewpoint of the use of plurilingual practices in a monolingual French academic setting and revealed that advanced students who learn several languages have a more plurilingual posture than beginners or those who learn fewer languages.

The analysis of the recent research articles on plurilingual education showed that there is a lot of research carried out to demonstrate the application of plurilingual practices in schools. G. Prasad (2015), for instance, presents the analysis of the process of creating plurilingual multimodal books with students and teachers across five different schools and presented very positive results of inclusive plurilingual pedagogy. A similar successful account of this kind of pedagogy is presented by R. Fielding (2016) whose research results proved that children in Australian schools enjoyed the learning process more by using their plurilingual experience and teachers expanded their own linguistic repertoires. The researcher maintains the view that teachers must reconceptualize language learning to acknowledge the language resources of children with plurilingual experiences. A more positive change in teachers' approaches to language teaching to develop students' intercultural communicative competence in plurilingual contexts is provided by C. Tolosa, C. Biebricher, M. East, and J. Howard's (2018) research results. Their study offers valuable insights for teacher education into the ways teachers' inquiries can support curricular change. Another interesting study is presented by J. B. Clark, A. Vanthuyne and C. Mady (2014) who attempt to answer the questions what it means to be and become a bi/multilingual and multicultural language teacher in today's plurilingual times.

However, the analysis of theoretical literature on plurilingual education reveals that the research into foreign language teachers' approach to the development of learners' value attitudes in plurilingual education has not been given adequate attention and some more light should be shed on the empirical reality in order to get a deeper insight into university teachers' awareness of and readiness to integrate values into the foreign language teaching/ learning process.

## Methodology

### Methodological guidelines of the research

The research was based on:

- The insights of *constructivism theory* claiming that each person is a uniquely constructed individual that cannot function separately, any intention of human behaviour is collectivist in nature, social reality is determined by all the members of the group, therefore maintaining relations with others requires respect for others; the decision making process should focus on the welfare of the community preserving each member's honour and fairness of pluralistic societies (May 1987).

- The interpretation of an *intercultural (communicative) competence* comprising attitudes, knowledge and skills, and *pluralistic approaches* for the development of *plurilingual and intercultural competences* of learners as well as descriptors of *plurilingual and intercultural competences* encompassing the dimensions of *knowledge, attitudes and skills developed by European Centre of Modern Languages* (A framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures (<http://carap.ecml.at/Accueil/tabid/3577/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>; Byram 2000, Neuliep 2006);

### Methods of the research

In order to achieve the aim of the current research, i.e. to find out the university teachers' views on the development of students' value attitudes in plurilingual education, theoretical and empirical research methods were used. *Descriptive, analytic and comparative* approaches were used for the analysis of educational and linguistic literature as well as Lithuanian and European documents on plurilingualism in order to provide the theoretical-analytical framework for the empirical research. The *qualitative, expert interview method* was applied with a focus on the deepening and broadening of the understanding of teachers' views on the development of students' value attitudes. There were 10 teachers of different languages (English – 4 teachers, German - 1, Lithuanian - 2, Russian - 2, Spanish - 1) representing different institutions of higher education of Lithuania (Vilnius University, Vytautas Magnus University, Kaunas University of Technology, University of Educational Sciences, University of Applied Sciences) interviewed who were asked for their outlook on the research questions.

The criteria for the selection of experts, teachers of languages, were the following: 10 years' and above teaching experience at institutions of higher education; scientific degree; experience of curriculum design and study program development; participation in projects on the development of national educational documents. The research was carried out in 2017.

The research participants were asked some questions concerning the development of values in the language / teaching process at universities. The research data collection technique was a structured interview, including questions pertaining to the constituent parts of the teaching / learning process: teaching aims, content, methods, the place of values in the teaching process as well as possibilities of integration of values in the plurilingual education (*What are the main aims of the teaching of your subject? What is the place of values in the subject you teach? Do you think that you pay enough attention to values in your subject teaching process? Why? What are the possible methods to develop students' value attitudes in your subject teaching process? Why is the development of values necessary in plurilingual education? How can value attitudes of students be fostered / developed in plurilingual education? What values could be fostered in the language teaching / learning process?*). The data of structured interviews were organized using a thematic analysis to identify all important themes mentioned by the experts and by applying categories and subcategories for each question of the interview.

In order to obtain a deeper insight into the experts' views, the results of the current research were compared with the research into university teachers' viewpoints on the development of value attitudes conducted in 2013, when university teachers from Ukraine, Georgia, and Latvia, who participated in a Tempus project "Development and Introduction of Multilingual Teacher Education programmes at universities of Georgia and Ukraine (DIMTEGU)" (No. 530360-TEMPUS-12012-1GE-TEMPUS-JPCR2012 – 2014), were interviewed by using the same data collection technique.

### Theoretical background of the research

The *State Education Strategy 2013 - 2022* provides the strategic framework for the development of the education system in Lithuania. One of its objectives is "to develop value orientations of each person that will

allow them to become a good-willed, independent, responsible, patriotic person” (State Education Strategy 2013 - 2022, p.2). One of the prerequisites for the implementation of this aim, among others, is the development of openness, creativity and responsibility, which are considered to be the fundamental values of progress. These values are further specified as follows: openness to a different approach, positive initiatives, dialogue, cooperation, innovation; creativity in generating valuable ideas and in implementing them; responsibility for their actions, morality, and active care not only for themselves, but also for their environment, community and country. *The language education policy specification* (Kalbų mokymo politikos aprašas, 2006) of Lithuania states that in the process of teaching / learning foreign languages students improve themselves as personalities, develop value-related attitudes such as openness to the target language and intercultural diversity; they qualify themselves for living in the multicultural and multilingual world that requires the mastering of general competences and skills.

One of the publications of the EU “*Promoting Plurilingualism Majority Language in Multilingual Settings*” (2011) establishes clear links between learning languages and the development of one’s values together with a strong sense of one’s own identities and acknowledgment of otherness in increasingly multilingual societies. *A framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures* (<http://carap.ecml.at/Accueil/tabid/3577/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>) developed by the European Centre of Modern Languages of the European Union provides ways for implementing pluralistic approaches for the development of plurilingual and intercultural competences of learners as well as give descriptors of plurilingual and intercultural competences encompassing the dimensions of knowledge, attitudes and skills. Seven general competences are defined, mainly: *Competence in managing linguistic and cultural communication in a context of otherness, Competence in the construction and broadening of a plural linguistic and cultural repertoire, Competence of decentering, Competence in making sense of unfamiliar linguistic and/or cultural features, Competence of distancing, Competence of critical analysis of the (communicative and/or learning) situation and activities one is involved in, Competence in recognising the "other" and otherness*. The development of these competences seems particularly encouraged by the implementation of pluralistic approaches in the language teaching / learning process.

One of the components of competences - the attitudes are specified by the European Centre of Modern Languages as follows: attitude to foreign languages, cultures and/or persons, to linguistic, cultural and/or human diversity in the environment; to language in general; to linguistic, cultural and/or human diversity in general (<http://carap.ecml.at/Descriptorsofresources/2/tabid/3592/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>). The specification of these attitudes reveal the embedded values: sensitivity, respect to linguistic, cultural or human diversity.

The development of the above-mentioned competences and value attitudes set very serious requirements for foreign language teachers, who have to constantly reflect their practices and make the necessary adjustments in their teaching practices. Moreover, as Angela Scarino and Anthony J. Liddicoat (2009, p.69 - 70) state, “learning is a deeply social and cultural process that involves active construction through interaction, mediation, talk, questioning, and scaffolding with more knowledgeable others”. Thus, the knowledgeable language teachers have to be able to create a favourable learning environment, choose appropriate teaching materials and apply suitable teaching and assessment methods. Moreover, intercultural language teaching / learning as Angela Scarino and Anthony J. Liddicoat (2009, p. 33 - 36) put it: “*involves developing with students an understanding of their own ‘situatedness’ in their own language and culture, and the recognition of the same in others. It also involves understanding the way in which this recognition influences the process of communication within their own language and culture, and across languages and cultures*”.

Language teachers’ competences as described in European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL) by Newby, Allan, Fenner, Jones, Komorowska & Soghikyan (2007, p. 29, p. 56) include the

following capacities of language teachers that enable them to foster students' awareness of the target language culture and strengthen their understanding and acceptance of cultural differences:

- ability to evaluate and select a variety of texts, source materials and activities which awaken learners' interest in and help them to develop their knowledge and understanding of their own and the other language culture (cultural facts, events, ability to create opportunities for learners to explore the culture of target language communities out of class (Internet, emails etc);
- ability to evaluate and select a variety of texts, source materials and activities which make learners aware of similarities and differences in sociocultural 'norms of behaviour';
- ability to evaluate and select activities (role plays, simulated situations etc.) which help learners to develop their socio-cultural competence;
- ability to evaluate and select a variety of texts, source material and activities which help learners to reflect on the concept of 'otherness' and understand different value systems;
- ability to evaluate and select texts, source materials and activities to make the learners aware of stereotyped views and challenge these;
- ability to evaluate and select activities which enhance the learners' intercultural awareness;
- ability to evaluate and select a variety of texts and activities to make learners aware of the interrelationship between culture and language;
- ability to assess the learners' knowledge of cultural facts, events etc. of the target language communities;
- ability to assess the learners' ability to make comparisons between their own culture and that of target language communities;
- ability to assess the learner's ability to respond and act appropriately in encounters with the target language culture.

It could be maintained that having mastered such competences teachers are able to foster their students' value attitudes and prepare them for successful functioning in multicultural working environments.

### **Research results**

As mentioned earlier, the aim of the current qualitative research is to reveal teachers' viewpoints of the connection between values and the language teaching / learning process. As language teaching / learning is closely linked with cultural and linguistic diversity, the values are essential in this domain to develop students' holistic personalities and to foster their plurilingual and pluricultural competences.

To reveal the place of values in language teaching / learning process the experts' structured interviews were carried out that revealed several overarching themes. The empirical research data analysis allowed identification of the categories and subcategories that are presented in the Tables and the analysis of the empirical data below. Links between value education and foreign language teaching are defined by the categories "*Aims of teaching languages*", "*Place of values in the educational process*", "*Attention to values in the language teaching / learning process*", "*Teaching methods to develop students' value attitudes in language teaching / learning process*", "*Importance of the development of values in plurilingual education*", "*Ways value attitudes of students could be fostered in plurilingual education*", "*Values to be fostered in the language teaching / learning process*".

The content of the category "*Aims of teaching languages*", presented in Table 1 below, reveals the objectives of language teaching such as development of students' communicative competence, creative and critical thinking, professional communicative skills, and familiarization with the culture of the target language.

**Table 1. Links between values and language teaching / learning process: category “Aims of teaching languages” and subcategories.**

Category	Subcategories	Examples of Statements
<b>Aims of teaching languages</b>	Development of communicative competence, creative and critical thinking, development of professional communicative skills, familiarization with the culture of the target language.	<p><i>&lt;to raise interest in the culture of the target language&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;to help students learn a foreign language of their choice, to familiarise them with the culture of the target language&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;To create the preconditions for students to develop communicative competence, to develop all linguistic skills - listening, reading, speaking and writing - to develop linguistic competence in order to acquire socio-cultural knowledge and abilities necessary for communication with representatives of foreign-speaking countries in the multicultural and multilingual world of the contemporary world.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;To develop future primary education teachers so that they understand and can develop the language skills of primary school students not only through the Lithuanian language lessons but also in the context of all other subjects.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;It is important for prospective teachers to understand contemporary didactics, apply active learning methods to motivate their students to learn.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;formally – to develop students’ communicative competence, however, my main aim is to foster students’ critical thinking abilities&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;to develop professional competences and improve practical foreign language skills&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Students should obtain knowledge of flexible and effective usage of the English language in a social, academic and professional environment. They should acquire correct usage of the language of science and technology along with the effective usage of all language skills.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt; Learners are expected to develop additional skills necessary for success in their studies, future life and careers (not just language skills), for example, communication, critical thinking, creativity and collaboration.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;To teach students the use of English in their subject areas.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;To develop students’ competence as future translators&gt;</i></p>

The content of this category shows that the main focus of language teachers’ attention is paid to the development of students’ communicative, linguistic competence and familiarization with the culture of the target language studied, which seems to be in compliance with the requirements of CERF (2017).

The Category of “*Place of values in educational process*”, presented in Table 2 below, reveals the experts’ approach that refers to the values being important in the educational process.

**Table 2. Links between values and the language teaching / learning process: category “Place of values in the educational process” and subcategories.**

Category	Subcategories	Examples of Statements
<p><b>Place of values in educational process</b></p>	<p>Values are different.</p> <p>Values are important for the choice of the teaching material.</p> <p>Values are a motivating force to learn a foreign language and to know about the culture of the target language.</p> <p>Language is the value of every nation.</p> <p>Values are discussed during various activities of teaching / learning process.</p> <p>Values encourage motivation to succeed and to grow.</p> <p>ELT is a highly value-laden subject.</p> <p>Language is not just a means of communication but also a powerful tool for thinking and value transfer, thus, for identity formation.</p> <p>Language is a tool for development &amp; reconstruction of the ways students understand the world and themselves.</p> <p>It is not the main purpose of the course, but it is certainly felt throughout.</p>	<p><i>&lt;Values are important if they are values. We each have a variety of them and we see them differently. The subject I teach is inseparable from the social environment and personal contact with students.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Important, but not formally focused. I pay particular attention to values when it comes to the choice of topics for texts, dialogues, speeches.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;It is very important to develop a desire to learn a foreign language.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;The following things are important: improved knowledge of Spanish-speaking countries' cultures and traditions.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Language itself is a value that reflects a person's attitude towards people, the state. Languages, as they are related to thinking, are the values of every nation.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;It is important to develop tolerance and respect for the distinctive and diverse nature of other cultures.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;An important place. I think this is an integral part of the internal learning motivation, the desire to develop, the attitude to a positive development, the need to reflect on what has been successful, to discuss things that need to be improved in order to achieve better results. A positive attitude to activities is the basis for growth and improvement.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Although study programmes focus more on professional subjects, we discuss values during classroom activities, through the analysis of texts and tasks, by students' behavior during lectures, and during breaks&gt;.</i></p> <p><i>&lt;In comparison to other subjects in higher education, ELT is a highly value-laden subject. It allows us to encourage diverse values.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt; I see language not just a tool for communication but also as a powerful tool for thinking and value transfer, thus, for identity formation. &gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Language is a tool for development and reconstruction of the ways students understand the world and themselves.&gt;</i></p>

		<p><i>&lt;It is indirect. It is not the main purpose of the course, but it is certainly felt throughout.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;It is important: I always stress values such as academic integrity and honesty as well as respect for other people's opinions.&gt;</i></p>
--	--	---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Some of the research participants claimed that values are important for the choice of the teaching materials. Others maintained the view that values encourage students' motivation to succeed and to grow as well as to learn a foreign language and to know more about the culture of the target language. It was emphasized by some of the respondents that language is the value of every nation. Nearly all pointed out that ELT is a highly value-laden subject and that it is not just a means of communication but also a very powerful tool for developing critical thinking and value transfer, thus, important for students' identity formation ('<...> language is a tool for development and reconstruction of the ways students understand the world and themselves <...>'). However, one respondent claimed that development of the linguistic competence is not the main purpose of the course, but it is certainly felt throughout, very much depending on the choice of themes studied according to the curriculum and the target audience of students. It should also be mentioned that the respondents' answers demonstrated that some subjects, within the scope of language teaching/ learning, provide more favourable opportunities for the development of values than others, for instance, the course of *English Language for the Students of Philosophy* and the course on *English Morphology* ('<...> Values could be fostered more directly in culture classes than in language classes, especially language classes that teach pure grammar <...>').

The Category of "**Attention to values in the language teaching / learning process**", presented in Table 3 below, is defined by subcategories which reveal the respondents' views on the importance of values in language teaching/ learning process.

**Table 3. Links between values and language teaching / learning process: category "Attention to values in language teaching / learning process" and subcategories.**

Category	Subcategories	Examples of Statements
Attention to values in the language teaching/ learning process	<p>Various values can be found in the educational materials.</p> <p>Value is respect not only for my language but also for other languages &amp; cultures.</p> <p>Students belong to the other generation and have different values.</p> <p>We can influence and develop their values indirectly and subtly.</p>	<p><i>&lt;The themes of various values can be found in the educational material and applied in the classroom.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;I think that enough because current students are very sensitive and are not self-critical, they prefer to criticize others more than to be objective, and therefore they need to be accountable for talking, they can very quickly recognize it as moralization.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt; We feel a lot of freedom at school, and intolerance to accept a different idea. I noticed that young people value love, freedom, health, self-esteem, tolerance, leadership, innovativeness, honesty with oneself more than faithfulness, honesty with respect to others, diligence, self-criticism, respect for the person, responsibility.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;The value is respect not only for my language but also for other languages and cultures (I also present the views of other countries on the state language, language policy). I consider citizenship (not only nationality) as a value and try to talk about it.&gt;</i></p>

		<p><i>&lt; I appreciate the students' desire to improve and improve their work / activities / tasks. As the Lithuanian language is essential, one of the most important components in the whole content of education, I want future teachers to have a true understanding of education from the content of my subjects. &gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt; I believe that feedback is one of the most important elements not only for personal evaluation, but also to maintain the feeling that there is always something to improve, there is always where to improve. And such a teacher is a value.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;The way I understand values is a set of beliefs about what is good and right. In my opinion, I do not give enough attention to this issue, which is also typical to many language educators.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;We, language educators, and our students belong to different generational cohorts that share different systems of values, which is what makes things complicated. What I might see as an important value to be preserved, students, who belong to Generation X, may consider of little importance.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;I do pay attention, but I never talk about it, except maybe with students of philosophy. When we talk about ethics, my values are probably felt in the questions I ask them.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Probably in the topics we choose to do with them, and our approach to those topics. We can influence and develop their values indirectly and subtly.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Yes, because I not only simply tell my students where they can find information regarding a problematic issue, but also teach them – e.g. I explain how to make references and paraphrase sources of literature correctly in order not to plagiarise.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Besides, I teach them by my personal example. To illustrate, at the beginning of the course I explain what academic integrity is and why cheating is not acceptable, and I never tolerate academic cheating.&gt;</i></p>
--	--	---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Some of the research participants acknowledged an evident need to develop students' value attitudes as ('<...> students are very sensitive and are not self-critical, they prefer to criticize others more than to be objective <...>'). Others claim the importance of values to be linked with cultures of the target language ('<...> value is respect not only for my language but also for other languages and cultures <...>'). Some others stated that values are different and everyone has different value attitudes, therefore they try to avoid the topic of values ('<...> students belong to the other generation and have different values <...>'), whereas others expressed the view that development of value attitudes might be indirect ('<...> we can influence and develop their values indirectly and subtly <...>'). O Some research participants highlighted that academic integrity and students' desire to improve are of great importance for university education.

The Category of “*Teaching methods to develop students’ value attitudes in the language teaching / learning process*”, presented in Table 4 below, is specified by subcategories that determine the choice of teaching / learning methods that assure successful integration of values into the language teaching / learning process.

**Table 4. Links between values and the language teaching / learning process: category “*Teaching methods to develop students’ value attitudes in language teaching / learning process*” and subcategories.**

Category	Subcategories	Examples of statements
Teaching methods to develop students’ value attitudes in language teaching / learning process	Involving students in peer or group assessment and self-assessment, extensive use of communicative language teaching and action-based approaches, discussion to encourage critical thinking.	<p>&lt;From frontal, group and individual work&gt;</p> <p>&lt;Discussion of the presented information (raising issues), discussion, justification of the opinion.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;Analysis of texts and videos, discussions in small groups on a variety of cultural and linguistic phenomena, presentations on selected cultural themes.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;Brainstorming activities, case analysis, movie / text discussions, all methods can be applied.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;I do not agree with the idea that "values" can be taught. You just need to talk with the students, select a topic you are teaching in order to have a discussion, share experiences.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;The presentation of examples and the promotion of critical thinking - the best methods.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;Whatever the work, I always ask students to distinguish at least three advantages and two aspects to be improved. If it is organized in pairs or groups, the activities are evaluated by all the members of the group; performance results are evaluated in equal parts jointly by students and a lecturer according to previously developed criteria&gt;</p> <p>&lt;Through the extensive use of communicative language teaching and action-based approach, which is prioritized in the new CEFR document.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;Probably in the topics we choose to do with them, and our approach to those topics. We can influence and develop their values indirectly and subtly.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;By explaining, analysing examples, and discussing difficult issues&gt;</p>

This category reveals such notional contexts as: involving students in peer group assessment, and self-assessment, extensive use of communicative language teaching and action-based approaches, discussion to encourage students’ critical thinking (‘<...> discussions in small groups on a variety of cultural and linguistic phenomena <...>’). Some teachers expressed a very strong opinion on the development of values (‘<...> I do not agree with the idea that "values" can be taught. You just need to talk with the students, select a topic you are teaching in order to have a discussion, share experiences <...>’) supporting her argument by the statement that the best method is the presentation of examples and the promotion of critical thinking.

The Category of “*Importance of the development of values in plurilingual education*”, presented in Table 5 below, revealed the teachers’ viewpoints to the place of values in the language teaching / learning process.

**Table 5. Links between values and the language teaching / learning process: category “Importance of the development of values in plurilingual education” and subcategories.**

Category	Subcategories	Examples of statements
Importance of the development of values in plurilingual education	<p>Comparison of one’s and other countries’ cultures, highlighting their similarities and differences;</p> <p>The need to develop tolerance and respect for the distinctive and diverse nature of other cultures;</p> <p>the mission of language lecturers, as the representatives of the sciences of humanities, is to promote other cultures and to respect their own;</p> <p>value attitudes are very important as they are the "engine" of all life; higher education is the place where the growth and maturation of the learner as a whole human being should be inspired and reinforced;</p> <p>nowadays it’s particularly important because there are many international students who come from different cultures.</p>	<p>&lt;More important is the comparison of one's and other countries' cultures, highlighting their similarities and differences.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;I do not like "education" as a term, because it implies the development of some fixed ability and qualities that can be measured. From this point of view, the development of value attitudes in adult education is nonsense, because it is a matter of choice, they change according to the situation, cannot be measured.&gt;</p> <p>&lt; In the context of language teaching, it is worth developing a knowledge of potential values (such as a particular culture) that is needed for understanding and interpreting foreign languages and subjects of linguistic ethics ("traffic rules")&gt;</p> <p>&lt;The need to develop tolerance and respect for the distinctive and diverse nature of other cultures.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;Language is a very grateful thing when comparing peoples' cultures, discussing different situations, it is possible to speak directly about it through examples, tasks, to get an opinion, and from the answers to understand the importance of values and the place of values in the life of each student, in his / her environment.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;It's important because subjects of humanities are decreasing in higher education. Thus, the mission of language lecturers, as the representatives of the sciences of humanities, is to promote other cultures and to respect their own, and is becoming more and more important.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;Value attitudes are very important as they are the "engine" of all life, which determines not only language learning but also the quality of any activity. After all, the person's independence, responsibility, ability to express his or her opinion, depend on value attitudes.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;Because higher education is the place where the growth and maturation of the learner as a whole human being should be inspired and reinforced.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;In plurilingual education the value of multiculturalism could be developed, although by choosing to study a foreign language and culture, students probably already have a multicultural mindset. It could be further enforced in the classroom, though.&gt;</p> <p>&lt;It's always been necessary, but nowadays it's particularly</p>

		<i>important because there are many international students who come from different cultures, which can result in misunderstandings.&gt;</i>
--	--	---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Some of them expressed a view that you cannot teach values as they cannot be measured ('<...> I do not like "education" as a term, because it implies the development of some fixed ability and qualities that can be measured <...>'). Others expressed similar views to the ideas presented in CERF (2017): ('<...> Comparison of one's and other countries' cultures, highlighting their similarities and differences; the need to develop tolerance and respect for the distinctive and diverse nature of the other culture <...>'). Most of them agreed that values are important in the language teaching / learning process by expressing very similar opinions about it ('<...> the mission of language lecturers, as the representatives of the sciences of humanities, is to promote other cultures and to develop students' respect for their own <...>'). Other research participants highlighted that value attitudes are very important as they are the "engine" of all life and pointed out the role of universities in the development of value attitudes of students ('<...> higher education is the place where the growth and maturation of the learner as a whole human being should be inspired and reinforced <...>'). Still others related the importance of values with the process of internalisation of higher education ('<...> nowadays it's particularly important because there are many international students who come from different cultures <...>').

The Category of "Ways value attitudes of students could be fostered in plurilingual education" is presented in Table 6 below.

**Table 6. Links between values and language teaching / learning process: category "Ways value attitudes of students could be fostered in plurilingual education" and subcategories.**

Category	Subcategories	Examples of statements
Ways value attitudes of students could be fostered in plurilingual education	Social interaction and group work. Raising awareness of students. Discussion, justification of the opinion, presentations on a chosen cultural theme.	<By organizing much of social interaction and group work. Setting up common ground rules with agreed values could also help group members to foster them.> <By broadening their views of other cultures and universal themes and attitudes, they can develop a sense of what is considered good and what bad. > <They could also be taught not to accept any idea at face value, but to critically appraise it and form their own opinion about it.> <By developing students' understanding of the role of values in higher education> <Through the educational material, through student self-examination, through the improvement of psychological health in society.> <Discussion of the presented information (raising issues), discussion, justification of the opinion.> <Preparing meetings and general lectures with native speakers; discussions in small groups on a variety of cultural and linguistic phenomena, presentations on a chosen cultural theme.> <Through theoretical and practical materials, analytical reading, situation / case analysis, problem solving, the personality of the teacher - his personal experience and

		<p><i>experiences, as well as student experiences, events in the world and in Lithuania, and their discussion and correct interpretation.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;To encourage interest in your own history, geography, politics - Lithuania is a most unknown land.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;I think it should be integrated in all activities, promoting both the development of their own abilities, self-assessment of activities, and the evaluation of the activities of group friends or colleagues.&gt;</i></p>
--	--	--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

This Category is explained by the subcategories of social interaction and group work (*'<...> Setting up common ground rules with agreed values could also help group members to foster values <...>'*), raising awareness of students (*'<...> students could also be taught not to accept any idea at face value, but to critically appraise it and form their own opinion about it <...>'*), discussion, justification of the opinion, presentations on a chosen cultural theme, which express very similar ideas mentioned in the category describing teaching / learning methods. Some of the respondents mentioned the personality of the teacher as well as students' experience to be of great importance (*'<...> teacher's personal experience as well as students' experiences, events in the world and in Lithuania, and their discussion and their interpretation <...>'*).

The Category of **"Values to be fostered in the language teaching / learning process"**, presented in Table 7 below, defines the values that could be fostered in the language teaching/ learning process.

**Table 7. Links between values and the language teaching / learning process: category "Values to be fostered in language teaching / learning process" and subcategories.**

Category	Subcategories	Examples of statements
Values that could be fostered in the language teaching / learning process	Multiculturalism, tolerance and empathy. Respect for different cultures, tolerance regarding different opinions, and academic integrity.	<p><i>&lt;The most important thing is a desire to learn if you are studying and the path is chosen. Formation of the attitudes takes place in education from the family, later in a healthy society.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;love, freedom, health, self-esteem, tolerance, leadership, innovativeness, honesty, diligence, self-criticism, respect for the person, responsibility, patriotism, hope, beauty ....&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Respect for your country and language, knowledge of other cultures, and language skills. Conversational skills; Respect for your own and other cultures - it is possible when you know them, honesty in task performance independent thinking.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt;Respect for human dignity, respect for different nationalities, acknowledgment of diversity, equality of human rights, tolerance for ambiguity, supportive dialogue, perseverance, being able to engage into critical but constructive dialogue, even empathy.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt; respect for the learner's principles, and be honest and responsible both in delivering content and in assessing achievements.&gt;</i></p> <p><i>&lt; Students have to be taught these things as well. This is especially important for mutual interaction. Agreements and</i></p>

		<p><i>compliance with them are the cornerstone of working together.&gt;</i>  <i>&lt;Tolerance for other languages and cultures, empathy, the desire to learn languages and love for the native language.&gt;</i>  <i>&lt;Apart from multiculturalism, tolerance and empathy in general, I think. Values could be fostered more directly in culture classes than in language classes, especially language classes that teach pure grammar. &gt;</i>  <i>&lt;By fostering their interest and curiosity, an instructor can stimulate students to learn more, and that could hopefully lead them to study relevant issues from all angles and become well-rounded beings.&gt;</i>  <i>&lt;Respect for different cultures, tolerance regarding different opinions, and academic integrity.&gt;</i></p>
--	--	-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

The notional content of this category shows that teachers rank *multiculturalism, tolerance and empathy*; they also mentioned *respect for different cultures* ('<...> *Respect for your country and language <...>, <...> Respect for human dignity, respect for different nationalities, acknowledgment of diversity, equality of human rights <...>*'), *tolerance* regarding different opinions ('<...> *tolerance for ambiguity, supportive dialogue, perseverance, being able to engage into critical but constructive dialogue, even empathy <...>*') and *academic integrity*.

It should be pointed out that similar tendencies have emerged in the research into values in plurilingual education, conducted in 2013 when university teachers from Ukraine, Georgia, and Latvia, who participated in Tempus project "Development and Introduction of Multilingual Teacher Education programmes at universities of Georgia and Ukraine (DIMTEGU)" (No. 530360-TEMPUS-12012-1GE-TEMPUS-JPCR2012 – 2014), were interviewed by using the same data collection technique. By answering the question if they pay enough attention to values in the language teaching / learning process, the research participants demonstrated similar viewpoints to the ones expressed by the language teachers of the Lithuanian universities. Most of them were aware of the necessity for values in education, some others' awareness level of it was lower. It could be mentioned, however, that the research participants provided a more extensive enumeration of the teaching / learning methods for the development of value attitudes than the Lithuanian interviewees. They have mentioned experiential learning, problem-based teaching, project work, cooperative learning, reflection, culture oriented approach, communicative activities, active learning, discussions, brainstorming, case-studies, presentations, debates. Some of their answers revealed some deeper insights into the reality of the application of enumerated teaching / learning methods ('<...> *teaching values in an inexplicit way; speaking about cultural values, British or American culture; the best method is immersion; by showing to students the rich cultural heritage of a given culture; by providing knowledge that the gap between cultures is always a challenge to bridge over <...>*'). By providing the answers to the question why the development of values is necessary in plurilingual education they mentioned that values determine one's behavior, therefore it is important to develop students' values. They have also stressed the fact that plurilingualism itself presupposes respect for other cultures, democracy and diversity ('<...> *It strengthens one's love of the native language and culture as well as the culture of others <...>*'). Some others expressed similar ideas ('<...> *plurilingual education is based on values, helps form empathy to other cultures, respect to other nations, values make the multilingual education full-fledged, develops the perception of equality <...>*'), which undoubtedly prove the research participants' understanding of the importance of values in plurilingual education.

## Conclusions

The empirical research data analysis leads to the following conclusions that could be made: university teachers are aware of the necessity of the development of values in plurilingual education. Nearly all the teacher experts, who participated in the research, agree that teaching languages is inseparable from cultural issues and that values are embedded in the cultures of the target languages. In terms of teaching / learning methods, the most appropriate ones seemed to be: involving students in peer or group assessment and self-assessment, extensive use of communicative language teaching and action-based approaches, discussion to encourage students' critical thinking. The interviewees' answers also revealed that university teachers have to purposefully choose appropriate teaching / learning materials to develop students' value attitudes. The interviewees' answers revealed that the most important values that should be fostered during language teaching/ learning process are: *multiculturalism, tolerance and empathy; respect for different cultures, tolerance regarding different opinions, and academic integrity.*

## References

- A framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures. Retrieved from <http://carap.ecml.at/Descriptorsofresources/tabid/2654/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>
- Beacco & Byram (2003). Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe. Language Policy Division Council of Europe. [https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/FullGuide\\_EN.pdf](https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/FullGuide_EN.pdf)
- Byram, Michael. (2000). Assessing intercultural competence. *Sprogforum* 18 (6): 8-13. [http://inet.dpb.dpu.dk/infodok/sprogforum,Espr\\_nr18.html](http://inet.dpb.dpu.dk/infodok/sprogforum,Espr_nr18.html). Accessed 27 August 2009.
- CARAP / FREPA Project Training Kit. FREPA and educational language policies. (2012). Retrieved from <http://carap.ecml.at/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=FIuVnewvfZ0%3d&tabid=2964&language=en-GB>
- Clark, J. B., Vanthuyne, A., & Mady, C. (2014). Exploring Reflexivity and Multilingualism in Three French Language Teacher Education Programs. *Canadian Journal Of Applied Linguistics*, 17(1), 129-155.
- Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment companion volume with new descriptors. Provisional Edition September 2017. Language Policy Programme Education Policy Division Education Department Council of Europe. Retrieved from <https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learning-teaching/168074a4e2>
- Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment. Language Policy Unit, Strasbourg [www.coe.int/lang-CEFR](http://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR). Retrieved from [https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/framework\\_en.pdf](https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/framework_en.pdf)
- Fielding, R. (2016). Students' use of their plurilingual resources in Australian schools. *Language & Education: An International Journal*, 30(4), 361 - 377. doi:10.1080/09500782.2015.1114631
- Jeoffrion, C., Marcouyeux, A., Starkey-Perret, R., Narcy-Combes, M., & Birkan, I. (2014). From multilingualism to plurilingualism: university students' beliefs about language learning in a monolingual context. *Language, Culture & Curriculum*, 27(1), 8-26. doi:10.1080/07908318.2014.887724
- Kalbų mokymo politikos aprašas: Lietuva. Kalbų politikos skyrius Strasbūre. Lietuvos Respublikos švietimo ir mokslo ministerija, 2004 - 2006. (2006). Vilnius: Švietimo aprūpinimo centras.

- Klaus Børge Boeckmann, Eija Aalto, Andrea Abel, Tatjana Atanasoska and Terry Lamb. (2011). Promoting plurilingualism - Majority language in multilingual settings. European Centre for Modern Languages. Council of Europe Publishing.
- Lobo, P. (2016). Foreign Language Education in the 21st European Context: Exploring New Directions in Intercultural and Plurilingual Approaches Using Anzaldúa's Border Epistemology. *E-Teals: An E-Journal of Teacher Education & Applied Language Studies*, (7), 70 - 86. doi:10.1515/eteals-2016-0008
- López, C. C., & González-Davies, M. (2016). Switching codes in the plurilingual classroom. *ELT Journal: English Language Teaching Journal*, 70(1), 67-77. doi:10.1093/elt/ccv056
- May, Larry. (1987). *The Morality of Groups: collective responsibility, group-based harm and corporate rights*. Notre Dame: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Moore, E., Nussbaum, L., & Borràs, E. (2013). Plurilingual teaching and learning practices in 'internationalised' university lectures. *International Journal of Bilingual Education & Bilingualism*, 16(4), 471 - 493. doi:10.1080/13670050.2012.702724
- Moore, E. (2014). Constructing content and language knowledge in plurilingual student teamwork: situated and longitudinal perspectives. *International Journal of Bilingual Education & Bilingualism*, 17(5), 586 - 609. doi:10.1080/13670050.2013.860947
- Moore, E. (2014). Constructing content and language knowledge in plurilingual student teamwork: situated and longitudinal perspectives. *International Journal of Bilingual Education & Bilingualism*, 17(5), 586 - 609. doi:10.1080/13670050.2013.860947
- Newby, D., Allan, R., Fenner, A., Jones, B., Komorowska, H., Soghikyan, K. (2007). European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages A reflection tool for language teacher education. European Centre for Modern Languages, Council of Europe, February 2007. <http://www.ecml.at/epostl>
- Neuliep, James. (2006). *Intercultural Communication. A contextual approach*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. California: Sage Publications.
- Prasad, G. (2015). Beyond the mirror towards a plurilingual prism: exploring the creation of plurilingual 'identity texts' in English and French classrooms in Toronto and Montpellier. *Intercultural Education*, 26(6), 497 - 514. doi:10.1080/14675986.2015.1109775
- Pujol-Ferran, M., DiSanto, J. M., Rodríguez, N. N., & Morales, A. (2016). Exploring Plurilingual Pedagogies across the College Curriculum. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 72(4), 530 - 549. doi:10.3138/cmlr.3306
- Scarino, A., Liddicoat, A. J. (2009). *Language, Culture and Learning*. Australian Government Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations. ISBN: 978 1 74200 081 7. Retrieved from [http://www.tllg.unisa.edu.au/lib\\_guide/gllt\\_ch2.pdf](http://www.tllg.unisa.edu.au/lib_guide/gllt_ch2.pdf)
- Starkey-Perret, R., & Narcy-Combes, M. (2017). Implementing a plurilingual programme in a university in France. *Language, Culture & Curriculum*, 30(2), 174 - 197. doi:10.1080/07908318.2016.1217232
- Tolosa, C., Biebricher, C., East, M., & Howard, J. (2018). Intercultural language teaching as a catalyst for teacher inquiry. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 70227 - 235. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2017.11.027
- Valstybinė švietimo strategija 2013 – 2022 m.: tikslai, problemos, tobulinimo kryptys. (2012). 2012, spalio Nr. 17 (81) ISSN 1822 - 4156. Retrieved from [https://www.smm.lt/uploads/documents/kiti/201210\\_Nr\\_17\\_Valstybine\\_svietimo%20strategija.pdf](https://www.smm.lt/uploads/documents/kiti/201210_Nr_17_Valstybine_svietimo%20strategija.pdf)

**Todua Ana, Chumburidze Rusudan**

*Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University*

## **Integrated Learning of the Georgian Language and Civic Education within the “1+4” program**

### **Abstract**

Integration of minorities and civil involvement are some of the most important components of a country's democratic development. The changes made in the education policy of Georgia, that were executed on November 19, 2009 were aimed to strengthen integration of ethnic minorities, their access to education and civic engagement. It has been 5 years already since these changes led to establishing a successful preferential policy for ethnic Armenian and Azerbaijani high school graduates entering higher education institutions.

During this period, several educational-methodical guidelines have been developed and different methods of learning have been introduced within the framework of the Georgian Language Education Program. However, the necessity of the methodological improvement of the Georgian language learning and the introduction of modern and systematic approaches is still essential. In the course of this study the need for pragmatic approach to language teaching became evident, where emphasis will be made on the development of communicative competence. This approach of language learning implies diversity and general change of topics and text types. Within this method, the student is not only a passive participant, but also a co-creator of knowledge. An Integration method, together with language learning, will increase the students' competence in different directions, most importantly in civic education, as well as will furnish them with presentation, communication, teamwork and free speech skills, allowing students to be informed, to be able to state their own position and help them to become active citizens. An Integrated Learning of Georgian Language and Civic Education program effectively meets all these criteria.

The efficiency of the language and subject integrated teaching approach in a higher educational institution is proved by the completed project “Earth Calendar”, which was financed by the “Open Society Foundation - Georgia”. Such a resource had been created, which was adjusted to the integrated teaching approach of the language and subject at the university level.

Within the project, a study and a course of training have been carried out. Also, the textbook “Earth Calendar” for the TSU Preparatory (Prep) Program within the piloting policy has been piloted during the term.

It should be said, that the approach was successful. By the end of the term, the feedback has been obtained, which proved the efficiency of the integrated teaching of a language and Civic Education and the urgency of the topics given in the textbook.

**Key words:** *Integration of minorities, language learning, integrated teaching of a language and Civic Education*

Integration of minorities and civil involvement are two of the most important components of the country's democratic development. Isolation regarding lack of information is considered as a hindering factor of integration, which is directly linked to the access to education for minorities.

Integration of ethnic minorities, access to education and civic engagement are aimed to strengthen the changes that took place in education policy, which came into force in November 19, 2009, and is concerned with the higher education institutions presenting ethnic Armenian and Azerbaijani with a more advantageous policy of enrolment.

In Georgian higher education institutions for the past 7 years, students of minority groups have been successfully enrolled in a Georgian language preparatory program, which is often referred to as the "1 + 4" program. Based on the statistical data, from 2010 until now, most students have joined TSU Jano Javakhishvili University, which, of course, indicates the success of the program.

From the beginning of the program up to now, TSU has developed a number of teaching methods within the frames of the educational program of teaching the Georgian language. However, it should also be noted, that the necessity of implementing methodological improvements of the Georgian language teaching and modern, systematic approaches are still relevant. Most of the educational-methodical textbooks are only focused on teaching the Georgian language, which, based on our experiences, because of the specifics of students of this program, are not effective. Moreover, participation in lecture activities is not a panacea for the development of civic consciousness and intercultural sensitivity of these students. In spite of studying the language at a certain level, the representatives of ethnic minorities (with certain exceptions) are less integrated into Georgian-speaking societies from the social-cultural point of view. Taking this into consideration, teaching methodical textbooks on the program "1 + 4" are desirable to raise the civic awareness of the students as well. We have conducted our research in this direction, employing the method of in-depth interviews and questionnaires. Within the scope of the study the students anonymously answered the questionnaires created by a sociologist: they assessed the textbooks and were asked to give feedback regarding the needs and desires concerning the academic process, method or approach. Over 300 students were interviewed. The results of the study showed that students were interested in activities such as civic education, information-awareness and entertainment topics. Taking the above mentioned into consideration, we decided to write a book, within the framework of 1 + 4 program, based on new guidelines and methods (such an integrated teaching of the language and civic education) where the emphasis in the teaching process would be on developing communication competences.

This approach of language learning implies the diversity and systemic changes regarding the topics and text types, as a student is not only a passive participant but also a co-creator of knowledge. As a sort of reflection, we decided to set up an approach that would fit into the "1 + 4" program specifications. Taking into account the fact that students were less integrated in Georgian society, thus were less active in civic activities, the method of integration of the Georgian language and civic education was selected.

Many academic research has been carried out on the CLIL methodology. In most cases, it is considered to be an effective method and, moreover, nowadays, it is actively used in different countries in the process of language teaching all around the world.

A traditional method was adjusted to "1 + 4" program and we made an attempt to find a necessary direction for students - civic education. Along with the aspect of language teaching, topics were selected to focus on increasing civic consciousness of students.

Why civic education? Raising civic awareness in young people starts at a school age and involves the development of important skills such as assessment and correction of their own perceptions and behaviors, understanding and protection of the rights and obligations of self and others, involvement in civic activities and volunteering, setting goals; generating ideas, initiations and ways to implement them, caring for life in every day and emergency situations, following a healthy lifestyle, etc. The list as we see is quite large and essential for life.

Our objectives are to: 1. Promote social and cultural integration into a Georgian-language environment of Armenian and Azeri students of national minorities; 2. Expand their knowledge, introduction of complex activities in lessons, along with language teaching, raise students' competencies in different directions (for example, reasoning, convincing, presentation, creative skills, etc.); 3. Adjusting the calendar event format onto

the study process. Having this in mind, the project "the Earth Calendar" was written and is already funded and implemented by "Open Society Georgia" Foundation. Within the framework of the project, a methodical guide has been developed which has already been successfully implemented in the pilot format for the 1 + 4 program. The book, as we have already mentioned, is aimed at raising civic awareness and the topics are selected in this regard. Together with the use of the integration method, a new approach has been followed, which we believe is a novelty for the 1 + 4 program and makes it more effective and interesting. The topics selected in the book coincide with the dates (e.g., AIDS Day - 1 December, Earth Day - 22 April, Autism Day - April 2, Tree Planting Day - October 22, International Day for Volunteers - December 5, International Science Day - November 11, Earth Hour - March 28, etc.), which make the topics not only interesting, but also relevant for the students. This gives them the opportunity to be informed and to express their opinion and to be involved in a variety of fun activities.

I think the adjustment of the calendar format is a methodical tool for the lecturer. Besides the available material and educational resources, it is also possible to plan classroom work in a manner that reflects the reality, and develops communication skills of the student.

In addition, the above mentioned activities will facilitate the process of studying the language. As well as this, it will be a kind of cognitive process in different directions, such as civic education, gender issues, cultural diversity, tolerance, advocacy, education...

It is noteworthy that by studying important dates and participating in these activities, students are presented with the opportunity to expand the worldview, reflect on their own culture in the context of other cultures; become yet more integrated into the Georgian culture and at the same time perceive themselves as a world citizen.

The criteria below were used to create the "1 + 4" program employed to prepare the material to work with the students of the program.

The study material was selected according to the following principles: 1. Consideration of the calendar format approach; 2. Interesting and relevant issues regarding the age of the students (30 topics); 3. Focusing on topical vocabulary.

Criteria for selection of topics were as follows: 1. Awareness - raising (civil, cultural and social integration); 2. Functional - oriented towards raising conscious awareness (in real social situations) 3. Something unusual, original, different, varied, fun. Taking everything into consideration, the topics we have chosen may be grouped as follows:

In the block, which combines the importance of ecology and healthy lifestyle; combined topics: hiking, flower and tree planting day, wildlife day, earth day, world without tobacco;

Raising civil awareness and diversity: Cultural Diversity Day, Native Language Day, Flag Day, Down Syndrome Day, Elderly Day, Day of Kindness;

Topics concerning human rights and education: Mutual Respect Day, Greeting Day, Free Press Day, Compliment Day, Literature Day, Museum Day, Science Day, Firefighter Day;

Information-related topics include: Tea Day, New Year, Hug Day, Unusual Hobby Day, Board Games Day, Clock Ticking Day, Bread Day, Good Neighbor Day.

All topics are made up of methodically worked out structures.

In order to illustrate how the above mentioned methodical approaches are used during the lecture, one topic from the textbook is given as an example.

Mutual Respect Day, which is celebrated on September 18, is developed using a variety of activities, the number of which reaches 24 and includes various types of tasks. The processing of the topic begins with the introduction of the content, the keywords and list of key issues that will be processed during the lecture;

- 
- 'Before' reading activity: brainstorming that aims to elicit students' opinions on the issue, and to spark interest in them (e.g., what does the word respect mean? Mutual respect; name several people you respect; explain how these people deserve respect);
  - Work on vocabulary and dictionaries (e.g., searching for words in the definition / synonyms dictionary (e.g., finding words that are synonymous with the word respect);
  - Creation of an associative and concept map;
  - Reading and processing the first base text (with the accompanying tasks that are intended for understanding and analyzing the text: questions and answers, open and multiple choice tests, finishing sentences, etc.);
  - Processing of audiovisual resources (for example, conveying content, discussing animations: what is respect and appreciation, how is the essence of respect depicted in the animation? How convincing is it? What would you change in the animation?);
  - Rôle Play / Dialogues: To select the desired option from the list of suggested options and present it together with the partner (e.g. answer the question politely; behave politely in public places - in the shop - queue, in the street if you accidentally bump into someone...)
  - Coming up with a short story based on the suggested photos;
  - Read and process the second text (with the accompanying tasks that are intended for understanding and analyzing the text: question-answer, open and multiple choice tests, inserting relevant keywords in the sentences, justifying the choices);
  - Reading and processing of the third text (question-answer, open and multiple choice tests, inserting relevant keywords in the sentences, giving titles to the text/letter, discussion, substantiating opinions, making sentences using key words; describing (real / imaginary) a person, who has earned respect, individually or together with a partner);
  - Reading and processing of the fourth text (with the accompanying tasks intended for understanding and analyzing the text: question- answer, true / false, open and multiple choice tests, inserting relevant / synonymous words in the sentences, making up sentences using key words, etc.);
  - Processing of audiovisual resources (video, "Good / Bad Team"- talking about the content, , discussing, summarizing content);
  - Generating discussion about the topic (with the help of the support questions for the discussion: how should we behave, what should we do and not do in the learning environment, how to behave equally politely towards everyone? What are the differences between the good and bad teams? What is a must to succeed in team work?);
  - Ideas for assignments that can be used in the classroom as well as homework (find / remember the definition of "respect"), describe how you did and did not express respect to others; make a Respectable People list and explain the reason why they were included in the list; Interview - think of some important questions you would ask these respectable people at the interview; individually or with a partner, make a poster about Mutual Respect Day; think of (look up in the dictionary) five words that can be used as antonyms of the word "respect"; Imagine how the world would change if more people expressed respect for each other; find five photos in which, in your opinion, is reflected the notion of "respect", etc.

As can be seen, activities are quite diverse and interesting. Texts presented belong to different types both printed and multimedia: information-cognitive, scientific, letters, etc. There are a lot of texts, but that does not mean that employing all of them is compulsory. The lecturer will select an appropriate text and activities according to students' interest and study objectives.

In order to test the method and confirm its effectiveness, a research and training cycle was conducted within the project, and a supporting textbook for the TSU preparatory program: "Earth Calendar" was tested

in the pilot mode during the semester. It can be said that the approach was successful. The feedback at the end of the semester confirmed the effectiveness of integration of the language and civic education and also, the importance of the topics presented in the manual.

Consequently, we think the introduction of the method of CLIL into the university level will be an effective tool for the language use. This approach will help students of the "1 + 4" program to increase their language and civic awareness.

## References

- CLIL - Content and Language Integrated Learning (Do Koyle, Philip Hood and David Marcy) 2016.  
Submission for the Universal Periodic Review on Georgia on the Rights of National Minorities in Georgia,  
Prepared by: Public Movement "Multinational Georgia, 11.07.2010.  
Textbook "the Earth Calendar" in the Georgian Language Preparatory Program. Tbilisi, 2017, p. 21.  
The United Nations Association of Georgia "Strengthening National Integration in Georgia" - Civil Integration  
Research, 2014.

**Totibadze Sopio**

*Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University*

## **The Role of Mother Tongue in Second Language Acquisition**

### **Abstract**

In the first part of this paper, the author discusses the importance of the first language in the process of learning English as a second language as explored by previous researchers. In the second part, the author describes the results obtained, in two small case studies, among the students of different ethnic backgrounds learning the English language. The present paper consists of two parts. The first part is comprised of online questionnaire answers provided by Georgian, Mandarin, Hindi and Lithuanian speakers, where participants were asked to answer questions regarding their experience while learning English and whether they were encouraged to use their MTs in the process. The second study was conducted at the International School of the Hague (ISH). Five students were interviewed and recorded as they shared their experiences of using their MTs during the learning process.

The research generates mixed pictures, however most of the participants agree on the importance of their mother tongues in learning the target language.

**Key Words:** *Sociolinguistics, first language/mother tongue, second language, language learning, sociolinguistic competence.*

### **Introduction**

Amongst other things, globalization brings about the importance of acquiring different languages of the world. However, learning a second language might be a very challenging and stressful experience for a learner, especially at an early age. Therefore, in order to make this process less demanding and more enjoyable, numerous linguistic studies set out to investigate the factors which accelerate the process of the acquisition of the L2 and, in addition, which help the students score higher in sociolinguistic competence (MacWhinney, 2008; Lado, 1957). Recent theories in linguistics and pedagogy put an emphasis on the relevance of the mother tongue in the process of learning another language and present it as an asset that a child can bring to the classroom. In other words, L1 is presented as a powerful base on which the second language can be built on (Cummins, 2001). However, it is also worth noting that a native tongue can not only be classed as a welcome foundation for the second language acquisition, but also as a hindrance. It is also maintained that both similarities as well as differences between the two languages should be pointed out to a student as it will only be beneficial for a learner to see the links or contrasts between the L1 and the L2 (Bybee, 2008).

This paper firstly aims to review the research concerning the importance of the mother tongue in the process of second language acquisition. The research is based on qualitative data of two small case studies - an online questionnaire, conducted in four different language groups (Georgian, Lithuanian, Mandarin and Hindi) and interviews at the International School of the Hague (ISH)<sup>1</sup>. This paper investigates what the learners think about the role of their native tongues while acquiring English as a second language.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The main aim of acquiring a language is to be able to exchange ideas appropriately with others and ultimately to achieve a high level of *sociolinguistic* and *grammatical competence* (Geeslin & Long, 2014).

---

<sup>1</sup> This case study was conducted within the course 'Sociolinguistics of SLA' at Leiden University by Sopio Totibadze, Mindy McCracken, Lisanne Voges, Samah Rahmeh and Claire Veldhuizen.

However, to do so, according to the previous researches (Lado, 1964; Bybee, 2008; Cummins, 2000, 2001), one initially must have a deep understanding of their first language. Even more, the ability to comprehend the structure of their mother tongue will assist the learners to better understand the socio-cultural and structural aspects of the L2. In addition, the skills of L1 can easily be channeled to the second language as speakers already have the concepts and ‘chunks’ (Bybee, 2008) in their first language that simply are translated into the second language. For instance, when one knows how to tell time in their L1, they will only need to learn the new labels and ‘surface structures’ in another language for the skill that they already have. This, undoubtedly, makes the acquisition process less stressful and challenging (Cummins, 2001). One of the cognitive approaches to language learning, Connectionism, also stresses the importance of the first language suggesting that it enhances the process of acquisition by creating patterns of association between the native tongue and their second language (Geeslin & Long, 2014; Gasser, 1990). As well as this, Ellis claims that while L1 is crucial in the beginning of the foreign language learning process, its role gradually decreases when the learner approaches the proficiency level (1985). Lado in ‘Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis’ (1957) also suggests that, based on a comparative study of student’s L1 and L2, a teacher can identify differences between the two and there is a high chance that the student will find those areas most difficult to learn, whereas Andersen (1983) claims that influence of L1 on L2 will only be apparent in those structures where L1 and L2 are parallel.

Apart from the above-mentioned reasons, Cummins in his ‘Interdependence Hypothesis’ disregards the approach that languages are placed in different “boxes” in the brain and, in fact, suggests that psychologically they are very much interdependent. Every language the person speaks is drawn from a ‘common underlying proficiency’ and exactly because of the common source, the languages can influence each other. Specifically, the first language knowledge can be positively reflected and be remarkably instrumental in the second language acquisition (1978). Besides, Cummins puts forward a suggestion that using L1 in the classroom situation can have a strong influence on children’s developing identity. Even more, according to him “to reject a child’s language in the school is to reject the child”, whereas encouragement of L1 during the teaching process will lead to the children bringing “a little bit of home” to school, which will eventually result in an emotional safety leading to a confident speaker of L2 (2001).

## **Data and Methodology**

### **Case Study 1**

The data of for this research are based on a small case study of four distinct first language backgrounds - Georgian, Lithuanian, Mandarin and Hindi speakers who have learned English as their second language. The participants of the online questionnaire were asked to answer several open questions about their experience concerning the process of foreign language acquisition. More precisely, whether they were allowed to use their mother tongue during their classes and whether they considered their native language as a helping tool to the L2 or as a barrier. The participants were also expected to provide specific examples supporting their position. Altogether 21 answers were analyzed comprising of 4 Lithuanian and 4 Mandarin, 5 Hindu and 8 from Georgian native speakers. Out of 21 participants, 8 were male and 13 female, varying mostly within 20 - 30 age groups.

The aforementioned language groups were singled out based on their basic differences in regard to English. Georgian (Kartvelian language group), Hindi (Indic branch from Indo- European language family) and Mandarin Chinese (Sino- Tibetan language family) have their own distinct alphabets, whereas Lithuanian (Baltic branch from Indo-European language family) employs the Latin alphabet composed of 32 letters and has managed to preserve its features from the Proto- Indo European language. Unlike English, which is

characterized with weak inflections, Georgian, Hindi and Lithuanian are highly synthetic languages, whilst Mandarin is analytical with no inflections.

### **Case Study 2**

The second case study was conducted at the International School of the Hague (ISH) which has successfully incorporated the role of the L1 of the students within the process of acquiring a second language. All together 5 students were interviewed, 4 of them were recorded, while one, because of his shy nature, chose to give a written interview.

Participants were of mixed backgrounds (Hungarian, Chinese/German, Hebrew, Serbian and Chinese) and have spent 17 months at ISH. Interestingly, all of the participants came to school with no or very little knowledge of English. The interviewees were asked several questions about the school, their experiences there and what they had to go through while learning English as their second language through their mother tongues. Questions included topics like the first day at school, what was it like to learn another language, what helped them the most on their journey, did they use their mother tongue when learning English, etc.

### **Results and Discussion**

Because of the fact that students are inseparable parts of the learning process, it is extremely interesting to see their standpoint regarding the process. More precisely, it is interesting to know whether the theories about the relevance of the mother tongue in L2 learning are taken in by the students (mostly unaware of the theories) in real life situations and whether they have employed their native language structures in their practice when acquiring English.

### **Case Study 1**

Interestingly, the questionnaire results yield mixed pictures as they vary from one language group to another. However, most of them (11 respondents - 3 Mandarin, 2 Lithuanian, 3 Hindi, 3 Georgian speakers) claim that the use of their native tongues was mostly not encouraged during English classes and they were asked to employ only the target language, especially when the lesson involved group activities. Nevertheless, as some of the participants noted (2 Hindi and 3 Georgian learners), at the beginning stage of learning the English language, their mother languages were used by the teachers to explain grammatical materials and vocabulary. The remaining 5 participants (1 Mandarin, 2 Lithuanian and 2 Georgian speakers) responded that the classes were usually held in their first languages and expressed negative attitudes to this method. In fact, Georgians felt frustrated about it, claiming they would have achieved better results if the classes had been conducted in English, especially after they had already accumulated basic language skills. On the other hand, other participants of the study (2 Lithuanians and 2 Georgians) claimed that they understood the L2 structure better when explained in their L1 and also, when the teacher compared and contrasted relevant examples taken from both languages. This, as pointed out, resulted in their better understanding of the foreign language.

When asked whether their L1 had facilitated or hindered the process of learning English, 3 out of 4 Lithuanians stated they believed L1 to be of a great help as the alphabets are “almost the same” and the basic sentence structures coincide with those in English. This meant first thinking in Lithuanian and then translating the sentences into English. On the other hand, one respondent claimed that L1 had a more negative rather than a positive influence on their skills in English as the two grammars vary significantly and that made it tremendously difficult for their group to grasp the reasons and logic behind using a certain tense, for instance.

Mandarin speakers indicated that they considered their L1 as a hindering factor when learning English. Especially difficult was to learn how to write in a “European” way, as Chinese characters are notably different from the Latin alphabet. Besides, different ways of expressing tenses in these two languages made it

challenging for Mandarin speakers to acquire English as they feel that when confusing tenses interlocutors cannot understand them. As well as this, while Chinese is based on unique tone patterns and sounds, the participants of the study maintained that they had (and have) more difficulties in achieving target like pronunciation and intonation.

Interestingly, all but one native Hindi speakers conveyed that in most of the cases they thought that a good knowledge of Hindi helped them better understand the notions in English. Despite the fact that those two languages are totally different in nature, their L1 provided the students with the “tool” to grab the essence of the words in English. For instance, it made the process of learning new words easier if they were told the meaning in Hindi. However, they also believed that, although translating generally is of great help, the students should be aware of the fact that the exact word to word translation often gives a wrong picture of the context.

As for the Georgian participants, they suppose that to a certain extent Georgian was both a help and a hindrance in the acquisition of the L2. More specifically, possessing a more developed inflectional system than English, Georgian students found it easier to learn certain aspects of grammar. The participants suggested several similarities between the languages pointed out by the teachers: e.g., in English when expressing the present tense –s is added to the third person which is also true for the most third person verbs in Georgian (khatavs- paints; tsers- writes, etc.); a possessive case marker in both languages is also s, for instance, Sophie’s pen- sopios kalami. Interestingly, some of the participants noted the role of religion in the process of acquisition of L2. More precisely, it was indicated that as being part of the Christian culture simplified the understanding of shared socio-cultural peculiarities, especially while acquiring idioms and proverbs in English. On the other hand, phonetically, the interdental (e.g., /θ/) that are not part of the Georgian sound system, were most difficult for the learners to master. As noted by the respondents, what made the process of L2 (English) most difficult, was employing articles properly as they are absent in their L1. Spelling and using capital letters are also listed as barriers to overcome when acquiring English, as in Georgian the number of sounds and letters coincide, whilst capital letters are not used in the language. In addition, while Georgian is characterized by free word order, students found it difficult to stick to SVO structure only. Besides, plurality was also highlighted as difficult to acquire for Georgian learners as in their L1 numerals are followed by nouns in singular (in Georgian it would be correct to say two apple, rather than two apples). Though some of the participants of the survey sided with translation to be used in the process of learning L2, most of the native Georgian speakers suggested that direct translation can generate undesired results due to differences between synthetic structures and word collocations in English and Georgian. For instance, in Georgian it is correct to say ‘I the pill drank’ (me tsamali davlie); and “me and my friend to the cinema went” (me da chemi megobari kinoshi tsavedit), whereas in English is correct to say ‘I took the pill; my friend and I went to the cinema’, respectively.

## Case Study 2

In this case study, all of the participants univocally (partially because of the school policy) suggested that they used their mother tongues in the process of learning English and they found it immensely helpful. Despite the fact that it was hard for them to get round and about on the first day, they had “buddies” with the same language background as them to help them around. This, as they have stated, helped them overcome the stress much better.

To the question “how does their MT help acquiring English”, interviewees answered that they have either by the help of the teachers or by themselves established the links (“bridges”) and came up with tactics how to use their L1s to learn English: “Basically, we learned a lot of tactics to write and we learned other words for the basic words” (Jovan, age 10). Students are also skilled at writing in their own languages and then translating

everything into English. According to them this saves a lot of time and their writings, at this stage, turn out much better than writing directly into L2- “it can help me to remember the words and what it means. We learned about drafting and speedwriting So I just um did it first in Hebrew very fast then just translated all of them and wrote it in English” (Itay, age 10). Interestingly, students who have mixed backgrounds (German and Chinese, for instance), choose the language (in this case, German) that, from their point of view, will help them more in the process of acquisition of L2.

Moreover, interviewees suggested that the school provides a very relaxed atmosphere that undoubtedly accelerates the process of learning. For instance, mistakes, as they say it, are part of the learning process and that “you often learn out of your mistakes, especially if they are really bad” (Tommy, age 10).

## Conclusion

The small-case study, 1, showed that despite the fact that in most cases L1 was not encouraged to be used during the English lessons, students unconsciously or consciously still found ways of incorporating their mother language in the process of the L2 acquisition. Most of the participants (notwithstanding the language they presented) univocally stated that knowing the word in their native language accelerated the process of learning it as they just had only to learn the word form in English and not the meaning of the word. However, it was not considered to be advisable to translate L1 sentences word for word into L2 or *vice versa*. Arguably, an especially relevant and interesting opinion was suggested by a Georgian participant, who noted that even hindrance can become helpful at times. Specifically, if there is a difference between the languages and it is pointed out to the student, the latter will be aware of it and manage to avoid L1 based automatic (transfer) errors when acquiring L2.

On the other hand, the students at ISH (case study 2) who are actively encouraged to use their mother tongues to learn English show a huge improvement in their language skills. Because of the fact that they are allowed to bring “a little bit of home” to school they feel safer, more relaxed and have better results when it comes to learning English and using it on a day-to-day basis. The ability to use their mother tongue to learn L2 helps the students to understand the target language better by establishing links between the languages “as connections” (Itay, age 10). Besides, bilingual students choose independently between their mother tongues based on which is closer to the target language. Using MT in the learning process helps the students to boost their confidence and also creates the sense of belonging. On top of that, most of the participants of the interview feel more connected to their own culture. However, they also state that ISH gives them the opportunity to experience other cultures through their international school peers. This makes them happy and highly motivated to learn.

Thus, to sum up, even though the selected language backgrounds significantly differ from English, the participants (apart from Mandarin speakers) nonetheless found their MT to be mostly useful, even pivotal in the process of learning English, subsequently agreeing that its role is really important and even more, their mother tongues have helped them greatly in the process of fully mastering the second language, including communicative competence.

## References

- Andersen, R. W. (1983). "Transfer to somewhere" In Grass and Selinker (eds.) *Language transfer in Language Learning*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.
- Burgo, C. (2015). GEESLIN, KIMBERLY L. & AVIZIA YIM LONG. *Sociolinguistics and*
- Bybee, Joan. (2008). *Usage-based grammar and second language acquisition*. In P. Robinson and N. Ellis (eds.), *Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Routledge. 216-236.
- Cummins, J. (1979). *Linguistic Interdependence and the Educational Development of Bilingual Children*. *Review of Educational Research*, 49 (2), 222 - 251.
- Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, Power and Pedagogy: Bilingual Children in the Crossfire*.
- Cummins, J. (2001). *Bilingual children's mother tongue: Why is it important for education* *Sprogforum* Vol. 19, pp. 15 - 20
- Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Gasser, M. (1990). *Connectionism and universals of second language acquisition*. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 12, 179 – 199.
- Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Lado, R. (1964). *Language teaching: A scientific approach*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- MacWhinney, B. (2008). *A unified model*. In P. Robinson & N. Ellis (Eds.), *The Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 341 – 371). Routledge.
- Second Language Acquisition: Learning to Use Language in Context*. New York, NY and London, UK: Routledge, 2014.

**Vashakidze Iamze**

*MIA Academym Georgia*

## **Towards some issues of teaching Georgian as a state language to the minorities of Georgia (Azerbaijanis and Armenians)**

### **Abstract**

The main theme of the work is teaching Georgian as a state language to ethnical minorities residing in Georgia. The research is based on the presentation of pedagogical observation, which is developed within the framework of the Georgian Language Education Program. The results of the research based on personal experience will provide practical service to the people involved in the teaching of the state language.

**Key words:** *Teaching the state language; Pedagogical observation*

### **Introduction**

At the current stage of development of Georgia, in the process of formation of the country as an independent state, special interest is paid to teaching Georgian as a state language to ethnic minorities to overcome the language barrier in order to integrate them into Georgian society and to find a job in state organizations etc. In this regard functioning of the educational programs of the Georgian language is significant in Georgian Universities.

The goal of the presented work is to discuss pedagogical observations worked out on the basis of my own practice (an intermediate participant teaching Georgian to Azerbaijanis and Armenians, who did not study in Georgian schools). These pedagogical observations were developed over a number of years at Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University for the English language and Arabian speakers and at the MIA Academy, in the process of teaching the Georgian language to Armenian and Azerbaijani students.

The process of obtaining analytical material can be divided into three stages; these are: preliminary observations, data collection and analysis. This research is focused on examination of specific methodological ideas for the final generalization through the examples obtained in the teaching process.

Three main issues will be discussed in this article:

- Georgian language sounds;
- Verbs of different constructions;
- Forms of personal and demonstrative pronouns.

Before moving to the specific material, I would like to point out that together with Professor T. Putkaradze I am working on a textbook, which focuses on the teaching of Georgian literary language to non-Georgian people living in Georgia and, also, to Georgian people living in other countries. The discussion and relevant exercises below present part of our unpublished manual.

### **Teaching Georgian language sounds**

Armenian and Azerbaijani students living in Georgia have difficulties pronouncing Georgian words. In this respect, Azerbaijanis face a greater challenge. For them (unlike Armenians), it is difficult to perceive and pronounce Georgian sharp sounds. Therefore, based on our practice, we consider the rich material of Georgian toponyms and anthroponyms to be a good resource for phonetic exercises. We believe that this will

facilitate students' adequate perception of the Georgian pronunciation system as well as the establishment of relevant sounds in the perceptual base of Azerbaijani and Armenian students (Japaridze, 1975).

In our guide, particularly, the first four lessons at A-1 level are devoted to the learning of the Georgian alphabet. The material is distributed according to the frequency and origin of the use of speech sounds:

- First lesson: Vowels: a, e, i, o, u and sonorant consonants: v, m, n, r, l;
- Second lesson: Pair consonants: z, s, ž, š, ġ, x; trigraph consonants: g, k', k
- Third lesson: trigraph consonants: d, t', t; j, c', c; ĵ, č', č;
- Fourth lesson: trigraph consonant: b, p', p; single consonants: q, h.

Examples from the third lesson are discussed below. There are 11 academic and practical exercises. In the first exercise, the student should learn to write the compositions of three consonants: d, t', t; j, c', c; ĵ, č', č. For this the first grade notebook (with four lines) is used which shows the direction of writing based on three drawings (the beginning, the middle stage and the end of the letter).

The second exercise is set constructed according to listening, speaking and writing strategies. The student should listen to two video materials and as directed, should repeat the speech sounds: d, t', t; j, c', c; ĵ, č', č practiced in the first video. Having listened to the second video footage, the student should write down the appropriate letters (in the first video the sounds of speech are recorded together with their graphemes whereas in the second video footage only the recorded material is given);

The aim of the third exercise is to teach the above taught sounds of speech with various vowel combinations, namely:

In the first part of the exercise, the student should give the syllables containing these consonants with vowels.

- |                  |               |               |
|------------------|---------------|---------------|
| a) da - t'a - ta | ja - c'a - ca | ĵa - č'a - ča |
| b) de - t'e - te | je - c'e - ce | ĵe - č'e - če |
| c) di - t'i - ti | ji - c'i - ci | ĵi - č'i - či |
| d) do - t'o - to | jo - c'o - co | ĵo - č'o - čo |
| e) du - t'u - tu | ju - c'u - cu | ĵu - č'u - ču |

In the second part of the exercise, the student should listen to the audio recording and in writing underline the pair syllables recorded in the audio file.

- |             |          |
|-------------|----------|
| a) da - t'a | ta - t'a |
| b) de - t'e | te - t'e |
| c) di - t'i | ti - t'i |
| d) do - t'o | to - t'o |
| e) du - t'u | tu - t'u |
| f) ja - ca  | c'a - ca |
| g) je - c'e | ce - c'e |
| h) ji - c'i | ci - c'i |
| i) jo - c'o | co - c'o |
| j) ju - c'u | cu - c'u |
| k) ĵa - č'a | ča - č'a |
| l) ĵe - č'e | če - č'e |
| m) ĵi - č'i | či - č'i |
| n) ĵo - č'o | čo - č'o |
| o) ĵu - č'u | ču - č'u |

The fourth exercise is focused on reading strategy. The student should read the Georgian words with the sounds discussed above, or proper names and surnames spread in the Caucasus:

d: Dariko, Dodo, Medea; Dadiani, Adeišvili;  
t': K'e t'evani, T'ornike, Gv t'iso; T'arknišvili, Da t'ašvili;  
t: Taso, Khatia, Konstantine; Xoštaria, Tatišvili;  
j: Jijia, Jajuli, Ujilauri, Jijiguri, Mejmariašvili;  
c': C'i c'ino, Nu c'a, C'otne; C'u c'kiri je, C'e c'xlaje;  
c: Kocia, Cicola; ġurckaia, Cocoria, Cockolauri;  
j̄: juna, jar ji, jemali; ji k'ia, j̄muxaje;  
č': č'iora, xvi č'a, va č'e; č'ankseliani, č'a č'ua;  
č̄: č̄i č̄ia, č̄i č̄iko, č̄ola; č̄av č̄avaje, č̄iaureli.

According to the fifth exercise, a combined work should be done. Specifically, this exercise includes listening to Georgian toponyms, recognition and insertion of the missed letter in the word, and pronunciation of the word. Compared to the previous exercise, difficult phonetic assignment appears here, specifically the student should be able to determine the difference between consonants the three consonants (toponyms are sorted first, sequence of triple and then the opposite pairs):

d - t' – t: darkve t'i, t'ortiza, tur c'xi;  
d - t': t'orsa, der č'I, ikor t'a;  
d – t: gudani, ku čatani, idumala;  
t' – t: t'mogvi, tanjia, t'irkna;  
j - c' – c: jevri, c'i c'xvari, ca ġveri;  
j – c: cir k'vali, jirula, cerovani;  
c - c': c'xemna, caġvli, c'ana;  
j̄ - č' – č̄: jandara, č'xari, čarnali;  
j̄ – č̄: vaki jvari, ča čara k'I, no jixevi;  
j̄ - č': č'o č'xa t'i, jixan jiri, č'ome t'i;  
č' – č̄: č̄an č̄axa, č'an č'xalo, čoroxi.

The task of the sixth exercise is to read the Georgian toponyms, then to listen to the audio recording, to number the audio files and pronounce them distinctly:

1)	2)	3)	4)
sac'xvitauro	ukane t'I	jigideri	ujlouri
cicamuri	k'un c'a	cela t'I	cavkisi
j̄in č̄visi	macevani	c'ixisjiri	j̄olevi

The seventh exercise is a dictation involving listening and writing down the Georgian toponyms containing newly acquired sounds:

Karcaxi - k'ircina  
Čvana - č'k'valeri  
č'oxatauri - čotori  
čiora - j̄imara

The eighth exercise is oriented on listening as well as on the guiding strategy by deduction. The student listens to the audio recording and points out the words which are not recorded on the audio file (names, surnames and the pairs of toponyms).

<i>Names / Surnames</i>	<i>Troponins</i>
1) č'ač'anije – čavč'anije	j̄ima t'i - jimi t'i
2) j̄inč'araje - č'inč'alaje	c'un č'xa - žo šxa

- |                       |                      |
|-----------------------|----------------------|
| 3) jajamia – curcumia | ჟვარი - čeri         |
| 4) nodari - o t'ari   | čoroxi - č'iruxi     |
| 5) c'i c'ino – cicola | sadaxlo - t'oxliauri |

The ninth exercise is filling out a grid with the acquired letters, in which the learner should find and circle the names of the Georgian rivers: Mtkvari, T'ergi, Liaxvi, Mejudi, T'ort'la.

t'	b	a	s	l	m	v	t'	x
x	o	č'	e	t'	e	s	e	b
i	t	r	u	v	ჟ	č'	r	i
l	m	j	t'	c	u	a	g	r
i	č'	k	n	l	d	s	i	t
a	s	a	c'	t'	a	x	m	m
x	j	t'	s	r	x	d	i	c
v	k	u	a	č'	t	t'	v	u
i	x	m	t	k	v	a	r	i
s	a	d	m	k	č'	k	a	a

The tenth and eleventh exercises are composed based on the famous method – international words, specifically: according to the tenth exercise, the language learner should restore the missing sound in the given international term:

- (1. t', j, č', t, d; 2. č', t, d, j, t'; 3. č', d, j, c', t; 4. t, c', d, t', č'; 5. j, t', t, č', c')

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
- eoria	iani-ari	-alma	ske- č'i	-ungli
- insi	vi-rina	kor-oni	-unami	me-odi
kau-uki	-rama	-okeri	li-eri	av-onomia
is-oria	lo-ia	-entri	a-leti	-eki
a-resati	mi-I	invent-ari	-elo	-ilindri

According to the eleventh exercise, the learner should choose syllables from the second column to complete the given international words in the first column.

-nozavri	ti
c'is-na	to
t'ea-	č'i
-udo	c'en
make-	t'ed
-ni	tri
-novniki	di
ka-ra	ter
li-zia	ji
redak'-ri	ji

As can be seen from the discussed materials, in the exercises composed by us, the number of the Georgian anthroponyms and toponyms is much higher than that of international words. We do not have anything against the approved method of teaching international words, but, on the other hand, we believe that it is more advisable to learn the Georgian language speech phonics based on the onomastic basis.

### Teaching of verbs of different constructions

At the A1 level it is required to read, perceive and reproduce, orally or in a written form, information regarding the following topics: a person's identity, age, nationality, place of residence, studies, practical activities, family etc. (Dosela, 2013, p. 108-112). To achieve this result, it is necessary to teach different types of verbs. The first verb, naturally, is "To be" (I am, you are, she/he/it is...) and the learner, accordingly, follows the sequence of personal pronouns: I – we, you – you, she/he/it – they. Information about the family, for example, requires teaching the verb "To have". In the case of the first and the second persons there is no change in the verb construction, but the situation in the third person changes and Azerbaijani and Armenian students ask questions about this aspect. In addition, the questions arise when the topic of the different case in the third person form of personal pronouns is discussed. It is only natural that students draw parallels between Georgian and their native languages, in which, the subject always stands in one and the same form. (Naturally, here we mean an adult student with at least secondary education, who is able to perceive and learn the material based on logical understanding).

In our opinion, a difficult process of teaching the Georgian verb may become much easier if the verb forms are divided into two groups from the very beginning. Specifically, the so called V-type and M-type verbs, or verb forms with subjects expressed by V- type and M-type, which have entirely different structures: the construction of M-variants remains unchanged. S appears in the Dative case whereas O is the marker of the Nominative case. On the other hand, the construction of V-form verbs is also unchanged but only within the first series. S is the marker of the Nominative case whereas O appears in the Dative case.

აკვს მას ის (He/she has got it) – while determining the active agent in such verb, the semantics of the verb is most important. We avoid discussing the so-called inversion, real or grammatical subject and objects, as we find it unadvisable to provide the information about this disputable grammatical issue to the learner at the level of A1 in Georgian.

Consequently, working with the students of the language competence of the level A1 in Georgian, we consider it appropriate first to pay attention to the forms of the first series, particularly, to teach the Present, the Continuous and the Future Tenses to avoid confusion and demotivation. The students should also be informed that the verb "knows" is the only exception with the subject in the Ergative case in the Present and Continuous forms (მან იტის/მან იტოდა (he knows/ he knew it)). As the construction is changed in the Future tense, instead of V-type construction, M-type configuration appears and the subject stands in the Dative as this is characteristic of M-type construction.

It is advisable to teach the imperfect form at the last lessons of the A1 level, in particular, after the Future tense, as unlike the forms of the first series, the construction of some of the V-type verbs (so-called mid-active and active voice forms) changes in aorist. Comp:

Present: He plays/He plays it /is t'amašobs/ /is t'amašobs mas/  
Aorist: He played/He played it /man it'amaša/ /manit'amaša is/

Based on the above, the language learner (within the scope of the study material) should be given information about the V-type subject constructions with changeable and unchangeable forms. In the Georgian language electronic guidelines (searched 12. 02. 2018, <http://elearning.ena.ge>), in the 22th lesson of A1 level the conjugated verbs "sadiłoba/chama (to have dinner) /"to eat") are taught simultaneously, in Aorist and in Future tenses. The authors provide the conjugation of these verbs without personal pronouns (supposedly, to avoid the possible confusion caused by different verb constructions), but such an approach, to our mind, looks like

learning conjugation without the subject, for the sake of the conjugation and not for building a phrase/clause and facilitating speaking activities.

### **Teaching of the forms of Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns**

Following the experience of foreign language textbooks, at the A1 level, it is advisable to teach the bipartite system of demonstrative pronouns. Teaching the tripartite system of demonstrative pronouns instead of the bipartite system seems more effective at an initial stage and reflects the characteristics of the modern Georgian language. At the same time, taught in this way, it is not difficult to remember and is a good lexical way to enrich the material.

In addition, based on different constructions of the verbs, all the possible forms of the third person pronouns involved in syntactic constructions should be taken into consideration from the very beginning. This will facilitate the process of building a sentence, particularly those constructed with the V-type and M-type verbs and corresponding pronouns (ობ – ობობო (is/isini) მან / მან – მანო (man/mas-mat)).

### **Conclusion**

The teaching of Georgian as a state language to ethnic minorities (Armenians, Azerbaijanis) living in Georgia is a new aspect of teaching in our educational space. Sharing experience will advance this difficult challenge.

1. One of the complex issues for the citizens of Georgia regarding minority issues is pronunciation of Georgian consonant clusters. Accordingly, on the basis of my teaching practice, using the rich data of the Georgian toponyms and anthroponym names in order to make phonetic exercises seems to be the best solution. Unlikely in Armenians, ethnic Azerbaijani students have the problems of pronunciation during acquisition of the Georgian alphabet: perception and pronunciation of the ejective stops. In this particular case the exercises based on the Georgian place and anthroponym names seem to be very helpful. This kind of approach makes them familiar with specific Georgian sounds.

2. Grouping into two big sections of the Georgian verb forms - so called “verbs with the marker v” and “verbs with the marker m” simplifies the process of teaching; these groups possess strictly distinctive constructions. In spite of the tenses, the construction of the verbs with the personal prefix m- is unchangeable: the subject is in the dative case and object is permanently marked with the Nominative case markers (-i /-Ø). The verbs with the personal marker affix with the marker v reveal the nominative construction only in the 1st series: the subject in the Nominative case and object in the Dative case. According to this, I believe that at A1 level it would be better to teach only forms of the Present, Imperfect and Future screeves (exception: manerg icis “heergative knows”). This kind of approach may avoid misunderstanding and particular problems. As for the forms of Aorist screeve, it would be advisable to teach them after future screeve forms have been mastered, as the last topic of the A1 level.

3. Teaching the tripartite system of demonstrative pronouns instead of the bipartite system seems more effective at an initial stage; also, the Ergative and Dative forms of the third personal pronouns (is-isini, man/mas-mat) should be taken into consideration at the very beginning of the GESL course; this kind of approach will help the students to analyze and realize the diversional constructions of the verbs of both the v- and m- types.

## References

E-learning course of the Georgian language. Browsed 12.02.2018; <http://elearning.ena.ge/>

Japaridze, Z. (1975). The main issues of perceptual phonetics. Tbilisi. "Science".

Odzeli, M. (2013). To define the level of ownership of the state language of Georgia, for civil workers and people seeking Georgian citizenship. Actual problems of Geology, II, 108-132.