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Positive Effects of Bilingualism on Cognition and Language Acquisition

Abstract

Bilingual education and bilingualism still remains a controversial field in educational policy among scientist and in public. This article aims to present the research results on positive effects of bilingualism on cognitive awareness and language acquisition. The first section of the paper presents different attitudes towards bilingualism. The second part of the article describes the research results on positive effects of bilingualism on metacognitive awareness. The third part of the article analyzes the studies on positive effects of bilingualism on language acquisition. I argue that bilingualism has advantages on metacognitive awareness and language acquisition and therefore, it is very important for the educational institutions to develop and implement effective bilingual programs in order to take the advantage of the strengths of bilingualism.

Keywords: *Bilingual education, bilingualism, educational policy, metacognitive awareness*

Introduction

The research findings are mostly positive about the effects of bilingual education on children's language awareness and cognitive functioning (Bekerman, 2005). Skutnabb-Kangas and Garcia identified several positive effects of bilingual education (1995): (a) competence in at least two languages; (b) equal opportunity for academic achievement; (c) cross-culturally and positive attitudes toward self and others. In spite of positive research findings and benefits of bilingual education its still remains a controversial field in educational policy (Bekerman, 2005).

This article presents the research results on on positive effects of bilingualism on cognitive awareness and language acquisition. There are some myth and stereotypes abount

the negative effects of bilingualism. These stereotypes present in a society as well as in scientific groups. These myths and stereotypes are mostly based on the early research findings on IQ of bilinguals and monolinguals. These studies showed that monolinguals had high IQ compared to bilinguals. The conclusion was drawn that bilingualism was the reason for lower results of bilinguals in IQ test. However, these studies lack the validity and the research findings were not valid.

The modern globalized society changed attitudes toward bilingualism and bilingualism became a norm and not an exception. Bilingualism is important to operate effectively in a diverse and globilized world. The reseach studies take more attention on issue of bilingualism and late studies are more valid and replicable. The recent research studies of bilingualism shows the positive social, linguistic and codnitive effects of bilingualism.

The research on bilingualism and cognitive development suggests that bilinguals may have some advantage over their monolingual peers. For instance, the size of their total vocabulary across both languages of bilingual kid is greater than that of a monolingual child in a single language. We will describe research findings of the positive effects of bilingualism and cognitive development in the next chapter of the article.

Positive effects of bilingualism cognitive awareness

This part of the article describes the research results on effects of bilingualism on cognitive development. Lanco-Worrall (1972) conducted the research and tested the sound and meaning separation in 30 African-English bilinguals aged four to nine. In the first experiment, a typical question was: 'I have three words: CAP, CAN and HAT. Which is more like CAP: CAN or HAT?" A child who says that CAN is more like CAP would appear to be making a choice determined by the **sound** of the word. That is, CAP and CAN have two out of three letters in common. A child who chooses HAT would appear to be making a choice based on the **meaning** of the word. That is, HAT and CAP refer to similar objects". Lanco-Worrall (1972) showed that, by seven years of age, there was no difference between bilinguals and monolinguals in their choices. Both groups chose HAT, their answer being governed by the meaning of the word. However, with four-to-six-years-olds, she found that bilinguals tended to respond to word meaning, monolinguals more to the sound of the word. This led Lanco-Worrall (1972) to conclude that bilinguals: reach a stage of semantic development, as measured by our test, some two-three years earlier than their monolingual peers" (p. 1398 seen in Baker, 2006).

Lanco- Worral conducted second stage of his experiment. During the second stage he asked the following question to the participants: "Suppose you were making up names for things, could you call a cow 'dog' and a dog 'cow'? Based on experiment results, the researcher concluded that monolinguals tend to be bound by words; bilinguals tend to believe that language is more arbitrary. "For bilinguals, names and objects are separate. This seems to be a result of owning two languages, giving the bilingual child awareness of the free, non-fixed relationship between objects and their labels" (Baker, 2006, p.155)

Another important research conducted Ben-Zeev in this direction (seen in Baker, 2006). Ben-Zeev developed a special test so called "The Symbol Substitution Test". Researcher asked children to substitute one word for another in sentence. For example, they had to use the word 'macaroni' instead of 'I' in a sentence. Respondents have to ignore word meaning, avoid framing a correct sentence and evade the interference of word substitution in order to respond to the task correctly. The research revealed that "bilinguals … to be superior on this kind of tests, not only with regard to meaning, but also with regard to sentence construction" (Baker, 2006, p.155).

The recent studies were concentrated to compare the results of bilingual and monolinguals in terms of the process of thinking. Particularly the information processing, memorization and language processing approaches in monolinguals and bilinguals were studied by researchers (Baker, 2006). The research findings underlined the interesting patterns. Bilinguals showed good results for example in problem solving and getting correct mathematical solutions (Baker, 2006). For example research studies of McLeay in 2003 (seen in Baker, 2006)) showed that adult 'balanced' bilinguals had better results in dealing with complex mathematical spatial problems. The studies of Kessler and Quinn (1980, 1982) revealed that bilinguals were superior on scientific problem solving compared to their monolingual peers (seen in Baker, 2006).

Recent research is focused on metacognitive awareness of bilingual children. The several research conducted by Ellen Bialystok is interesting in this respect. Bialystok analyzed her research findings in the context of cognitive development and grouped them into two categories: (a) Development of stable executive processing; (b) Protection from the decline of executive processes (Bialystok, 2007). We will briefly describe the research studies and the findings in each category:

(a) Development of stable executive processing

Ellen Bialystok conducted two studies to compare stability of executive processing of monolinguals and bilinguals. The first study used the "Simon task" to measure intentional processing and executive control of monolingual and bilingual participants. In the Simon task, participants are told to press the right key if they see a green square and the left key if they see a red square. Red and green squares were displayed on the screen on either the right or left side. The requirement from the participants was to respond with the correct key as quickly as possible (Bialystok, 2007).

97 adults were participated in the experiment. Half of the participants were fluent bilinguals. The experiment consisted of different tasks in different conditions with different difficulties. The monolinguals and bilinguals were drawn from the same undergraduate university population, all were experienced computer users and all were comfortable with this type of task, which demanded fast and accurate responding (Bialystok, 2007). Two types of stimuli, coloured squares and directional arrows were used in the experiment and the reaction on these stimulus by participants were studied. "the main challenge is to remember the arbitrary rule that associates each colour with a response key; for the arrows task, the main problem is to resolve the conflict between the

spatial codes given by the direction of the arrow and its position. The rule is to press the key showing which way the arrow is pointing, so an arrow in the same screen position as its directional indication is easier than one in the opposite position. The difficulty is only in the conflict between these two cues, because there is no effort required to remember the mapping between the direction and the correct keys: right arrows press right, left arrows press left. Monitoring and switching were manipulated in both tasks by creating conditions that differed in the number of inter-trial switches that occurred in each block of trials. A switch trial was one in which the response was different from that required on the previous. The need for frequent changes in response requires more vigilance and more monitoring, increasing the general processing demands. Evidence for the success of this manipulation and the accuracy of its interpretation is that blocks that contained many inter-trial switches took consistently longer to perform than comparable blocks that contained fewer inter-trial switches" (Bialystok, 2007, p. 217)

The experiment was conducted with varios conditions. Bilinguals have better results in the experiment condition with the arrows task in a block of trials with many inter-trial switches. This is the condition with the greatest burden on executive processing, which requires higher levels of attentional control, higher levels of monitoring and

switching. In this condition bilinguals demonstrated their superior control over executive processing.

Ellen Bialystok used so called anti-saccade taskş in the second research. 48 adults participated in the experiment. Half of them were bilinguals. The experiment required from participants to resist the automatic attention responses "in which gaze is immediately directed to a flashing object and is influenced by the gaze direction of pictures of eyes in a schematic face on the screen" (Bialystok, 2007, p.217).

There were few differences observed in the experiment between bilinguals and monolinguals. The bilinguals has an advantage in the most difficult condition of the experiment, namely, the anti-saccade condition of the gaze shift task where two cues needed to be suppressed in order to respond correctly, but on all other conditions, the two groups has an equal results (Bialystok, 2007). The experiments of Ellen Bialystok, Simon task as well as anti-saccade task showed an advantage of bilinguals compared to monolinguals in executive control and processing.

The early research stidies of Bialystok is also interesting in this respect. The researcher conducted study of kids of age five to nine. 120 kids participated in the study. The participants were given the sentences with gramatical errors. The participants were asked to construct gramatically correct sentences. The study showed that bilinguals managed to construct the sentences gramatically correctly compared to their monolingual peers (Bialystok, 1987).

Bialystok studied the ability of processing the words and development of a concept of a word in bilingual and monolingual kids (Bialystok, 1987). She conducted three experiments to draw conclusion in this direction. After the experiments, the researcher found, that bilinguals outperform monolingual kids in understanding the meaning of a word. Bilinguals had a better ability to determine the number of words in the sentence.

Based on overview of existing studies some conclusions can be drawn. Bilinguals have some cognitive advantages compared to monolinguals. These advantages are not universally superior metalinguistic abilities (Baker, 2006); however, the bilinguals have the advantages in the tasks, which require the selective control of information (Baker, 2006). Bialystok thinks, that bilinguals have the advantage in controling and not analyzing the information. The reason for that can be the necessity to differentiate between the languages for bilinguals (Bialystok 2001, seen in Baker, 2006).

(b) Protection from the Decline of Executive Processes

Two studies of Bialystok and her colleagues are interesting in terms of bilingualism, aging and controlled cognitive processing. The first research study was condected by Bialystok and her colleagues in 2004. The researchers used Simon Task experiment. There were 40 participants in the experiment. The participants composed two language groups and two age groups. Twenty of the participants were younger adults ranging in age from 30 to 54 years (and 20 were older adults ranging in age from 60 to 88 years). The experiments showed that younger as well as older bilinguals outperformed their monolingual peerss (Bialystok *at al,* 2004). The difference between bilinguals and monolinguals was more obvious in older participants of experiment. Based on experiment results, the researchers concluded that "lifelong experiance of managing two languages attenuates the age-related decline in the efficiency of inhibitory processing (Bialystok *et al*, 2004, p. 301).

Ellen Bialystok used the anti-saccade task in her second study. The 48 participants were selected for experiment. The age of participants was between 60 and 70 years. Half of participants were bilinguals. Monolinguals and bilinguals responded at the same rate during the simplest pro-saccade condition., however, older bilinguals were significantly faster compared to monolinguals in more difficult conditions when the control required to resist responding with the congruent response key. "When the gaze direction was added in the more complex version of the task, bilinguals were faster than monolinguals in all conditions. The most difficult conditions required high levels of attention and inhibitory control to resist pressing the same side in the red eye trials and to ignore the misleading information from the eye gaze when it directed attention to the wrong side. The combination of these executive processes was handled better by older bilinguals than monolinguals, suggesting again that these functions had been protected by their experience (Bialystok, 2007, p. 219)

Bialystok studies showed that on one hand bilingual children has an cognitive advantage in processing, categorization and cotrolling the information and on the other hand the age-related decline in the efficiency of inhibitory processing is lower in older bilinguals compared to their monolingual peers. However, the researcher concluded that there is no evidence that bilinguals are in any measurable sense more intelligent than monolinguals. Even more, in some areas, "bilinguals perform less well than monolinguals on tasks requiring rapid generation of words, such as semantic fluency and picture naming" (Gollan *et al*., 2002 seen in Bialystok, 2007, p 220).

It should be noted that bilinguals do not have significant advantage in the cognitive development compared to monolingual peers in such an important component as working memory.The advantage of bilinguals is limited to the stability of cognitive processing (Bialystok, 2007). "The research so far reveals compelling evidence that bilinguals develop executive control earlier and maintain their ability to control those functions longer than monolinguals. Given the fundamental centrality of these executive processes to our everyday cognitive life, this is an altogether promising outcome for bilinguals (Bialystok, 2007, pp.220-221).

The research of Namazi and Thordardottir conducted in 2008 is interesting in this respect. The purpose of the research was to clarify the relationship between bilingualism and controlled attention by considering the contribution of verbal and visual working memory abilities (Namazi & Thordardottir, 2010). The researchers tried to explore the relationship between verbal working memory, visual working memory and controlled attention in bilingual and monolingual children. The specific questions were addressed in this study: (1) Is there a bilingual advantage in bilingual children as compared to their monolingual peers? (2) Is there relationship between visual working memory and a non-verbal test of controlled attention in the visual domain?; (3) Do differences in

working memory capacity influence on the differences in performance on a test of controlled attention in the visual modality? (Namazi & Thordardottir, 2010). Forty-five children participated in the experiment. Participants were divided into three groups: (1) 15 French monolinguals (2) 15 English monolinguals and (3) fifteen French-English simultaneous bilinguals (Namazi & Thordardottir, 2010).

The participants in the study were tested individually in daycares, at home or at univeristy. Monolingual children were tested in a single 2- 2.5-hour session, while bilingual children were tested in two separate 2- 2.5-hour sessions (One session for French language test and second session for English language test). The order of testing in English or French was counterbalanced across the bilingual children (Namazi & Thordardottir, 2010).

The participants were given four tasks: (1) *Verbal working memory (WM)*- The idea of the task was to give the participants the long set of sentences. Participants had to (a) Judge the truth value of each sentence; and (b) to recall the final word of each sentence. Each child received two scores: one out of 42 for the truth judgment and the other also out of 42 for recalling the final word; both scores were converted to percentages (Namazi & Thordardottir, 2010). (2) *Verbal short-term memory (STM)*- A test were administered to all

children to assess verbal short term memory abilities in English and in French. The words were ranging from 2 to 5 syllables. Totally, there were 40 non-words on both the English and French non-word repetition tests. Participants listened to each word and had to repeat the word as they heard it (Namazi & Thordardottir, 2010); (3) *Visual working memory (WM)*- This task was used to assess the children's visual working memory capacities, Participants were presented with Sponge Bob characters. Participants "were shown a matrix of cells (3 cm 2) with Sponge Bobs appearing in half the cells; after a 2-s delay, the Sponge Bob characters disappeared and the child had to indicate by touching the location on the matrix, using a touchscreen, where the figures had been" (Namazi & Thordardottir, 2010, pp. 604-605); (4) *Controlled attention (CA) in the visual domain*- The task used a response box attached to a laptop computer, participants were instructed to press a red button when a red square appeared, and to press a blue button when a blue square appeared on the computer screen. The red button was located on the left and the blue on the right of the response box. 72 (36 congruent and 36 incongruent) tasks were given to the participants of the study (Namazi & Thordardottir, 2010).

The finding of the study was that visual working memory (WM) is highly correlated with visually controlled attention (CA) and both bilingual and monolingual children with better visual working memories have the better controlled attention. There was no differences observed between bilinguals and monolingual in controlled attention in this study.

Positive Impact of Bilingualism on Language Acquisition

Some experts think that the process of attaining two languages simultaneously is different from the process of learning one language among monolinguals. With this regard, it is interesting to review the study by Gathercole (2007) which examined two groups English-language and French-language bilinguals in Miami and English-Welsh bilinguals in North Wales. The study revealed the following findings: (a) Majority of the bilinguals and and monolinguals develop the same systems of the language attainment and the follow the same trajectory; (b) Among the participants of the study bilinguals showed need for more time for finding a specific word as compared to monolinguals. However, majority of the bilinguals did not differ from their monolingual counterparts the timing of the process of finding words; (c) Monolinguals and bilinguals were distinct in expressing themselves consistently, however, eventually this difference became minimal; (d) Development of the language among monolinguals and bilinguals is not different.

When attaining two languages bilinguals follow the same trajectory as monolinguals.

Cenoz and Valencia (1994) studied level of the English language knowledge among 320 Basque-Hispanic bilinguals and Spanish Monolinguals. According to the study, the Basque language was not used until 1978. In 1978 it became possible to receive education in the Basque language, as well as use the language in public service and mass media. Increase in the use of the Basque language is associated with the increased respect to the Basque identity. Eventually the Basque language became the main means of communication, as well as official language. The Basque and Spanish languages are used as a language of instruction at schools, as well as they are delivered as an academic disciplined (p. 197). Cenoz and Valencia measured the intellectual level of the participants of the study by social-economic status (occupation of fathers), attitudes towards the population speaking the language (English), motivation to learn English and frequency of its use. The level of the knowledge of the English language was determined by the oral interview. In addition to this, a listening test and reading tests were used. The reading test required them to find relevant information for finding various tasks. Finally, they had to compose 250 words. In addition to this, vocabulary and grammar tests were used (each item in the test had three optional answers). The results showed that

motivation, level of intellectual development, frequency of the use of English language and age are significant determinants of the achievements in the English language. The study also revealed that bilingualism significantly advances acquisition of English as a second language. Moreover, above-mentioned four factors (motivation, level of intellectual development, use of the English language and age) do not interact with bilingualism. Therefore, Cenoz and Valencia presented positive affect of bilingualism on the attainment of the third language and concluded that effects of motivation, level of intellectual development, use of the English language and age are absolutely independent from the affect of bilingualism.

Tomas (1988) conducted a study among sixteen bilingual students of English-Spanish College who studied Spanish as a third language. Ten of them were natives of English language, who studied Spanish as a second language in Texas where 51% of population is Spanish-speaking. Bilingual students were divided into 2 groups: (1) English-language students who studied Spanish through formal learning – 10 students; (2) English-language students who studied Spanish through informal learning at home – 6 students. Several control variables were identified for the research by Tomas: Socio-economic status of the participants, frequency of using the French language, teacher, instructional methods and

textbooks. The process of the language development was measured by language tests. The researchers used a modified version of the motivation questionnaire by Gardner and Lambert for measuring motivation among two groups of the study. Statistical analysis of the questionnaires showed that the level of motivation was similar in both groups. At the end of the first semester, the knowledge of French language was measured by the vocabulary and grammar test of French language. The vocabulary test included pure French words, as well as composed words with visual or semantic links to the Spanish language. Grammar test included separate sentences. The participants had to complete the sentences. They were given three possible options for completing the sentences. Out of these three options, only one was grammatically correct. The grammar test assessed word order, agreement of subject and verb, agreement of adjectives, and composition of negative sentences. The next task of the study was to compose a 10-sentence long essay. These essays were assessed by native French speaker specialists. They assessed clarity of the text and ranged the results of the students on the scale from zero to five. The statistical analysis of the results, bilinguals showed better results as compared to monolinguals in French vocabulary and grammar. The results also showed bilinguals, receiving formal education in two languages

had higher results as compared to those receiving education only in English. Based on these results Tomas showed that bilinguals had higher achievements as compared to monolinguals. In addition to this, the fact that bilingual students with formal education outperformed monolingual students (in terms of formal education) indicates that full comprehension of the language leads to the superiority of bilinguals as compared to those who learn the second language informally. One should be careful in generalizing findings of the research by Thomas, as the number of participants was very limited.

Sagasta & Pilar (2003) examined 155 Basque-Spanish bilingual students in Spain, in the Basque province, where the Basque language is a minority language and the Spanish is a majority language. According to the National Curriculum, the Spanish language is given 3-4 hours a week. Also, English is taught as a foreign language. The participants of the study were 8-year old third-graders. Half of these students received formal education in the Basque language; the second were education through the immersion bilingual education model. The study revealed that all students had good results in the Basque language. Those students, who used the Basque language more frequently, showed significantly higher results in English.

Conclusion

Studies reviewed in the article reveal superiority of bilingualism in metacognitive awareness and language acquisition. Despite this advantage, bilingual education is still considered as a controversial issue among the education policy makers as only effective bilingual programs ensure balanced bilingualism and development of language competencies in both languages. Ineffective bilingual programs may even become a barrier for a language acquisition, as well as for overall academic achievement. Therefore, it is very important for the educational institutions to develop and implement effective bilingual programs in order to take the advantage of the strengths of bilingualism.

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Introducing Professional Terminology in Multilingual Education Teacher Programmes: Reasoning and Practice

Abstract

The article deals with the action research examining the evidence of the peculiarities of teaching terminology in the context of mutilingual teacher education, offering methods of its introduction and acquisition applied both in bachelor and master study programmes of the Faculty of Education, Psychology and Art, the University of Latvia as well as in the in-service courses on multilingual education teachers' professional development. The crucial role of terminology acquisition is justified by the epistemological, didactic, as well as socio-political factors. The article shares experience of using terminology acquisition methods to develop students' higher level thinking skills as well as aligning teacher education programmes to the teacher competences and professional qualification standards. The results of research are practical, relevant, can inform theory and can be seen on three levels: personal, organizational and scholarly.

Keywords: Multilingual education, teacher education, terminology, action research, teaching methods.

Each study course has course specific concepts, notions and terms that are introduced and acquired during studies. To ensure effective and qualitative multilingual teacher education it is of utmost importance to draw particular attention to terminology. The article shares experience evolving from the methods applied both in bachelor and master study programmes of the Faculty of Education, Psychology and Art, the University of Latvia as well as in the in-service courses on

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multilingual education teachers' professional development.

Aiming to select the methods for terminology acquisition, first, it is necessary to frame the meaning of the applied terms.

Multilingual education/bilingual education (MLE) – is use of two (or more) languages for literacy and instruction. Most often a part of a formal education system enabling ethno linguistic minority communities to participate widely in society. Models of language allocation include students' first language or language with which they identify themselves, a national/official language and other languages. Ideally, literacy and learning begin with the learner's first language, *"first-language-first" education,* and a second language is introduced gradually.

Content and language integrated learning CLIL – is an approach in which a target foreign language is used as a tool in the learning of a nonlanguage subject in which both the language and subject have a joint role. Although, comparing MLE with CLIL, a list of differences between these two concepts can be formulated, taking into consideration the joint didactic aim – bilingual personality formation, in this article both terms are used side by side, as pedagogical insights and methodological 'armoury' applicable in both contexts.

Bilingual/multilingual education teacher – is used to describe a teacher who has methodological education to conduct MLE or

CLIL teaching. Comparing with the term *bilingual/multilingual teacher* – this extended term makes it clear that it is not only the teacher who is bilingual/multilingual, i.e., knows two or more languages, but he/she is also educated to teach bilingually.

Latvia has neither a standard for bilingual education teachers nor Teacher Professional Standard which is currently under reconstruction. Analysing Bilingual Education Teacher Standards in the USA (Competencies for Entry-Level Bilingual Education Teachers**,** 2001, Menken, Antunez, 2001, Bilingual Education Standards, 1014) and CLIL standard in Europe (Bertaux, Coonan, Frigols-Martin, Mehisto, 2010) it can be concluded that learning terminology focuses on developing various bilingual education teacher competences, i. e., comprehension as well as demonstrating productive application in various pedagogical contexts. It also facilitates the improvement of extended thinking: defining and adapting MLE and/or CLIL to the local context, integrating into the curriculum, linking the MLE or CLIL programme with school ethos, "the bilingual education teacher has knowledge of the foundations of bilingual education and the concepts of bilingualism and biculturalism and is able to use knowledge … to be an effective advocate for the bilingual education … among peers, family and community" (2001, http://www.nmcpr.state.nm.us).

It „can articulate how CLIL could be refected in a school's vision and mission statements, and in planning and public relations documents, … guiding parents in understanding and using the terminology and concepts of education, …can express own professional concerns and needs to fellow teachers" (Bertaux, Coonan, Frigols-Martin, Mehisto, 2010, p. 1-4).

Theory

The crucial role of professional terminology acquisition in multilingual education teacher programmes is determined by epistemological, didactic, as well as socio-political factors.

The epistemological aspect of rationale to learn terminology can be found both in classical education philosophy (cognitive approach and constructivism), as well as in works of contemporary learning theories (Illeris, 2009) that focus on social dimension of learning. Describing the formulated learning model, Jarvis (2009) quotes Falzon (1998): "Encountering the world … necessarily involves a process of ordering the world in terms of our categories, organizing it and classifying it, actively bringing it under control in some way. We always bring some framework to bear on the world in our dealings with it. Without this organisational activity, we would be unable to make any sense of the world at all" (Falzon, 1998, p. 38) and builds

further: "Both adult and child have to transform the sensation to brain languge and eventually to give it meaning. It is in learning the meaning, etc., of the sensation that we incorporate the culture of our life-world into ourselves; this we do in most, if not all, of our learning experiences" (Jarvis, 2009, p. 27).

The methods applied in study programmes refer not only to cognitive domain/approach in education – they help to develop core thinking skills – arranging information so it can be used more effectively (organizing skills), clarifying existing information by examining parts and relationships (analyzing skills), connecting and combining information (integrating skills), assessing the reasonableness and quality of ideas (evaluating skills), but also to facilitate collaborative elaboration – the process of sharing each person's point of view results in learners building understanding together that would not be possible alone – this in turn relates to social constructivism epistemology.

Teachers typically ground their understanding of teaching and learning as well as their concepts about how to teach in their own instructional histories as learners. It can be illustrated by the task to group learning methods done at the beginning of the course *English Language Learning Methods* (Peda4205) by students – would be teachers of the professional higher education bachelor study programme "Teacher" (42141): the most

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popular classification offered by students which reflects their own experience is grouping according to the mode of delivery, i.e., visual, narrative. Other proposls also draw on students' previous learning experience:

methods I apply or do not apply in my teaching;

methods I know and do not know;

methods I apply working with young learners or adults;

methods that are usually applied in school or outside;

methods grouped according to the alphabet;

or methods according to group organisation – individually or cooperatively.

Developing skills of conceptualising and making connections between everyday teacher's professional work and theoretical foundations is a very important task in teacher education (Kennedy, 1999; Maldarez & Bodsczky, 1999; Ball, 2000; Johnson, 2009). Basing on Vygotsky (2002) who distinguishes between two types of concepts – everyday and scientific, Johnson (2009) elaborates stating when students enter teacher education programmes they are typically exposed to the scientific concepts that represent the up-to-date research and theorising that is generated in their respective discipline(s). Part of their professionalization becomes making connections between the scientific concepts they are exposed to in their teacher education coursework and their everyday concepts about

the subject, learning and teaching. The responsibility of education, according to Vygotskian sociocultural theory (2002), is to present scientific concepts to learners, but to do so in a way that brings these concepts to bear on concrete practical activity, connecting them to the everyday knowledge and activities of learners. Robbins (2003) points out that a key to concept development is the extent to which instruction interrelates to everyday and scientific concepts, because it is this relationship that „lies at the heart of internalization", that is, transformation of the social into the psychological (Robins, 2003, p. 83).

Internalisation is evident if students can easily switch from academic level to everyday and back. It can be illustrated by the Concept simulation method applied in course Peda5161 *Sustainable Cultural Environment of Education* (Professional Master's study programme "Teacher" (47141). The groups had a task to use 88 course specific key-words to design a schematic model to actualise the studied course content further adapting environment, situation, communication object for a different target group in a different environment, e. g., conversation with a relative (possibly a child or teenager) to inform about the content studied in the course, discussion with colleagues while drinking coffee during the long break to get them interested in the topic. This method serves also as a powerful

tool for academic language development – discrimination and practice of different language styles.

Addressing the socio-political aspect it should be taken into account that concepts and terms have developed historically. Therefore one term might have various definitions, or terms can be interpreted differently by different authors or agencies depending on the user's standpoint.

It should also be mentioned that the Cambridge Teaching Knowledge Test which focuses on the teaching knowledge needed by teachers requires teachers to know and apply terms and concepts thus underlining the broader nature of *concepts* as compared with *terms*. Thus, Skujiņa (2003) specifies that "by *term* we denote the unit of termination — a word or a combination of words that expresses (names and marks) a definite scientific conception in the terminological system of the respective branch of science" (Skujiņa, 2003). She also stresses that terms should be systematical, precise in meaning, brief in form, and emotionaly neutral.

Skutnabb-Kangas (2008) explains the rationale of the necessity to define concepts: "The concepts we use are almost never neutral. In contested arenas such as bilingual education, words and concepts frame and construct the phenomena under discussion, making some persons and groups visible, others invisible; some the unmarked norm, others marked and negative. Choice of language can minoritise or distort some individuals, groups, phenomena, and relations while majoritising and glorifying others. Concepts also can be defined in ways that hide, expose, rationalize, or question power relations" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2008, p. 3).

This claim has many examples in the Latvian language. Reacting to changes of political system, borrowing concepts and terms shifted from the Russian to English languages. It should be noted that in more than 50 years there have been two gaps in the development of Latvian terminology: after World War II and starting from the early 1990s. Both can be described as unmotivated and unreasonable term replacement to meet the demands of the modern world. These changes are argumented by transfer to another contact language (Russian to English) as well as ideology, and the challenge to apply previous terminological resources (due to physical non-availability and biased attitude). "There is a reason to believe that in many branches a partial shift from continental European term creation (characteristic of German and Russian) to Anglo-Saxon term system has taken place. As such, this fact is neither good nor bad, although it increases variability of terminology" (Baltiņš, 2012, p. 192). In social discourse the term *jargon (žargons)* has been replaced by *slang (slengs)*. Depending on the source language of the term, when speaking about the

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term *bear* whose native range is in the North, the terms *ledus lācis, baltais lācis (белый медведь), polārais lācis (polar bear)* can be found. In Soviet times the term *kolektīvs* (*collective*) was used, nowadays the term *kopiena* (*community*) is preferred. Consequently, the term *runas kolektīvs (speech collective)* has been replaced by the term *runas kopiena* (*speech community).*

Various examples (Grigule, 2009) illustrating how new concepts emerge in discourse and initially various, often different terms are applied, later stabilise with increasing intensity of their usage. During the late 90ies, the teaching of the Latvian language became more topical, it was essential to find a neutral, emotionally acceptable, legally correct term to attribute to learners of the language: *cittautieši (aliens), mazākumtautības (minorities), minoritātes, otrās valodas apguvēji (second language learners).* Didactic term –'*otrā valoda*' (*a second language*) is one of the most emotionally sensitive in this string of terms. In traditional theoretical literature *the second language* refers to the language which is acquired after the first language (Beikers, 2002). In 1996, launching *The State Program of Acquisition of Latvian*, a new approach – Latvian as second language acquisition (LAT2) – was adopted and an appropriate term introduced (Šalme, 2011). It was based on the tradition of the Scandinavian language

didactics which distinguisheed between the terms – *second language* and *foreign language* (Lindberg, 1995). Initial negative reaction of teachers – adult learners was observed by the authors during the in-service courses in Latvia, Moldova, Abkhazia, and Crimea. They felt their native language had been degraded by calling it a second language. This case illustrates the prevalence of everyday concept, namely, the denotation of *second* as *secondary*. Contradiction between the understanding of homonymic everyday concepts and academic/scientific concepts is an endless global phenomenon. The topicality of Latvia is, for example, perception and usage of the term *trešo valstu valstspiederīgie (third country nationals).* According to Latvian legislation, a third country national is a citizen of a third country – a person who is not a citizen of either the Republic of Latvia, or another country of the European Union, the European Economic Area or the Swiss Confederation. The meaning of the term is unambigious for only a small group of its users, in community discourse 'third country' confuses understanding thus to answer the control question, e.g., whether a citizen of the United States is a third country national, people are bewildered and start doubting. Another topicality in the field of terminology is finding a notion to describe a person who has a Latvian citizenship and/or resides in Latvia, but is not an ethnic Latvian. The term *latvijec*

is used in the Russian language (Latvia national).

Referring to clear-cut distinction between the teaching of Swedish as a second language to minority groups in Sweden with mother tongues other than Swedish and on the other hand the teaching of other modern languages, Swedish researcher of bilingualism Lindberg (1995), notes that it should be pointed out that the distinction is clear to people within the field, but not always to those in power. It leads to non-recognizing, neglecting the fundamentally different needs of second and foreign language learners. Johnson (2009) gives explanation of weak cognitive perception at everyday level: "when someone attempts to bring this type of knowledge into consciousness in a little more than half a century, the result is usually a vague, incoherent, incomplete, and even inaccurate statement of the concept … scientific concepts enable learners to … function appropriately in a wide range of alternative circumstances and contexts" (Johnson, 2009, p. 20 - 21).

Example of inconsistency in international application of terms has been introduction and usage of such terms as *multicultural/intercultural education*; *multilingualism/ plurilingualism*. In relation to *Language Policy in Georgia Project*, Grin (2006) analyses the usage variety of the terms *multilingualism and plurilingualism*:

Multilingualism and plurilingualism both describe the knowledge and application of languages. They are perceived as synonyms. According to Grin's (2006) research, many researchers differentiate between these concepts. There at least three different types of distinctions:

… multilingualism as an attribute of individuals who know many languages, whereas plurilingualism characterises societies where many languages are used;

… multilingualism referring to the knowledge of different languages, while plurilingualism implying a more acute sense of the relationships between different languages as mutually complementary instruments for communication;

… multilingualism … to denote the presence of many different languages in a region, without specifying how many, and plurilingualism … to denote the presence of a finite number of identified languages (Grin, 2006, p.179).

In Europe today the usage of the terms has stabilised: *plurilingualism* defines the language policy of the Council of Europe, and is a fundamental principle of language education policies in Europe and elsewhere in the world describing proficiency of languages from the point of view on the individual, whereas *multilingualism* defines the presence of languages in community: "Plurilingual and pluricultural competence refers to the ability to

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use languages for the purposes of communication and to take part in intercultural interaction, where a **person, (**our emphasis) viewed as a **social agent** has proficiency, of varying degrees, in several languages and experience of several cultures. This is not seen as the superposition or juxtaposition of distinct competences, but rather as the existence of a complex or even composite competence on which the **user** may draw" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 3).

Professional terminology study methods that address these nuances – compiling a glossary, word associations, as well as exploring various contexts should be applied.

Summarising, in study process the differences of terms should not be hidden, but made explicit to facilitate better understanding of the relevant concepts. Implication from the socio-political aspect perspective encourages providing historical context of term development, subjectivity of various stakeholders reasoning thus creating a deeper and more flexible understanding of phenomena and the corresponding concepts as Paulston (1992) states "unless we try in some way to account for the socio-historical, cultural, and economic-political factors which lead to certain forms of bilingual education, we will never understand the consequences of that education" (Paulston, 1992, p. 9).

Learning terminology facilitates the development of teacher's civic competence as bilingual education teachers will always be expected to take their own civic position and act as an effective advocates for the bilingual education among community. Latvian linguists (Šalme, Skujiņa, 2009) emphasize that the terminology identification and recording gives the possiblility to raise the status of the Latvian language and the academic quality of the respective subject.

Methodology and Findings

The action research to explore and pilot the professional terminology study methods has been carried out at the Faculty of Education, Psychology and Art, University of Latvia. The choice of the action research was determined by less concern for universality of findings, and more relevance of the findings to the researchers and the target group. Critical reflection and careful examination of evidence from multiple perspectives was the basis of action research. Thus, it was aimed to get an effective strategy for improving the professional terminology acquisition ways and changing the ways the community learns and teaches.

A list of professional terminology study methods have been applied both in bachelor and master study programmes for tachers as well as in the in-service courses on multilingual education teachers' professional development.

The piloted list of terms (Grigule, 2012) consisiting of the most widely used terms in bilingual education research and pedagogical discourse was based on Brumfit's Model (Brumfit, 1984) and the Functional Approach to meet the requirements of practice and studies of MLE (1) terms, teachers should be aware of, i.e., designing/shaping common frame of references – for teachers to have an initial common theoretical understanding and discriminating between personal and emotional attitude and professional discourse; (2) terms concerned with study process, e.g., names of learning methods which teachers need to learn at application level; (3) terms that lack unambiguous explanation. These can be reflected on to improve analytical skills. Teachers can define these terms themselves thus facilitating conceptualising of their experience and understanding.

Action research involved seven steps, becoming an endless cycle for the inquiry:

1. Selecting a focus;
2. Clarifying theories;
3. Identifying research questions;
4. Collecting data;
5. Analyzing data;
6. Reporting results;
7. Taking informed action.

The research involved a systematic process of examining the evidence. The results of research were practical, relevant, and can inform theory. Three outcomes: on the personal, organizational and scholarly levels became evident.

At the personal level, a systematic set of methods for interpreting and evaluating one's actions with the goal of improving practice was designed. The process of action research involved progressive problem solving, balancing efficiency with innovation thereby developing what has been called an "adaptive" form of expertise.

At the organizational level, the system of interactions that defined a social context was understood. The carried out theory testing required a careful attention to data, and interpretation and analysis skills.

At the scholarly level, validated findings were produced and shared with those in bachelor and master study programmes for tachers and engaging in the dialogue with the larger research community.

In teacher trainer course within the project 'Supporting Multilingual Education in Georgia' (Bakuriani, 2012) to group the terms given in Guidelines of Bilingual Education Teacher (Grigule, 2012) participants worked cooperatively and designed the following classifications (Figure 1):
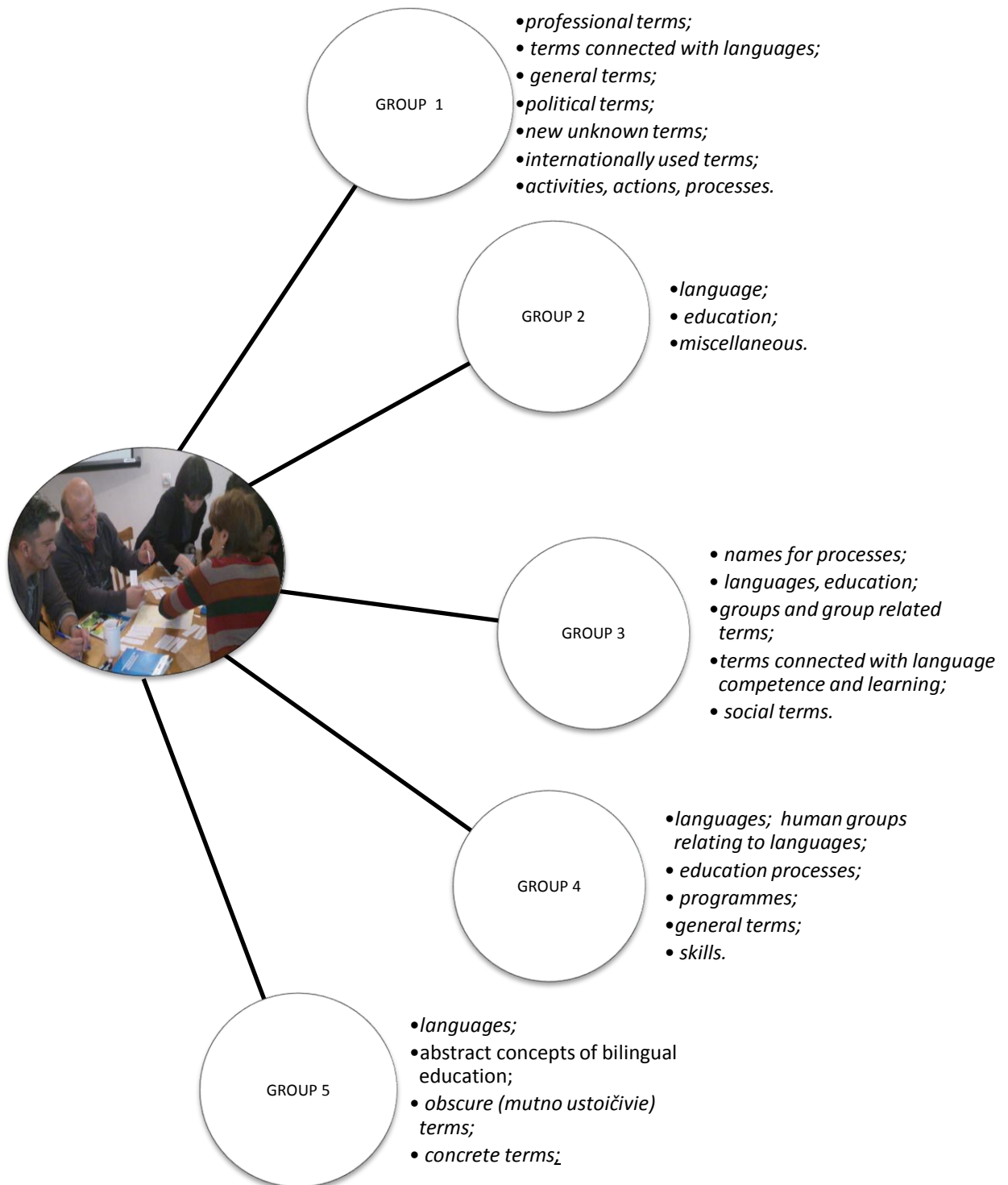
Figure 1. Concept formation method. Results of the group work. MLE teacher trainers' seminar. Bakuriani, 2012.

Commenting on the category of Group 5/ used as a metaphor – obscure terms *(mutno ustoičivie) – „widely met terms implying that everybody knows them, however, when asked*

to explain what the terms mean one realises they do not know the real meaning. However, this serves as stimulus to explore". The metaphor had met wide approval of course participants and had occasionally been quoted also in other teacher training sessions.

Taking into consideration the fact that in multilingual education terms often have several different definitions, as an effective method turned out to be *nesting*. Groups were given several definitions; their task was to design criteria and review.
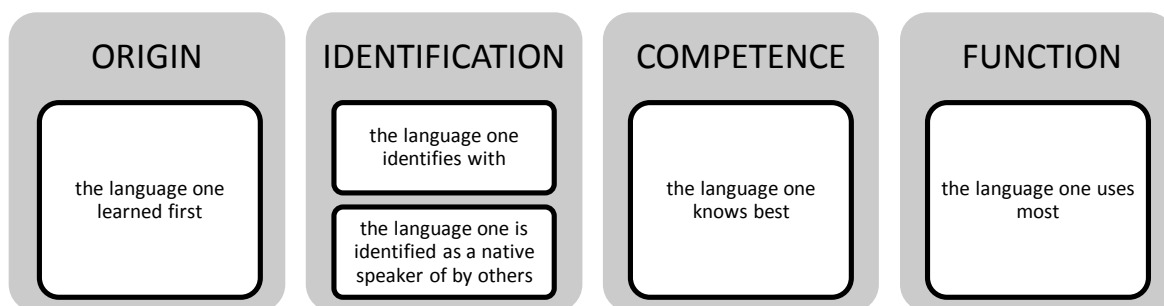
Figure 4. Nesting method. Mother tongue definitions.

Helping teachers to prepare for in-serrvice teacher trainer's work, several tasks of classifying were applied:

Task 1: to classify the terms according to when they should be learned – at the beginning of training / during training/ at the end of training.

Task 2: to classify the terms according to need for receptive or productive use – to read the list and mark the terms that teachers should be aware of and the terms that teachers should apply in their work.

Task 3: Choose 3 – 5 thematically related terms; select a technique, present and model how to introduce these terms to teachers in courses.

The listed and described methods (Table 1) were planned and applied to teach terminology in study and in-service programmes. Webb's Depth of Knowledge

(DOK) was was applied to classify and evaluate the methods. It has been developed based on Bloom's Taxonomy by Norman L.Webb of Wisconsin Center for Educational Research to aid in alignment analysis of curriculum, objectives, standards, and assessments. Four levels have been formulated (Level 1 – Recall and Reproduction; Level 2 – Skill/Concept; Level 3 – Strategic Thinking; Level 4 – Extended Thinking) in the Webb's Depth of Knowledge (DOK). The table of professional terminology study methods allows to check whether the methods and tasks provide opportunities for developing students' higher level thinking skills as well as align teacher education programme to the teacher competences and professional qualification standards, not only to operate at the lowest level of thinking in the acquisition of the terminology.

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Table 1. Professional terminology study methods.

Webb's Depth of Knowledge	& Corresponding Verbs	Methods
Recall and Reproduction Recalls a fact, information, or procedure.	arrange, define, draw, identify, list, label, illustrate, match, memorize, quote, recognize, repeat, recall, recite, state, tabulate, use, tell who-what-when-where-why	Matching Pelmanism game Scrambled definitions Walk and swap
Skill/concept Uses information or conceptual knowledge. Requires two or more steps.	apply, categorize, determine cause and effect, classify, collect and display, compare, distinguish, estimate, graph, identify patterns, infer, make observations, modify, organize, predict, relate, sketch, show, summarize, use context clues	Advance organizers Matching antonyms Matching parts of definitions Making a definition from keywords and contextualize Word-building Showdown
Strategic Thinking Requires reasoning, developing plan or a sequence of steps, some complexity, more than one possible answer.	apprise, assess, cite evidence, criticize, develop a logical argument, differential, draw conclusions, explain phenomena in terms of concepts, formulate, hypothesize, investigate, revise, use concepts to solve non-routine problems	Grouping Classification Word associations Problem solving Visualising Analysing contexts
Extended Thinking Requires an investigation, time to think and process multiple conditions of the problem.	analyse, apply concepts, compose, connect, create, criticize, defend, design, evaluate, judge, propose, prove, support, synthesize	Concept formation Concept attainment Concept simulation Synectics

Matching, pelmanism game and *scrambled definitions* required thinking processes characteristic to the lower level of Webb's Depth of Knowledge, but they were useful methods to introduce terms, they also contributed to team building and interaction. The main idea of these methods was to match cards with terms and cards with their explanations. Variations of these methods – *matching antonyms, matching parts of definitions, making definitions for the given keywords* and *providing context* required deeper thinking at skill/concept level. Another method that was applied to present and practise terms effectively was *word-building*. It involved decoding – participants had to induce the meaning, e.g., reliability (from the verb – *rely* and noun suffix - *ity*) and contrasting, e.g., *primary, elementary, basic, secondary, high school*. It was the first step towards creating new terminology.

The acquisition of concepts and terms is characteristic to constructive learning. To teach them, information processing models: *advance organizers, concept formation, problem solving, concept attainment,*

synectics, word associations, visualising were applied. Informational processing models emphasize ways of enhancing the human being's innate drive to make sense of the world by acquiring and organising data, sensing problems and generating solutions to them, and developing concepts and language for conveying them (Joyce, 2002). As the term implies, the aim of applying information processing models is to help students operate on information obtained so that they develop conceptual control over the areas they study. To facilitate social interaction, such methods as *walk and swap, showdown* was applied.

New integrated approach to terminology not treating terms as isolated items, but seeing holistic picture had been incorporated in the new professional master's study programme at the University of Latvia. The Professional Master's study programme *Teacher* is envisaged for students who have a Bachelor' degree or the second level professional higher education (or the comparable education) to obtain a Professional Master's Degree in Education and, by choice, teacher's qualification specializing in one of the school subject fields.

The chief innovation is the modular structure of the programme, flexible time of studies, bilingual studies – in the Latvian and English languages, thus, ensuring integrated studies of the foreign language and course content, interdisciplinary approach; facilitating

link of the anticipated results with the professional specialization of the students; integration of didactics and research improving the research skills and managing learners' research process and works. The study courses have been planned to be delivered cooperatively by 2-3 lecturers.

The programme puts principal focus on interdisciplinary approach. Its special focus is readiness to learn and teach bilingually. Therefore special attention in this programme is paid to the acquisition of professional terminology in at least three languages, thus enriching students' understanding through comparing derivational systems and developing their translanguaging skills (Celic, Seltzer, 2011). The individual plurilingual competence is a target action and additional resource in studies concerning the anticipated results of the study programme:

- Works together with other professionals in a team;
- Can enlarge one's knowledge and understanding by carrying out research and studying in foreign languages.

Terminology work is planned and organised in several steps. First, designing course content of Professional Master's Study Programme "Teacher", key terms and concepts relevant to understanding each study were selected. Concepts helped to understand course content. Clarifying and linking course concepts helped to realise interrelations and lack as the main

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terms should be related to learning outcomes. It was planned that during the introductory session, completing each topic and in the exam, students did tasks connected with terminology.

Secondly, concept formation model was applied in the introductory session. Students were exposed to a set of concepts and asked to organise them in previously negotiated groups:

> *Sustainability*, *wellbeing, cohesion, diversity*, *securitability*, *identity, human rights*, *community, holism, contextuality, creativity, life skills, value orientation, participation, responsibility, global citizenship, globalization, intersection of time and space, hopeful future stories, informal learning, ...*

Next, to summarise the topic students designed key concept lists:

> *Teacher as a partner or counsellor; involvement, sustainability, mutual communication, collaboration, responsibility for learning process, interaction, personality development, work atmosphere, inclusion, celebrating diversity, culture dialogue, supportive environment, meaningful social content, efficiency, participation, motivation and energy to cooperate and participate, joy to learn, expressing opinion, new knowledge, cooperation, way to the common aim,*

experience, world outlook, individual contribution to achieve the aim, favourable atmosphere, respect, benefit, learning by doing, teacher-counsellor. (Terms from the course *Didactic Approaches in Education Practice* (Peda5163): The concepts associated with the social interaction family of methods).

Concepts and terms were used in three languages which facilitated (basing on semantics and word building typical of each language) deeper and more detailed understanding. Such practices offered the possibility for students to access academic content through the resources they brought to the class while simultaneously acquiring new ones. Thus, academic staff realised students' knowledge of theory. Activity showed the professional interests and attitudes of the group what they knew and what should be mastered.

In another task a variety of language concepts, which had no appropriate translation in other languages were provided to students and they were encouraged to find their own examples. In the Latvian language: *kapusvētki*; in Georgian: *genacvale, gamarjoba*, the Ukrainian: *посіпака, тітушки, жовтогарячий.* The challenging terms which cannot be translated developed creativity and raised awareness of relativity of language skills.

Conclusions and Discussion

Action research had positive effect for many reasons, but the most important that it was relevant to the participants. Relevance was guaranteed because the focus was determined by the researchers, who were also the primary consumers of the findings. Action research helped educators be more effective at what they cared most about – their teaching and the development of their students. It was also an empowering experience to researchers – practitioners.

Terminology work links learning and teaching. Lecturer's work should start with selecting terms and the most appropriate methods. Conducting needs analysis could be a valuable asset. In professional development programmes, work with terms is relevant to teachers who plan to work as mulplicators/ mentors/ trainers. Experienced focus on the acquisition of concepts and terms during teacher education by students themselves could lead to the transmission of method to their education approach and professional repertoire: "The inquiry process that guides the creation of learning experiences is exactly the same in the secondary phase of education and in the university as it is with young children. The maths teacher and the professor of physics arrange environments, provide tasks and try to learn what is going on the minds of their students, just as does the teacher who first introduces reading and writing to her students" (Joyce, Calhoun & Hopkins, 2002).

The method of recognising and learning terms corresponds to the concept of 'loop input' model, suggested by Woodward (1991). In *loop input*, as it is explained by Woodward (1991) is an activity frame borrowed from another level. It is brought back up and used by trainers for the purpose of their own syllabus. The content is aligned with process so that it forms a Mobius strip. The model was named loop input because the Mobius strip looks like a strip of paper that has been looped. This is an experiential teacher training process that involves unity of process and content. Thus, teachers can apply classifying terms according to the required level of acquisition, consolidation of understanding in their practice to select, evaluate and plan vocabulary work. They will teach in the same way they have learned.

The Professional Master's competence is to be formed by three interrelated sets of study results: (1) the epistemological aspect of professional competence in cognitive activity; (2) the ontological aspect of professional competence in integrated pedagogical practice and research and (3) the axiological aspect of professional competence in pedagogical practice directed to personal wellbeing and coherent development of society. The focus of this study proves that terminology aspect relates to all three sets of anticipated results of the study

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programme: particularly to the epistemological aspect of professional competence that envisages that students can communicate the information clearly and convincingly based on both cognitive and affective processes and taking into account the characteristics of the target audience in various social and cultural contexts.

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Annex 1. Professional Terminology Study Methods

Concept simulation Method developer Inga Belousa.

Task for groups: use course specific key-words to design a schematic model to actualise the studied course content further:

Group 1: Further education courses for teachers to improve their professional competence of ensuring sustainable cultural environment of education.

Group 2: Discussion with colleagues while drinking coffee during the long break to get them interested in the topic.

Group 3: Conversation with a relative (possibly a child or teenager) to inform about the studied in the course.

Group 4: Mentoring a new colleague to encourage and support developing sustainable cultural environment of education.

Group 5: Discussion with colleagues which is organised after lessons to maintain colleagues' interest and improve professional competence of ensuring sustainable cultural environment of education..

This method not only develops thinking skills, it also serves as a powerful tool for academic language development – discrimination and practice of different language styles.

Concept formation

Development of classification skills, hypothesis building and testing, and understanding of how to build conceptual understanding of concept areas.It consists of three steps:

1. Concept formation: What matches what? Learners name words connected with concept, group them and give titles to the groups they have formed.

2. Interpretation – 'What do you see?' Leaners describe the new classification, explain relations between categories, reasons and consequences, and make conclusions.

3. Applying principles – 'what would happen if...?' Learners use regularities to prove or explain hypothesis, assumptions, and prognosis. They work out criteria to test them.

   Inductive thinking helps learners find and classify information, form and classify categories, form and test hypotheses of the formed concept groups.

Concept attainment

Teacher thinks of a concept and formulates its explanation. Learners' task is to recognise (guess) the concept, and compare relevant (valid) and irrelevant (not valid) examples. It consists of three steps:

1. Concept attainment – teacher provides examples relevant to the concept; learners make assumptions and test them. Basing on characteristics, they make a definition.

2. Concept testing – Teachers provides examples that are either relevant or irrelevant to the concept. Teacher affirms right assumptions, says the concept and corrects definition made by learners. Learners add to features of the concept, giving more examples.

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3. Analysis of thinking strategies. Learners describe their thinking, discuss role of assumptions and hypothesis in concept attainment. This method helps to recognise concepts, comparing and contrasting examples, applying examples with irrelevant characteristics reveals characteristics typical of concepts.

Naming irrelevant examples is very important as they help to set limits of concepts.

Synectics

Synectics is a problem solving method which facilitates thought processes of which learners may be unaware. The aim of the method is to develop creativity, raise awareness of creative processes and mastering strategies. Synectics means creating analogies and applying them in problem solving as well as generating new ideas. It consists of several steps:

1. Describing the situation. Teacher asks learners to describe the real situation as they see it.
2. Direct analogy – Teacher or learners name persons, objects, phenomena. Learners are encouraged to invent direct analogies and explain how the original is similar to the new one. To find a new approach, the situation is transferred to another situation or problem.
3. Personal analogy. Teacher asks learners to identify themselves as a living or inanimate object and describe it from the point of view of the first person. (Imagine you are...! How are you feeling? What surrounds you? How do you perceive it?)
4. Symbolic Analogy or Compressed Conflict

   Basing on their own characteristics learners make word combinations that appear contradictory, e.g., cruel kindness, kind enemy, cruel games, horrible summer, true lies. Teacher encourages learners to explain the contradiction, give examples from nature or culture.
5. Teacher leads learners back to the original tasks or problem and applies analogies to raise and broaden awareness.

Defining terms

This method helps to formulate and establish meaning. To make a definition, small research can be done to find different contexts, examine discourses and the respective meanings (syllabus, curriculum, etc.). Students come up with definition that explains the term; they can expand or narrow the scope of the term.

Placemat

Placemat – is a method that helps learners to visualise process of definition making. Learners write their ideas individually and then compare and agree on the final versionThen in groups in four, learners are asked to make a placemat on their paper as follows: divide the page in 4 parts diagnoally, the circle is drawn in the point of intersection.

1. Ask to write the concept in the middle of the placemat.
2. First, each learner writes ideas or comments in their own space on the placemat.
3. Then learners read what others have written by turning the placemat around and discuss the ideas.
4. They agree on what could be written in the middle.

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Walk and swap

The aim of the method is to understan and learning concepts and key words.

1. Give each learner a slip of paper and one key word.

2. Learners copy the term on the slip of paper and write its translation on the other side.

3. Learners stand up and each finds a partner. Learner A of reads out to learner B either term in English or MT.

4. Learner B gives translation. If learner B does not give the translation learner A tells it and asks to repeat it three times. Then learner B reads out his/her word and follows the same process.

5. When they have finished, they swap slips and find another partner.

6. Continue until learners have changed most of the terms.

Finally ask them to write down the words f rom memory. Discuss nuances of meanings

Showdown

The aim of the method is to revise or learn words, terms, concepts, definitions, and check understanding

Learners work in groups. Teacher prepares words or questions for each group, write each on a separate slip of paper.

Version – there is a question on one side and the answer on the other side of the slip or a word in mother tongue on one side and translation of the word on the other side.

Example: Learn the words connected with the topic.

1. Put the word cards face up in the centre of the group. MT – up, English – face down.

2. Appoint a leader/captain for the first round,

3. The leader reads out the first word aloud.

4. Without talking, everyone (including the captain) writes the translation of the word on his/her paper and then place the paper face down.

5. When everyone has finished writing, the captain says "Showdown".

6. Everybody shows the answer.

7. The leader turns the task card over to check the answer.

8. Group discusses the answers that are different.

9. If everyone has a correct answer, the card is removed, if not – the card is placed at the bottom of the pack to repeat it later.

The learner on the left becomes the leader for the next turn.

Venn diagram

The aim of the method is to process terminology, activate knowledge on similarities and differences related to the topic and terms as well as concepts. Learners write the two chosen topics/objects to compare in outer circles, and then write similarities between them in the middle. Example: Bilingual education & CLIL.

Pelmanism game

A memory game with word cards. The aim of the method is to memorize terminology.

1. Two or more learners can play. A card pack of terms should be prepared, the backs of the cards should be indistinguishable and the faces can be matched up in pairs or quartets.

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2. The cards are thoroughly mixed and spread face down on the playing surface. The cards should not overlap, and can be arranged in a regular pattern or spread irregularly as desired.

3. Learners take turns to play. At their turn they turn face up two cards of their choice from the layout. If cards match (e.g., term in Latvian and term in English), learners take these two cards, store them in front, and take another turn. If the cards with terms do not match, they turn them face down, without changing their position in the layout, and it is the next learner's turn.

4. Play continues until all the cards from the layout have been taken as matched pairs.

5. Each learner scores one point for each pair taken. The learner with most points is the winner.

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Language Situation in Modern Georgia

1. Kartvelian Languages

Abstract

The article displays main aspects of the large-scale works made by Frankfurt am Main Goethe Institute in the framework of the project "Sociolinguistic Situation in Modern Georgia" (financed by Volkswagen Foundation). 42 scientist from 12 Georgian scientific establishments took part in the project.

First part of the article shows the cumulative results of the researches made by Kartvelian Language Group in 2006-2008.

Introduction

The term "language situation" means overall configuration of language use in given time on given place and includes such data as: how many and which languages (dialects) are used in a given area, how many people speak them, in which situation, what attitudes and feelings the members of given community have towards this languages (J. Ferguson, 1971, p. 157).

1.1. Language Policies

A language policy is an official action which tries to intervene in the area of functioning (e.g. Writing system, choosing of official language etc.) Of any type of a language (state, regional, minority, foreign etc.), or in the parts of the educational system that are connected to these languages.

Citizens or citizen groups can implement a language policy voluntarily on state level or in a private sector. Influence upon languages takes place in the context of spe-

cific social situations or events to which it belongs.

A language policy consists of several components: national concept, educational goals, actors (politicians, public persons, political party activists, members of trade unions etc.) and intervention levels (legislative, regulatory etc.).

To acknowledge the political nature of language and language teaching is a prerequisite for any action in this area, since technical difficulties (structural, administrative, financial etc.), that should be solved by government's individually or cooperatively, cannot be solved until issues related to these principles are not defined.

The language plays a key role in defining the affiliation of certain social or region-ethnical unity. The feeling of the value of the **Native language** is a fundamental component of comprehending one's role in community. Since language is a visible sign of group affiliation, it can easily become the symbol of this group. Language can be a valuable resource for an individual or a group, which needs to be preserved and be taken care of, which is reflected in the attitudes toward this language (Ó Riagáin Pádraig & Lüdi Georges, 2008, p 29).

This is the reason why we use the term "**language variety**" to avoid the use of term **language**, which is always means thinking with *values*. Any definition of language varieties are based on external factors and not the real (linguistic) characteristics of the given variety.

Language, like any Phenomenon, has two natures, is considered in two aspects:

One is its inner, immanent nature, defined by its form and semantic system and structures. Manifesting of these structures in their own dynamic, defining of cause-and-effect relations between them, defining the regularity between their changes and development – this is the specific task of linguistics.

Second aspect is the pragmatic, applicational side of a language. To define is applicational side of a language, learn the applicational function of the language, defining the social values of a language, researching connection of language towards social processes and its influence on these processes, basically studying the social causes of the creation, existence and development of a language - this is the task of sociolinguistics. (B. Jorbenadze, 1980).

1. 2. Language Nomenclature: Native language/mother tongue, foreign language, second language

Language nomenclature is the subject of academic and political debates (the term "language" included). It is desirable to develop terminology for at least defining language types: Native, foreign, second etc. But, defining all the categories objectively is impossible.

There is an interesting relation in Georgian reality between terms "native language" and "mother tongue".

In European linguistics words/phrases with semantic of "mother" are often used (Eng. *Mother tongue*, Germ. *Muttersprache*, Swed. *Modersmål*, Fr. *La langue maternelle*, Sp. *La lengua materna*, Geo. *დედაენა* etc.); same meaning (practically a synonym) is conveyed with the term "native language (Eng.: Native Language, Rus. родной язык, ქართ. მშობლიური ენა); it should be noted, that there was a serious discussion in Germany about changing the historical term "mother tongue" to more "adequate" translation as "native language" (or – basis language). In Germany the motivation was completely different – the accusations of Nationalism (G. Ramishvili, 2000. 70); there

is a really exceptional situation in Georgian reality in this aspect.

Dedaena (Georgian: Mother Language) is defined as an own language, which defines the identity of a person, whether he/she learned it from the childhood or not. As stated above, European languages also have lexemes with similar content and form, but due to historical reality, they have a rather diminutive feel and were traditionally connected with women, children and other illiterate members of the society; while in Georgian it means the main language (G. Ramishvili, 2000, p. 9; Z. Kikvidze, 2004, p. 206-212; N. Dennison, 1986, D. Pattanayak, 2003, p. 23-28).

In the definition of mother tongue the social purpose is highlighted: "Dedaena means main language and not someone's language (it is the subject of sociology, not individual psychology)" – see. G. Ramishvili, 2000, p.9); "Dedaena is the language of the culture created by the ancestors. As a worldview system, it unites several generations. Dedaena is the main language, not necessarily the language of a biological parent (T. Futkaradze, 2005, 324).

It seems that this is an attempt to give the term "dedaena" special functions (such

that, for example, English "mother tongue" lacks). This has certain objective Precondition a notable fact is that at the end of the XIX century a textbook by I. Gogebashvili with this name (Deda Ena) was published, which the whole Georgian nation used to start learning the native language. So the opinion common among Georgian scientists – that literary Georgian language is the same as Dedaena – is not accidental (T. Futkaradze, 2005, 61).

If we consider the traditional understanding of native language (the language using which a child understands and assimilates linguistic "rules" in his immediate environment and, as well as rules of communicational behavior), then it naturally becomes impossible to consider literary language being the same as native language (Dedaena); thus it is clear that the term Dedaena has already acquired additional functions, which are not characteristic for the term native language.

Thus, in this article we deliberately avoid the use of terms "**native language**" and "**dedaena/mother tongue**" and use the **term first language** instead – the language that a person learns in early years naturally, mainly in the family, among parents, without any instructions.

The difference between terms **second** and **foreign** languages must be noted. Second language is any language one learns after first or native language. The accent here is on the importance of geographical or social environment; this means, that this language is learned in an environment where it is spoken. It is not a so called foreign language. Second language. Second language definition not only incudes the sequence of learning, but also highlights the sociolinguistic status of the language variety.

Foreign language is a language the use of which does not go beyond the bounds of a classroom. In-depth learning of such a language is difficult. It is not easy to learn a foreign language as well as native, or even second one.

It is necessary to differentiate between the statuses of second and foreign languages: the term **foreign languages** are often used to refer to language varieties, learning of which can have less motivation: namely, the learners are not in contact with these language varieties, or use the, only in virtual or limited forms (cinema, television, visits to countries in which they are used etc.). be-

cause of this, the learners may not understand their own needs of the foreign languages – for them they are just school subjects, the achievement of which is not a factual acquisition, but the assessment (tests, exams); this is the main difference between second and foreign languages: second language is acquired, assimilated by the learner; foreign language is learned as a subject (this causes the difference between methodological approaches and teaching strategies).

1.3. State language; dominate language; language minorities

State language is a language variety which has a role of communication language between citizens and state (state departments, legal system, schools) sanctioned by constitution or other legal instruments. This means that citizens can use any language variety in private communication. But, in most cases, official language is the **native language** for the part of the population significant either in number or socially. Although, for example, in the former colonies of western states this role can be played by the **language of the colonizer,** which is not native to any of the aboriginal groups.

In national states the **official language** can become a factor of identity or the membership of society. State language does not always match citizenship (if you speak English, it does not mean you are a citizen of Australia, Belgians speaking French and Belgians speaking Flemish are citizens of the same state etc.). Because of this, the term **state language** is more emotionally charged than the term official language (Development of language education policies in Europe – guiding principles, 2008, p.64).

Term **dominant language** describes a language variety with higher legal or social status compared to other varieties on the given geographical territory. The superiority can apply to a whole state or to one region of it. This superiority is measured not only by the number of a speakers. The place given to a variety with such a status by the society tells us that we should research how appropriate the allocation of such space is and what the characteristics of this space are.

Language minority is a language which might be spoken by minorities on the part of national territory and which might even have an official status, but it might not be the status of official or legal language.

The term **language minority** refers to language varieties which are used by certain groups: these groups may consider themselves to be different due to territorial settlement, religion, lifestyle or any other characteristic and strengthen or regulate their difference within the bound of greater society.

The language minority status of several societies does not correspond to quantitative criteria: on certain geographic territories or societies such language varieties may be widespread; but the status belongs to **rights** which these groups do not possess: the use of this language on court, in production of legal or administrative documents, as a **teaching language** in education (primary school as well as university), in functioning as a language of national media, street signs etc. Regional and Minority language Charter lists social life sectors, in which the use of such language varieties participant states takes responsibility to support.

1.4. Language self-identification and hetero-identification

Language, along with religion and territory is one of the self-identification resources. Although, in the 21st century, a state cannot be formed using the same model as in the 19th century: today it is impossible to perceive statehood based only on common historical values as religious inheritance, individual moral and individualism or common political ideals, which are still far from usual lives of people.

Studying the issues of identification with language must take place only in the context of identity formation. To study the subject in this context is important, since the language is an identification mechanism and, at the same time, an important factor for an individual in developing the internal and externals factors of belonging to a certain group.

Identification with language is a widespread form of cultural identification, since the language is generally considered to be a sign that an individual belongs to a certain group. But to use only the language as an identification characteristic is an attempt to diminish the real linguistic diversity (Beacco Jean-Claude, 2008, p. 13).

Identification language, be it self-identification or hetero-identification, is usually the **native language.** On the first glance the term "native language" seems to be quite unambiguous, but actually it is not

such a simple term (see above). In practice, the first language for a child is the language of mother as well as farther. If parents have same native language or a language they communicate in, there seems to be no problem. But sometimes the parents speak more than one language, which they use to communicate, and these languages are not always the native (first) languages for them. One thing that is clear is that "native language" is the most accessible for identification purposes, since it gives the ability to easily transmit the identification with genetic line to the descendants.

It is often assumed that the identification language is self- as well as hetero-identification is the **state (national) language.** Recently, this model of identification is becoming increasingly popular.

Language intensifies the feeling of being different from others, the difference of language is symbolized with the absolute identity of specific groups. This self-categorization has become traditional on European scene, which was spread with historic terms such as: national minority/nationalities and nations. This **ethnic concept** (as it is often called) of nation definition, which is drastically different from

the **civil concept,** has been and still is the basis of official and normal categorization, which perceives national and civil unions as one and the same and connects national union to having same language (Beacco Jean-Claude, 2008, p. 19).

2. About the Project "Sociolinguistic situation in modern Georgia"

There are several languages represented in Georgia. Some of them are Indo-European (Greek, Russian, Armenian, Ossetian, Kurdish, Ukrainian), some are Altaic or Turkic-Tatar (Azeri), Uralic (Estonian in Abkhazian – villages Estonka and Salme), some are Semitic or Arameo-Syrian (separate villages in Georgia) and Ibero-Caucasian language Family, consisting of for Groups: Kartvelian, Abkhazo-Adyghean, Nakh and Dagestani (see appendix #1).

One of the varieties of Kartvelian languages – Georgian language – has the status of state language; other Kartvelian languages are unwritten (with no written language).

In 12-14 December 2003 an international conference with the support of Volkswagen Foundation, called "The sociolinguistic situation of present-day Caucasia" was held, in

which caucasologist from around the world took part; on this conference an issue was raised – a conduction of a sociolinguistic study based on modern methods, which would result in a complete analysis of existing language diversity in Georgia.

On the February 16th 2006 the project was signed (financed by - Volkswagen Foundation; project authors – I. Gippert, M. Tandashvili; Goethe University Frankfurt am Main); 8 Scientific-learning establishments and 42 leading scientist took part in its conduction; in the correspondence to the tasks in the framework of the project 6 Workgroups were formed:

    I. Georgian Literary Language Group;

   II. Kartvelian Languages Group;

 III. Caucasian Languages Group;

 IV. Non-Caucasian Languages Group;

  V. Georgian Dialects Group;

 VI. Migration and Digital Processing Group.

The goal of the project was on one hand to study the modern status and functionality aspects of Georgian as a **state language;** and, on the other hand, the sociolinguistic analysis of the languages (speaking codes) of ethnic and linguistic groups living in Georgia. Due to complexity of the issue, the project was of a multidisciplinary nature: one im-

portant part of the project was to study the migrational processes and following language changes in Georgia during the last 100 years.

Because of the research goals, the project included not the internal structural analysis of languages themselves, but the description of how people from social groups used these languages. The internal structure of a language is accepted as existing data and is not analyzed; our interest was to find out in which areas of life the languages under our study were used; what is the relation among them in respect to status and functionality; which language is "leading", so to say, or which is the main (although unofficial) communication mean between different ethnic groups; which languages are used with religious, domestic or everyday life functions.

It is quite difficult to answer these questions and the research in this direction has only begun recently in Georgia. It must be said that the accent in the works about this problem were mainly on *diachronic sociolinguistic,* which studies language development process related to social development. Due to different objective or subjective reasons, the development of synchronic socio-

linguistic, especially during the Soviet Era, was not supported.

2.1. Research Methods

There is a special methodology for studying language functionality: desk research, social surveys with questionnaires, in-depth interviews etc. The study of languages with legal (state, regional, and minority) status is based on reviewing constitutional and normative acts and questionnaire researches, while surveys with questionnaires are used for languages without status to find when and in which situation – in which context – one uses a certain language. Determining such characteristics of an individual as nationality, religion, native language, is an unambiguous human right, anchored in International Convention of Human Rights and there is only one approved method of researching them scientifically - surveys with questionnaires.

The questionnaires for sociolinguistic censuses, when asking questions about language issues, are usually focused on one hand, on the first (native) language and, on the other hand – on another, non-native language used every day, spoken at home, with neighbors, when communicating with

government agencies, in school or work etc.; there are very few censuses, which include the questions that would reveal complete information about the languages the respondent speaks. We think the questionnaires developed in the framework of this project are quite informative in this aspect answers

Questionnaires should have a place where the respondent can reflect more information and the question should not have only one question, but given the option to reflect different answer and thus the diversity of language functions (especially in the diversity of the association of an individual to certain groups).

This statistic custom can also be seen in the process of statistical calculation; for example, when counting the number of certain minorities in a region, there is this tendency: the language minorities are identified with only one language, with **native language,** and the statistic gives no information about the level the subject speaks the native language; as well as to what purpose, in which areas, this language is used. It is a sad reality that the approach of identification with one language is dominant in most of the societies. Thus, this kind of a

defect can also be seen in sociolinguistic studies.

Multi-language repertoire of an individual, as stated above, consists of different languages he/she acquired with different ways (childhood, teaching, independent learning etc.) and different skills gained in the process (spoken language, reading, writing etc.) on different levels. These languages may have different functions and purposes; for example, communication within the family, communication with neighbors, in learning process or at work. Language is a basis which unites a group according different cultural characteristics **around the identification language**. Language repertoire is diverse: some groups have identical language repertoire, which is caused by historic or geographic reasons and the individual chooses on, symbolic language, around which the group is formed. Of course, this doesn't mean that he/she loses other languages from the repertoire. They are used masked or with self-censorship, meaning the languages are not self-identified with; but these languages are used according to circumstances and situations.

2.2. Kartvelian Languages

Kartvelian languages are Georgian, Zan (same as Colchian, or Megrelian-Laz languages) and Svan; some scientist consider Megrelian and Laz languages to be separate languages (G. Kartozia, Z. Sarjveladze, H. Fähnrich etc.). In last years the status of Kartvelian languages (Megrelian-Laz and Svan) has become a subject of debates; a part of scientist considers them to be dialects of Georgian.

In linguistics the definition of dialect is:

"Territorial, temporal or social variety of a language, used by relatively limited number of people and is different with its structure (phonetic, grammar, lexical, semantic) from language standard, which itself is the socially most prestigious dialect (B. Jorbenadze, 1989, p. 8). A dialect must be defined as a language speaking variety spread on a certain territory or in certain ethnic, social, professional or age groups. So we have territorial, ethnical, social and professional dialects (B. Jorbenadze, 1989, p. 8).

Of course, a dialect can turn into a language, i.e. develop as an independent language system. At that point is changes qualitatively – quantitative differences become

qualitative differences (B. Jorbenadze, 1989, p. 10).

The relation between language and dialect can defined in following way: the prerequisite for admitting that language varieties or dialect belong to the same language is that they form the same continuum. (W. Boeder, 2005, p. 218).

In sociolinguistics dialect is defined in applicational (practical) light; thus, its linguistic status, as a rule, is not considered; this means that the description is according extalinguistic (and not immanent) signs:

The term Dialect in sociolinguistics is sometimes used referring to regional and language minorities (in other words, its linguistic immanent essence is ignored): generally, they are factual varieties belonging to national or federal territories. They belong to local population; for example, in contrast to newly settled migrated society. They do not necessarily belong to the same language gamily, like dominant/official varieties.

Dialect is also used in relation to the use of national or official languages. Varieties can be sociological (age groups, education level, formality of communication etc.) and/or territorial in origin. Notable are, for example, deviations in pronunciation or lexical peculiarities. They cause national language norm problem, from which they look "crooked". Varieties can crystalize and give identity substance for creation of new minority varieties (namely, in one generation or professional group).

Such language varieties are quite stable – they can even have their own written language: literature, dictionaries and base grammar. Because of this they can easily become the subject or the mean of instruction. They are united by the fact that they **do not have any official or special status,** but their recognition buy the rest of national society is ambiguous. This recognition, by the way, depends on the ability of mutual understanding between the given language variety and official/dominant variety as well as on cultural closeness between the group and other citizens. These language varieties are the development of fundamental feeling of belonging to a group as well as its clearest expression. In several cases the opinion of regional belonging is not the same as national belonging, but it can create a radical form of separation from national political society. Because of this a part of society's opinion can consider regional and minority languages to be a danger against nation.

This is exactly the kind of "danger" a part of Georgian linguists consider the status of Svan and Zan languages to be. In last years this kind of opinion has appeared: "the differentiation between language and dialect cannot be done solely in the area of linguistics; no language with a cultural tradition is named a language based on linguistic signs: no one has yet defined the margin after which the differences between related language units turn from quantitative to qualitative – a variation of a system becomes a new system" (T. Futkaradze, 2003, p. 119); thus, "the status of existing languages are, as a rule, defined by ethno-cultural and political-religious signs" (T. Futkaradze, 2003, p. 70);

It is an attempt to politicize the issue to categorically assert "as a rule, one nation (Ethnically speaking) has one mother tongue" (T. Futkaradze, 2003, p. 62); "one nation (ethnic unity) indicates one language" (T. Gvantseladze, 2003, p. 600).

We do not have means to deeply analyze this opinion, but we will still speak about the problem in several words.

Generally, same object (in our case – language) can become the subject of a study for several fields; a clear example for this is the existence of aside spectrum of natural sciences: the same natural event are studied from completely different angles (chemistry, physics, botanic, biology etc.). It is the same with the language: we must observe the principle of immanent definition. When speaking about the origin of a certain language, its relative languages – we must use the rules and terminology developed in the heart of historical-comparative linguistics; even A. Meie wrote, that "the only linguistic classification which is valuable and useful is a genealogical classification, based on the history of languages (A. Meie 1924, p. 1). Qualification as a language happens according systematic identity and differences – this is an axiom for linguist and other approaches are beyond the area of linguistics. Thus, the definition linguistic terms (language, dialect etc.) and their relation in linguistics are possible only with linguistic criteria, inclusion of extralinguistic concepts and criteria can only cause chaos (A. Oniani, 2003, p. 136).

Sociolinguistics studies language(s) functionality on synchronic level; its purpose is not and has never been the definition of the linguistic status of an object. It is clear that the status of certain units will be different

for historical-comparative linguistics from what was "made a rule" by sociolinguistics due to different extralinguistic factors. We think the opinion stated by B. Jorbenadze is correct: "in linguistic (to be exact, linguistic) view Megrelian-Laz and Svan languages are brother-languages to Georgian, but in ethnic-political (again, to be exact – sociolinguistic) view they have the same status as dialects (B. Jorbenadze, 1989, p. 36).

This issue is interesting from the angle of self-identification: Are Megrelian-Laz and Svan languages or dialects? – this was one of the questions asked to the respondents when making in-depth interviews, although this was not and could not be the once-and-for-all solution of this problem. It was just interesting what kind of attitude people (who have nothing to do with linguistics) have towards Megrelian-Laz and Svan languages and their roles.

Usually, Megrelian-Laz and Svan are regional languages or dialects of the Georgian language (the issue of self-identification when qualifying as a regional language will appear on its own, the accents is on being Georgian).

2.3. Analysis of sociolinguistic questionnaires

The main part of the sociolinguistic questionnaires created in the framework of the project is the question-group created to determine the area of use of language repertoire by the respondents. It is clear that in the condition of diglossia Kartvelian languages are different in function: the use area of Megrelian-Laz and Svan does not go beyond the scope of everyday communication (See T. Bolkvadze, 2007, 223). According to previous studies made in different social groups, this area of the scope of Megrelian language use are defined: at home, in oral folklore, markets, at funerals, at a table, during the free-time at school, in Kindergartens, garmers while working, during the free-time at the University, during the private correspondence (verified by the article of T. Bolkvadze – 2007, p. 224).

In our questionnaire we took following impotant factor into account: as it is known, in sociolinguistics spoken and written languages are differentiated: these are designations of different language forms and depend on which area used (speakins/spoken language or writing). These two forms of communication have different characteris-

tic: structure, organization, register (Development of language education policies in Europe – guiding principles, 2008, p.134-137); most importantly, spoken language has usually less social status and its written form can not (or does not) develop. Thus, the questions were grouped in 3 blocks:

1. Questions related to spoken (at the same time, informal) communication (speaking and listening skills) of the respondents;

2. Questions related to writing and reading skills of the respondents and reflects the repertoire of written communication.

The questions of first block:

a. The use of language at home: which language do you/did you use to speak to your father?; which language do you/did you use to speak to your mother?; which language do you/did you use to speak to your siblings?; which language do you/did you use to speak to your spouse?; in which language do/did your parents speak?; in which language do/did your grandparents speak?; in which language does/did your spouse speak?; in which language/languages did your grandparents speak before entering the school?; in which language/languages did your grandparents speak with each other entering at home?; in which language do you pray alone at home?; in which language do you pray in the church?; in which language do you get angry, curse?; in which language do you count(calculate)?; in which language do you speak to yourself when alone?; in which language do you dream?; what language do you speak in your dreams?

b. The use of language in everyday life (in community): in which language do your speak to your neighbors?; what language do you have to use most often in your village (neighborhood)?; in which language do you have to speak most to the elders of your village?; in which language do/did you have to speak in market?

c. The use of language with official structures:

in which language do/did you have to speak to your coworkers most of-

ten?; in which language do/did you have to speak to regional administration most often?; in which language do/did you have to speak in hospital most often?; in which language do/did you have to speak at school with the teachers most often?; in which language do/did you have to speak are bus/railway station checkouts most often?

With the passage of time, the language situation did and does of course change. Centuries ago the Megrelian lower social circle members knew Georgian language practically only due to the Church, Georgian was the language of the religion and this served as a language-binder and connector of Georgian tribes – thus, it cannot be said that Megrelian farmer centuries ago did not speak Georgian because he did not need it – he was not disconnected from common Georgian reality, national roots. The literacy problem remained till 20th century for the whole Georgia (and not only Samegrelo or Svaneti). But Georgian was for him not a **foreign** language (like, for example, Russian, which he heard more intensely than Georgian, e.g. in XIX century). It was and still is classified as second language

("Second native language", as respondents often name it).

Language situation in Samegrelo even for several decades ago was quite different from today – the trend has clearly evolved in favor of Georgian language.

We present the general conclusions: almost half of questioned respondents perceive Megrelian-Laz/Svan language as the **first** language (46.4 %); for a large part of respondents the so called "symbolic language" ("dedaena" [mother tongue] – Georgian) is the first language (43.8%); 6.8% cannot make a clear identification and represent a clear diglossia.

The questions of the first block in the questionnaire were general; the analysis of the answers of the **second block** questions were more interesting, since they are about writing and reading skills. It is interesting since Svan end Zan (Megrelian-Laz) languages do not have their own written language, so they successfully use literary language to reflect *reading and writing* language functions. The literary language is based on one of the Branches of Kartvelian languages – the Georgian language. In other words, Megrelian and Svan population mostly uses first language (Megrelian, Svan)

in the area of spoken language (speaking, listening), while "filling" the gaps of reading and writing with the literary Georgian, which is strengthened by its status as common Georgian language. Here must be noted, that Georgian literary language also gas a "prestigious" status and covers wide areas in spoken language component as well.

Schematically, this situation can be shown in this way:

	Spoken Language (Listening, Speaking)	Reading	Writing
Svan, Megrelian	+		
Literary Georgian Language	+	+	+

A separate subject is the Laz language (a dialect of Zan, together with Megrelian): a small part of Lazs is settled on Georgian territory and their language situation is identical to the schema above. As for the Lazs living in Turkey – their self-identification is quite different and it needs of be researched separately (the purpose of this article is the sociolinguistic analyze of Georgia).

The incomplete list of questions from second block:

In which language/languages do you read journals and newspapers?; do you think it is necessary for press to be published in Megrelian-Laz/Svan languages?; if not, why?; which language/languages are the books you read published?"; "Do you know any writer who writes/wrote in Megrelian-Laz/Svan?; "do you have any books published in Megrelian-Laz at home?"; "in which language do you write private records?"; "in which language do you write letters?"; "in which language do you take notes?".

Major part of the respondents (up to 80%) has not even heard of books published in Megrelian (Svan) languages ("Vefkhiskhaosani" translated in Megrelian, folkloric material, several publications of Zan-speaking poets). A part confuses something written on Zan language with Zan written language ("I don't think it has ever been published, there is no written language for these languages"; there is no Megrelian written language";

"there is no Svan written language" etc. – the are written as comments.

On the question- "do you think it is necessary for press to be published in Megrelian-Laz/Svan languages? - 72% gave negative answers. The answer about education language is also unambiguous: only 6 respondents said they wished for their children to receive education in Megrelian-Laz language; 4 respondents – in Svan language (together only 1% of the respondents).

In fact, the education language for respondents is the same as written communication. The answers to the questions in direction also show clear separation of the functions of the Georgian as education language and the Megrelian-Laz and Svan languages as communication codes (likely as a self-identification instrument). This is supported by the fact that majority of respondents (90%) answered positively when asked whether their children should be able to speak Megrelian-Laz/Svan language.

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Appendix #1:

a	2002	1989	Part in the whole population (in per cents)	
			2002	1989
a	1	2	5	6
Whole population	4371535	5400841	100.0	100.0
Among them				
Georgian	3661173	3787393	83,8	70,1
Azeri	284761	307556	6,5	5,7
Armenian	248929	437211	5,7	8,1
Russian	67671	341172	1,5	6,3
Ossetian	38028	164055	0,9	3,0
Abkhaz	3527	95853	0,1	1,8
Yazidis	18329	0	0,4	
Greek	15166	100324	0,3	1,9
Kist	7110	0	0,2	0,0
Ukrainian	7039	52443	0,2	1,0
Uzbek	81	1305	0.0	0.0
German	651	1546	0.0	0.0
Tatar	455	4099	0.0	0,1
Belarus	542	8595	0.0	0,2
Korean	22	242	0.0	0.0
Turk (Osman)	441	1375	0.0	0.0
Polish	870	2014	0.0	0.0
Kurd*	2514	33331	0,1	0,6
Kazakh	70	2631	0.0	0.1
Chechen	1271	609	0.0	0.0
Tajik	15	1193	0.0	0.0
Bashkir	36	379	0.0	0.0
Moldovan	864	2842	0.0	0,1
Ingush	9	170	0.0	0.0
Mordovian	19	415	0.0	0.0
Chuvash	28	542	0.0	0.0
Kyrgyz	113	225	0.0	0.0
Udmurt	13	209	0.0	0.0
Lithuanian	134	977	0.0	0.0
Bulgarian	138	671	0.0	0.0

	2002	1989	Part in the whole population (in per cents)	
			2002	1989
a	1	2	5	6
Jewish	3772	24720	0,1	0,5
Marian	10	424	0.0	0.0
Romani	472	1744	0.0	0.0
Lezg	44	720	0.0	0.0
Chinese	47	110	0.0	0.0
Persian	46	123	0.0	0.0
Turk (Meskhetian)	53	0	0.0	0.0
Estonian	59	2316	0.0	0.0
Latvian	91	530	0.0	0.0
Turkmen	74	361	0.0	0.0
Avar	1996	4230	0.1	0,1
Tatar (Crimea)	15	615	0.0	0.0
American	27	41	0.0	0.0
Arab	44	76	0.0	0.0
Assyrian	3299	6206	0.1	0,1
Avgan	52	28	0.0	0,0
Circassians	22	185	0.0	0.0
Spanish	78	91	0.0	0.0
French	40	43	0.0	0.0
Gagauz	32	206	0.0	0.0
Dutch	105	28	0.0	0.0
English	25	5	0.0	0.0
Italian	31	24	0.0	0.0
Laks	210	426	0.0	0,0
Romanian	22	62	0.0	0,0
Udi	203	93	0.0	0,0
Hungarian	32	244	0.0	0,0
Kabardina	23	293	0.0	0,0
Kumyks	42	155	0.0	0,0
Czech	46	101	0.0	0,0
Other	504	7264	0.01	0.1

Note: *the census of 2002 does not include the situation in Abkhazia or South Osseria, since at that time the jurisdiction of Georgian state in these regions were restricted*

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MULTILINGUALISM IN CONTEMPORARY BRITISH POETRY

Abstract

Multilingualism is very much in the air now. Poetic language being inherently receptive to the minute changes in the society could not but reflect this tendency of modern life in its structure and vocabulary. The phenomenon of multilingualism as one of the aspects of poetic speech is the subject of this article. Various types and functions of multilingualism are considered. Special attention is paid to multilingualism as an artistic strategy in the contemporary British poetry.

Key words: multilingualism, hybridization, code-mixing, embedded language, language and cultural interaction.

Introduction

The question of multilingualism in poetry has long been discussed by linguists, literary critics, poets, and psychologists in many aspects: as a means of overcoming limitations of one language and producing a large cosmopolitan and international consciousness, as a way of asserting one's right to write in two or more languages (in case of colonial background) and focusing on national and ethnic awareness, as a technique of creating two or more literary persona, as a stylistic strategy.

Of course, there have always been polyglot poets who wrote in only one language at a time and did not mix them. Such poems can be found in big numbers in bilingual and multilingual collections of poetry and do not require illustration.

Another traditional practice is the insertion of elements (usually words and word combinations) of another or other languages into the body of a poem, written in English. The principal languages that have been embedded in the texts of English poetry are French, German, Greek and Latin.

A more recent variety of multilingualism is the experimental poetry with elements of linguistic hybridization, which explores the interactions of languages, in particular their semantic and stylistic implications.

Our objective is to consider them in turn with special emphasis on multilingualism as an artistic strategy.

Section 1. Writing poems in two or more languages, not mixing them.

In Britain there is a great number of bilingual poets who, occasionally at least, write in languages connected through a history of colonialism – English and their mother-tongue. In Scotland, for instance, they have a choice of English, Scots and Gaelic. In the past the choice of the language was invariably a matter of national identity, a way of asserting one's right to write in one's mother tongue.

Today questions of ideological and political character cannot also be escaped when a poet chooses to write in Scots or Gaelic in the face of almost exclusive domination of English. But in words of Roderick Watson, "if identity is an issue among contemporary Scottish writers it is more likely to be framed in the contexts of personal, existential, political or sexual being" (164). As an example Watson mentions such women-poets as Magi Gibson, Jackie Kay, Kathleen Jamie and Meg Bateman who explore their generation's experience of being a woman in Scotland.

In Ireland the choice of language is still an acute question of national identity. Some of the poets write in Irish. In Nuala Ni Dhomhnaill's poem "The Language Issue" she explains why she writes in Irish, using the image of the reed basket which carried the baby Moses down the Nile as the metaphor for her poetry written in Irish. The Pharaoh's daughter who sees the basket and saves the baby is the future reader.

Bilingualism forms the theme of two essays by a famous Welsh poet Gwyneth Lewis: "Whose coat is that jacket?" and "Whose hat is that cap?" In both essays she emphatically defends her right to write poetry in two languages: in Welsh - her mother tongue and in English, the other language of Wales, which Lewis read as an undergraduate at Cambridge. Explaining her bilingual experience in poetry Gwyneth Lewis compares the strengths and weaknesses of the two languages – English and Welsh. She points out, that " the rationality in English is one of its limitations as a poetic language. Whereas the musicality of Welsh – as with Dylan Thomas, for example – is also its downfall. I like to think *and* be musical. That is an ambition that is a composite one, from both traditions together".

It is necessary to add, that the metrical patterns of the two languages are also different. English is largely iambic, and Welsh is anapestic. The two rhythms are quite contradictory to each other.

Thus, writing poetry in more than one language gives the poet an opportunity to investigate possibilities of languages involved and the results of their interaction. Besides, the interfusion of two distinct literary traditions

which lies at the core of the understanding of poetic manifestations of different cultures is another important aspect any multilingual poet has to deal with.

Section 2. English Poetry with embedded elements from other languages.

Some other predominantly bilingual poets mix two languages within one poem. It is sometimes the case when a poet does not feel at home with English and longs for his (her) native language. In Julia Alvarez's poem "Bilingual Sestina" two languages, two cultures are intimately mixed:

Some things I have to say ain't getting said

in this snowy, blond, blue-eyed, gum-chewing English

dawn's early sifting through persianas closed

the night before by dark-skinned girls whose words

evoke cama, aposento, suenos in nombres

from that first world I can't translate from Spanish.

The poem reflects lonely, longing feelings of the persona, who is torn between the two languages. She chooses to write the poem in English with only a sprinkling of Spanish to stress her fragmented being at the moment.

Another case is with Gwyneth Lewis's poems. Although she predominantly writes in English and Welsh not mixing them, there are a few poems written in English with Welsh in-

sertions. In "Welsh Espionage" Lewis examines her bilingual experience:

Welsh was the mother tongue, English was his,

He taught her the body by fetishist quiz,

Father and daughter on the bottom stair:

"Dy benelin yw *elbow*, dy wallt di yw *hair*,

Chin yw dy en di, *head* yw dy ben."

She promptly forgot, made him do it again.

Then he folded her *dwrn* and, calling it fist,

Held it to show her knuckle and wrist.

"Let's keep it from Mam, as a special surprise.

Lips are *gwefusau*, *llygaid* are eyes."

………………………………………..

In the poem Lewis considers the complex process of establishing and violating cultural and linguistic boundaries. The two languages are clashing here and the struggle between them is represented by the change of roles of italicized words. Lewis describes her languages as inextricably bound to each other in her understanding and use of them.

Section 3. Mixture of languages as an artistic strategy.

For some other contemporary poets the ability to write in more than one language or to mix different languages is, to a great extent, a matter of stylistic choice. For instance, Scots

to W. N. Herbert is part of a broader language spectrum available to the poet. "I'm a polystylist, obsessed by how different modes of writing interact – not just Scots and English, but also formal and free verse, poetry on the page or in performance, long poems, forty-line lyrics. Everything's a dialect" (170).

W. N. Herbert writes in both English and a kind of experimental "plastic" Scots the bright example of which is his outrageously comic poem "Cabaret McGonagall". Here is its beginning stanza:

> Come as ye dottilt, brain-deid lunks,
> Ye hibernatin cyber-punks,
> Gadget-gadjies, comics-geeks,
> Guys wi perfict rat's physiques,
> Fowk wi fuck-aa social skeels,
> Fowk that winnae tak thir pills:
> Gin ye cannae even pley fuitball
> Treh thi Cabaret MacGonagall.

William McGonaGall is a poet and tragedian of Dundee, who has been widely hailed as the writer of the worst poetry in the English language. He was a man without talent who thought he was a great poet. Using his name and alluding to a famous American film "Cabaret" and a song from that film, the author creates a parodist critical vision of modern Scotland.

Herbert bases the Scots of his poetry on the dialect of his hometown Dundee, a dialect which stands out due to monophtongisation of [ae] to [e]. He freely modifies the spelling of some words and introduces his own inventions, which give his poems a convincing personal voice and an estranging effect.

In the Introduction to his collection of poems "The Forked Tongue" Herbert notes "I don't want to choose between them (English and Scots); I want both prongs of the fork. Aren't we continually hopping registers like socially-challenged crickets? My motto is *And* not *Or*" (12).

Another Scottish poet Tom Leonard mixes the English lexis with the urban demotic speech of the West Scotland – further estranged by phonetic transcription:

> ma lungs iz fuckt
> bronchitis again
> thi smoakin
>
> lookit
> same awl spliht
> yella ngreen
>
> von goghs palate
> paintn sunflowers

According to Roderick Watson a complex intersection of Scots and English together generates an unusual energy and linguistic fluidity, "despite the fact that MacDiarmid wanted to ascribe it solely and uniquely to Scots alone. And of course within modern Scots itself there is another level of interorientation, made manifest in a wealth of dialects, different registers, hybrid expressions and rhymes

which sometimes draw on the Scots and sometimes on the English form of the same word"(164).

For some other contemporary Scottish poets who write both in English and Scots such as Robert Crowford, Richard Price, David Kinloch, languages talking to languages is a shared theme, for them "language is a field of play". The same is true about a younger poet Jackie Kay who writes in a mixture of languages. She uses Old Scots in a poem "Fiere", Shetland dialect in a poem "The Knitter", Glaswegian in "English Cousin Comes to Scotland". Then she uses more contemporary Glaswegian and contemporary Scots. "I'm always playing around with the language and one of the fascinating things for a poet is how language is very, very fluid, and how it changes depending on immigration, influx of people, movement to places".

Merging of languages within one work is often referred to as hybridity or hybridization, a term coined by M. Bakhtin who meant by it a mixture of two social languages within the limits of a single utterance, an "encounter" within the arena of an utterance, between two different linguistic consciousnesses, separated from one another by an epoch, by social differentiation, or by some other factor.

An example of a mixture of languages and dialects is the poem of Tony Harrison "The Ballad of Babelabour" in which the reader comes across German words *Sprache*

and *neue* (written in the Gothic style), French word *merde*, Spanish word *negra*, imitation of the Northern English dialect accent in the word combination "*revurlooshunairy vurse*", English language grammatical endings added to German words: *Sprachered, Sprache's.* This mixture of languages and dialects which alludes to the" Babylonian confusion of words", mentioned in the epigraph by Bertolt Brecht, is a means of expressing the author's vision of the history of Great Britain and its present day's situation with its mixture of peoples and languages and, in particular, social varieties of the English language and problems resulting from this confusion. It is a deliberate linguistic strategy chosen by the poet for expressing his ideas.

The poem's headline "The Ballad of Babelabour" contains author's nonce-word which can be interpreted in two ways:

1.*Babel + bour: Babel* –from story of the Tower of Babel in the Bible and *bour* - an affix in many European names of towns and cities, such as: Bourges, Burgundy, Freiburg, Bournemouth etc.

2.*babel + labour: babel* – a scene of confusion, disorder, and the noise of many voices (also associated with *babble* – a confused sound of many people talking at the same time).

The second meaning realized in the poem is the language of workers:

What ur-Sprache did the labour speak?

ur ur ur to t'master's Sprache

the hang-cur ur-grunt of the weak

the unrecorded urs of gobless workers

Besides, Harrison uses the symbolism of the Biblical story of Babel to represent his vision of modern poetic language, and his own language which strives all the time to go out beyond the limits of the English language and, probably, his nostalgia for a protolanguage: Ursprache (in the poem "ur-Sprache") is the German word for a protolanguage from which all other languages have derived.

Multilingualism is a noticeable technique in the poetry of Paul Muldoon, one of Ireland's leading contemporary poets , especially in his poems of the latest period. This practice is not only a means to reflect Muldoon's life experience of emigration and displacement but also an artistic strategy, a means to articulate an experience of cohesive cultural and linguistic practice.

An example of such writing is the poem "Yarrow", which evokes a blend of history and author's childhood. It embraces a whole range of ideas and events, from colonial encounters through horticulture, philosophy, linguistics and literature to rock music and anthropology. In one of the interviews Paul Muldoon remarks on the subject of his poem in such a way: "It deals with the period of my childhood and has to do with all sorts of adventure stories – the imaginative life. It is the

background of a poet's mind, a child's mind, but written with somewhat loopy style".

The complexity of the structure of the poem is reflected by its allusiveness – from Camoes to Hart Crane, from Ovid to O'Rahilly. In Jamie McKendrick's view, this can be more playful than purposeful and the fabric of references to adventure stories, chivalric romances and television westerns seem to have become an end in itself, hindering the poem's movement".

Paul Muldoon has an infinitely resourceful, all-embracing wit, a profound awareness of the possibilities of poetic form and technique. Among the poem's fund of languages there are Latin, French, Spanish, nonce-words based on crafty multilingual pun, place-names, etymologies – Gaelic often shares the line with English.

Muldoon is generous and expansive in his using of names. His poem is peopled at once by Wild Bill Hickok, by Maud Gonne, Sylvia Plath and Michael Jackson brought to life by poet's fantastic imagination. Many critics are stunned by the range of Muldoon's multilingual puns, surprising associations and analogies between apparently unrelated texts and ideas and some call it "an associative madness".

Bernard O'Donoghue is of a different opinion. He states that all these "are not meant to be persuasive: they are just one way of or-

ganizing material. It's an intertextuality, at one level, it is mocking scholarship".

The bilingual puns and semantic doubles (Cicero – Caesar, US – USSR, album - white) appear, for example, in Muldoon's epigram on the Beatles' 1968 '' White Album":

> Though that was the winter when late each night
>
> I'd put away Cicero or Caesar
>
> and pour new milk into an old saucer
>
> for the hedgehog which, when it showed up right
>
> on cue, would set its nose down like that flight
>
> back from the U.S…back from the, yes sir…
>
> back from the…back from the U.S.S.R…
>
> I'd never noticed the play on "album" and "white".

Stephen Burt, describing this feature of Muldoon's poetry, calls it "alchemic transformations". "Words, objects and people merge and dissolve into each other – *soutane* into *Soutine*, *Merlin* into *Marilyn*" (19-20). Such

mutability creates fluidity and ambiguity which are especially characteristic of Paul Muldoon's later work.

It is difficult not to agree with Maria Johnston's remark that Paul Muldoon's poetry shows how "the poetic text can become a space for linguistic fertilization and the exploration of idiomatic texture of interacting languages".

Conclusion

Poetic language is inherently receptive to the minute changes in the society and reflects them in its structure and vocabulary. Multilingualism is very much in the air now. The postmodern cultural mood makes multilingual experiments a significant feature of literary art. The element of play in modern multilingual poetry is very strong, but it goes far beyond that. It turns into an exploration of the expressive resources of interacting languages and cultures and becomes the potential for a more authentic form of representation.

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Modality in Georgian: Methods of Teaching and Strategies for Foreign Speakers

(using the example of teaching Georgian as a second language and as a foreign language)

Abstract

Modality is a semantic category which, in many languages, is rendered by polysemantic and polyfunctional forms. This means that one and the same modal form may express different modal meanings when used in different contexts and combined with different verb-forms. This is considered to be a significant, specific feature of the Georgian language due to the fact that different forms of one and the same verb, when used with the same modal form, reveal different meanings. Therefore, translating modal forms may become a challenge for the translator as this process requires taking all the semantic nuances into consideration. In order to achieve this, it is crucial to set up a subsystem based on a certain principle, to fully reflect various semantic nuances of the meaning expressed by modal forms. To set up such a subsystem is necessary for effective teaching of a foreign language and it should fully reflect this important feature of the Georgian language in the process of teaching and therefore, in textbooks.

This paper presents this subsystem together with the methods and strategies to be taken into consideration whilst teaching the Georgian language. More specifically, the paper will discuss the possibilities of employing this subsystem in the process of teaching Georgian as well as the typology of the exercises and relevant practice at class.

Key words: modality, modal meaning, semantic analysis of a sentence.

Introduction

Modality plays a most important role in the language as it reveals permanent relations between the proposition and its semantics. According to the broad understanding of the topic, a sentence or discourse cannot be devoid of modal meaning. There is always a certain attitude felt towards the meaning expressed by the sentence-cognitive, emotional or rational. The speaker always expresses such an attitude although the means employed in the process may be

different. Specifically, the attitude towards the proposition can be expressed by the mood of the verb-form and modal elements as well as by focus, word order, intonation, gestures and facial expressions.

The main means of expressing modality as a semantic category are language forms, which notwithstanding a context, reveal a definite modal semantics. Therefore the main elements of expressing modality are language forms or modal verbs and elements.

The Modal system is involved in every level of language learning and teaching. In addition, the level on which various forms and semantics of modals should be taught has also to be defined.

In Georgian there are two verbs which express Georgian modal system - **ndoma (want)** and **shedzleba (can)**. It should be noted that these verbs are used as independent

verbs in Georgian and possess the system of conjugation as well as all three persons of singular and plural. As for the modal element, this is the singular form of the third person -**unda (wants/ must)** which is added, unchanged, to the verb paradigm. The construction renders several modal meanings. It should also be taken into consideration that the constructions are different. Specifically, the subject is in the dative case. However, in the second example the subject requires the construction of the main verb or, in other words, it appears in the case required by the main verb. This can be of either nominative or ergative construction: ის უნდა წავიდეს (is unda tsavides- he/she must go) - მან უნდა გააკეთოს (man unda gaaketos- He/she must do) :

უნდა Unda (want) as an independent verb - *changes according to the person and number*	Unda (must) as a modal verb -*does not change according to person and number*
მემინდა გავაკეთო (**me minda** gavaketo-I **want** to do)	მე უნდა გავაკეთო (**me unda** gavaketo-I **must** do)
შენგინდა გააკეთო (**shen ginda** gaaketo-**you (t) want** to do)	შენ უნდა გააკეთო (**shen unda** gaaketo-**you must** do)
მას უნდა გააკეთოს (<u>**mas unda**</u> gaaketos-<u>he/she</u> wants to do)	მან უნდა გააკეთოს (<u>**mas unda**</u> gaaketos - he **must** do)

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ჩვენ გვინდა გავაკეთოთ (**chven gvinda** ga-vaketot-**we want** to do)	ჩვენ უნდა გავაკეთოთ (**chven unda** gavake-tot- **we must** do)
თქვენ გინდათ გააკეთოთ (**tkven gindat** gaaketot-**you (V) want** to do	თქვენ უნდა გააკეთოთ (**tkven (V) unda** gaaketot- **you must** do
<u>მათ</u> <u>უნდათ</u> გააკეთონ (<u>**mat**</u> **undat** gaaketon-- **they** want to do)	<u>მათ</u> უნდა გააკეთონ (<u>**mat**</u> **unda** gaaketon-**they must** do)

Thus, this feature usually presents a significant problem in the process of teaching and learning a language and it is crucial to take this into consideration.

As well as this, there are other modal elements which are added to the verb to give them modal semantics: ეგებ (egeb), იქნებ (ikneb), ლამის (lamis), თითქოს (titkos), თითქმის (titkmis), კინაღამ (kinagham), მაინც (maints). For the Georgian the combination of the mood and a modal element proves to be relevant. Specifically, in the system of the Georgian language modality makes up the following semantic groups:

Semantics	Modal form	Example
Logical possibility	შევძლებ (shevdzleb- I will be able/I can) შესაძლოა (shesadzloa-perhaps) შესაძლებელია (shesadzlebelia- it is possible)	*შევძლებ წასვლას / გაკეთეუბას...(shevdzleb tsasvlas/gaketebas - I can/ I will be able to go/to do)* *შესაძლოა მოვიდეს / გააკეთოს...(shesadzloa movides/gaaketos- perhaps she/ he is able come/do)* *შესაძლებელია მოვიდეს / გააკეთდეს... (Shsadzlebelia movides/gaketdes- It is possible for sb to come/ smth to be done)*
Possibility	ალბათ (perhaps) იქნებ (may, proba-bly/ maybe)	*ალბათ მოვა / იტყვის... (albat mova/itkvis) Perhaps he/she comes/says* *იქნებ მოვიდეს / გააკეთოს...(ikneb mo-vide/gaaketos- Maybe he will come/do)*

Supposition	ეგებ (egeb-possibly /maybe, may (have))	ეგებ მოვიდა / მოვიდეს...(egeb movida/movides-He may have come/he may come)
Logical necessity	უნდა (unda- must (have) /should (have))	უნდა იყოს / გაეკეთებინა / ახსოვდეს...(unda ikos/gaeketebina/axsovdes- (it) should/must be/ (he/she) must have done/should remember
Obligation, duty	უნდა (unda) must/should	უნდა დაწერო / გააკეთო... ((you (t) unda da-tsero/gaaketo - you (t)should/must write/do)
Prohibition	ნუ (do not, should not)	ნუ აკეთებ / კითხულობ... (nu aketeb/kitxulob- (you) do not/should not do/read)
Permission	შეიძლება(sheidzle-ba -it is possible, may) შეგიძლია (shegi-dzlia- you can/ may) შეუძლია (sheudzlia-he can, may)	შეიძლება წავიდე / გავაკეთო?.. (sheidzleba tsavide/gavaketo? May I go?/do? Is it possible for me to go?) შეგიძლია წახვიდე / გააკეთო...(shegidzlia tsaxvide/gaaketo-(you(t) can/may go/do) შეუძლია წავიდეს / გააკეთოს...(sheudzlia tsavides/gaaketos-(he/she) can/may go/do)
Ability and capability	შემიძლია (shemi-dzlia- I can) ვიცი (vitsi-I know/ I can)	შემიძლია ცურვა / კითხვა...(shemidzlia tsur-va/kitxva-I can swim/read) ვიცი ცურვა / კითხვა...(vitsi tsurva/kitkhva-I know how to swim/I can swim)
Negation of ability and capability	ვერ (ver-I cannot/ be able to)	ვერ ვცურავ / ვკითხულობ... (ver vtsurav/vkitxulob (I cannot swim/read) ვერ გავაკეთებ / წავიკითხავ...(I cannot do/read - I will not be able to do/read)
Desire (Volition)	იქნებ(ikneb-perhaps) ნეტავ (netav- if only)	იქნებ წავიდე / გავაკეთო...(ikneb tsavide/gavaketo -Perhaps I can go/do)
Strong desire	ნეტავ(netav-if only (I..) could)	ნეტავ წავიდე / გავაკეთო...(netav tsavide/gavaketo- If only I could go/do)
Evaluation-approximation	ლამის(lamis-nearly) თითქმის(titkmis-	ლამის ჩამოვარდა / გატყდა...(lamis chamovarda/gatkda-It nearly dropped/broke)

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	almost) კინაღამ(kinagham- almost, nearly)	თიითქმის გააკეთა / დაწერა...(titkmis gaaketa/dastera– he/she nearly did/wrote)
Evaluation- imagination	თითქოს(titkos-as if) ვითომ(vitom-as if)	თითქოს მოვიდა / გააკეთა...(titkos movida/gaaketa -as if he/she came/did) ვითომ მოვიდა / ვითომ გააკეთა...(vitom movida/gaaketa -as if he /she came/did)
Emotional evaluation (surprise-amazement)	განა (Did he/she. re- ally?) ნუთუ (Has he/she really --?) აკი (I thought --- did he (she...) not) ნეტავ(I wonder if)	განა გააკეთა / თქვა...(gana gaaketa/tkva -did he really do /say that?) ნუთუ დაასრულა / მოვიდა?..(nutu daasrula/movida? -did he really finish/come? აკი არ მინდაო?.. (aki ar mindao?-did he not say he did not want it?) ნეტავ რა უნდა?..ნეტავ იცის ეს ამბავი?..(netav ra unda? netav itsis es ambavi?- what does he want? I wonder if he knows about this event?)
Evaluation-decision	ღირს*(ghirs- it is worth)	არ ღირს ამის გაკეთება... (arghirs amis gaketeba-it is not worth doing that) ღირს კი ამის გაკეთება?.. (ghirs ki amis gaketeba?-is it worth doing that?)
Belief-opinion	მაინც (still)	მაინც არ გავაკეთებ / წავალ... (maints ar ga- vaketeb-tsaval..still I will not do that/ go)
Mutual decision	მოდი (modi-let us)	მოდი ერთად წავიდეთ / გავაკეთოთ.. (modi ertad tsavidet/gavaketot-let us go/do together)
Individual decision (in oral speech)	ავდექი და...(avdeki da -I stood up and - I decided /made up my mind) ადექი და...(adeki da... You made up your mind and why not ...)	ავდექი და წავედი / გავაკეთე / ვუთხარი...(I stood up and went/did/said..I made up my mind and went/did/said) ადექი და წადი / გააკეთე / უთხარი...(you stand up and go/do/say -now make up your mind and go/do/say.. now you can take and go/do/say) ადგა და წავიდა / გააკეთა / უთხრა...(she/he

	ადგა და...(adga da..he made up his mind and ..)	stood and went..He made up his mind and went/did/said

The polysemantic and polyfunctional nature of modal forms

Generally, it is typical of modal forms to combine several meanings and taking this into consideration, the question about their different functions arises. This is attested in other languages as well. For instance, in English one modal form can express several meanings. Usage of various forms of modal verbs in various functions is also common.

For instance, **could** besides being the past form of the modal verb **can**, can also act as a polite marker.

Likewise, in Georgian, several modal forms express different meanings. The table below reveals the specific features of modal forms in this respect.

ეგებ (egeb), იქნებ (ikneb), ლამის (lamis), თითქოს (titkos), თითქმის (titkmis), კინაღამ (kinagham), მაინც (**maints**):

Modal form	Modal semantics
შეძლება (shedzleba - can)	• Logical possibility • Permission • Ability and capability
უნდა (unda- must)	• Logical necessity • Obligation and duty • Objective necessity
იქნებ (ikneb-perhaps)	• Probability • Desire, will
ეგებ (egeb-perhaps)	• Supposition • Probability
ნეტავ (netav-if only)	• Strong desire, wish • Emotional assessment (surprise-amazement)
მაინც (maints-still)	• Belief-opinion • Decision

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ღირს (ghirs- it is worth)	• Independent verb • Evaluation modality
ვიცი (vitsi- I know)	• Independent verb • Ability and possibility
მოდი (modi- let [us])	• Independent verb • Joint decision
ავდექი (I stood up in the meaning of I decided/made up my mind ..)	• Independent verb • Individual decision

It is crucial to take these features into consideration while teaching the language and especially, while teaching grammar material in order to plan when and how to teach semantic issues of modal forms.

Several meanings of one and the same modal form - must

Must is a modal form which expresses logical necessity. However, this is not the only type of meaning expressed by this modal form. The verb-form (mood and screeve) also plays an important role. The construction reveals different meanings depending on the type of combinations. In the table below several constructions are discussed and, as the fact that their meaning is defined by the verb-form, should be taken into consideration in the process of teaching the language. It should also be noted that the analysis of such semantic nuances is possible only on a higher level of the mastery of the language.

Construction	Semantic function
Unda (must)+Conditional II, I person, plural (უნდა ვთქვათ... unda vtkvat..we must/should say....)	Subjective approach of the speaker based on logical necessity, used in the meaning of objective truth.

Unda (must) + Conditional II (*(უნდა შეიცვალოს...unda sheitsvalos..it must/should change)*	The position of the speaker based on subjective perception and presented as a logically unavoidable truth. It expresses the action which will happen in the future combined with the meaning of advice and recommendation.
Unda (must) + Optative II (*უნდა ჩამოსულიყო (unda chamosuliko...she/he should have arrived)*	Logical necessity and orientation on the result.
Unda (must + Present Conditional) (*უნდა ახსოვდეს...unda akhsovdes... he/she should remember)*	Expresses indefinite action, logical necessity with the additional meaning of supposition or recommendation

The system of modal forms and its significance for the correct planning of textbooks and the teaching process

In order to plan textbooks and the teaching process correctly, it is necessary to present grammatical and language forms in a way which would facilitate teaching communicative aspects of the language, at the same time avoiding functional and semantic ambiguity of language forms. Taking this into consideration, besides well-selected communication topics, effective planning of functional grammar issues is also very important.

It is important to teach the means of rendering desire from the very first language level. To teach this meaning, the student is taught the verb "to want"', which expresses desire. (e.g me minda tskali (I want some water). It is also important to teach the forms of conditional mood as it implies the

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choice between several linguistic means. The additional meanings of obligation or decision willresult in teaching four constructions on the first level.

(1) მე მინდა პური. (me minda puri - I want bread)	Expresses desire
(2) მე მინდა პურის ყიდვა (.me minda puris kidva -I want to buy bread)	Expresses a desirable action
(3) მე მინდა პური ვიყიდო.(me minsa puri vikido - I want to buy bread)	Expresses desire and decision
(4) მე პური უნდა ვიყიდო. (me puri unda vikido - I must /have to /should buy bread)	Expresses decision or obligation

The fact that all the meanings are connected with one verb- form makes the situation harder although the semantics differs alongside the difference in constructions. Thus, it is crucial not to teach different meanings either on one and the same level or simultaneously.

It should be noted that teaching of issues of functional grammar should be done only after they have been carefully preplanned and thought over. In order to illustrate this, I will analyse one more form: "modi" (come) is an imperative form and de- notes movement towards the speaker: *მოდი დაფასთან(* modi dapastan- come to the blackboard); *მოდი ჩემთან* (modi chemtan- come to me). This construction and meaning can be taught on the first level of the language teaching. "'modi" (come)' is also used as a modal form denoting mutual decisions. Based on this meaning, it builds a completely different construction. Obviously these forms should be taught on different levels in order to separate their functions and semantics. At the same time, the modal form should not be taught before the verb itself.

მოდი (modi) come / let us	Movement towards the speaker:	Mutual decision:
	მოდი დაფასთან (modi dapastan- come to the blackboard)	*მოდი, ერთად წავიდეთ (modi ertad tsavide- let us go together)*
	მოდი მაგიდასთან (modi magidas- tan-come to the table)	*მოდი, ერთად წავიკითხოთ.(modi er- tad tsavikitxot-let's read it together)*
	მოდი ჩემთან (modi chemtan-come to me	*მოდი, ერთად გავაკეთოთ (modi, er- tad gavaketot- let's do it together)*

All of this reveals how important it is to correctly analyse grammatical forms and then arrange and teach them following a certain principle. This will solve the issue of functional, formal or semantic ambiguity and make the process of language acquisition much simpler.

The system of modality and interrelationship of levels of language competence.

Consistent planning and teaching of the modal system is an inseparable part of language teaching. It is obvious that the author of a textbook and a teacher can set up a system based on a certain principles although it is of paramount importance to take a range of issues into consideration. First of all, this means setting up a subsystem which would reveal the interrelationship between teaching modal semantics and levels of language competence. Taking into consideration the above-discussed issue, this problem can be presented as follows:

Levels of language competence	Modal forms	Semantics of modal forms
A 1	(თუ) შეიძლება-(tu) shei-dzleba -(If) It is possible ვიცი (vitsi- I know) უნდა (unda-must. have to) ალბათ (albat -perhaps, probably)	Permission Ability and capability Obligation, duty Possibility Probability
A 2	ვერ (ver-unable to)	Negation of ability and possibility

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	ნუ (nu- do not+verb)	Prohibition
	უნდა (unda- must)	Logical necessity
	შემიძლია (shemidzlia- I can)	Ability and possibility
	მოდი (modi-let us)	Mutual decision
	ნეტავ (netav-if only)	Strong desire
B 1	შევძლებ (shevdzleb- I will be able to)	Logical possibility/ ability
		Probability
	იქნებ (ikneb-perhaps)	Emotional evaluation
	განა (gana), ნუთუ (nutu), აკი (aki), ნეტავ (netav)	Belief and opinion
	მაინც (maints-still)	
B 2	შესაძლოა, შესაძლებელია... (shesadzloa, shesadlzebelia -it is probable/ possible)	Logical possibility
		Desire
	იქნებ (ikneb-perhaps)	Supposition
	ეგებ (egeb-perhaps)	Evaluation, approximation
	ლამის(lamis-almost),	Evaluation, imagination
	თითქმის (titkmis– almost/ nearly) კინაღამ(kinagham-nearly)	Evaluation-decision
	თითქოს (titkos - as if)	
	ვითომ (vitom- as if)	
	ღირს (ghirs- it is worth)	
C 1		
C2		

On advanced levels of language competence (**C 1, C2**) the learnt language forms are processed and their meanings are transposed and this process is based on texts and oral speech.

Methods and strategies of acquisition of the semantics of modal forms, types of exercises

In the process of language teaching it is crucial to select methods and strategies correctly. The method based on writing is

deemed to be extremely productive when learning the issues related to grammar as it facilitates the acquisition of the material. In addition, the **method of visual props** also acquires special importance as it presents a good opportunity to teach models and constructions effectively. Constructions expressing certain meanings need special analysis as, together with the modal form, part of the construction may include an infinitive, conditional or a verb form in indicative mood. Therefore, a model, which will be presented to the learners during lessons or in the textbooks, should be set up for each of the meanings rendered. At the same time, as is known, the Georgian verb is not characterised by one and the same model of formation. Thus, it is important that the construction should include groups of verbs sharing the same model of formation. **Question and answer** method will also be very productive as it develops both writing and speaking skills equally.

On the initial state of language learning it is recommended to present not only models but, also, sentences in real-life situations. After the semantic analysis of sentences it is advisable to give students non-authentic texts or dialogues created for certain purposes and based on certain communicative situations. Special Emphasis on forms and constructions in such texts will facilitate the process of learning and memorising. Only after such vigorous analysis can the learner conduct reproduction and production stages effectively and make up constructions, sentences and texts independently. A variety of exercises applied will make this process easier. Each of these exercises should be oriented on acquiring the material and developing certain skills. From the point of expressing modality it is important to select constructions and semantics correctly which can be achieved by the learners doing practical exercises of various types.

Types of exercises:	Purpose:
Insertion of correct modal forms in the sentence	The student should select one of the several modal forms provided and insert it into the sentence. This exercise encourages and facilitates the selection of the modal form suitable to the meaning.

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Selection of the correct verb-form	The student is to select and match a correct verb-form to the modal form provided in the sentence. This exercise also facilitates making up of relevant modal constructions.
Connection/matching of parts of the sentence	This exercise develops the skill of sentence comprehension and making up a correct construction
Selecting a correct answer to the question	This exercise develops the skill for selection of the correct semantics and construction
Making up sentences containing a correct modal form	This exercise develops the skill for the usage of a modal form and its construction to express certain meanings.
Making up questions	This exercise facilitates precise semantic rendering of the communication situation.
Transformation of the semantics of the sentence	This exercise develops the knowledge of semantic nuances/hues of modal forms
Making up sentences	Develops production skills
Making up a dialogue	Develops production skill
Making up texts	Develops production skills

The strategies and methodology discussed above can be equally employed whilst teaching Georgian as a second language as well as while teaching it as a foreign language. However, there are certain differences observed as well. Specifically, when teaching a second language, the linguistic environment the learner is exposed to acquires a significant importance as it plays a certain role in the process of communication. In order to understand a certain modal meaning it is also possible to employ such non-verbal means as gestures, facial expressions, intonation as well as other means of non-verbal communication. This is less probable for the process of teaching a foreign language when the leaner is not exposed to authentic language environment which leads to the need for increasing the number of practical exercises.

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Learner Corpora and Their Potential
for Multilingual Teaching

Abstract

This article primarily deals with building and using a type of language corpus - the learner corpus - for multilingual teaching. It describes all relevant aspects of the conceptualization, motivation and construction of learner corpora including the case example of the German learner corpus FALKO (*Fehlerannotiertes Lernerkorpus* 'error annotated learner corpus'). In addition we discuss the possibility of a learner corpus for the Georgian language using examples from real Georgian language courses at Goethe University Frankfurt and Tbilisi State University. The article stresses the potential of learner corpora for multilingual teaching and multilingual teacher education.

Keywords: *Learner Corpus, Multilingual Teaching.*

1. Learner Corpus - getting to know

According to the common definition, a learner corpus is an electronic collection of authentic texts (language material) produced by foreign or second language learners stored in an electronic database.[1] Additionally, computer learner corpora are electronic collections of authentic FL/SL textual data assembled according to explicit design criteria for a particular SLA/FLT purpose. The corpora are encoded in a standardized and homogeneous way and documented as to their origin and provenance[2].

The crucial determination for the learner corpus is the idea of language error, which can be recognized as „*a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production,*

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[1] Anna O´Keeffe et al: From corpus to classroom. Cambridge University Press 2007, S.23.

[2] Granger et al. 2002: 7.

would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts"[3].

The language materials can be analyzed by a software and edited. The analyse serves different purposes. A learner corpus is a new type of language corpus that started appearing in the early 1990s.[4] Since then many learner corpora have been developed for different languages. The Catholic University of Louvain list 138 different learner corpora[5]. The list is not complete but contains the main learner corpora and gives a good overview. The learner corpora are classified there by different attributes, for example target language, medium and text type. As expected, most of them have English as their target language. 87 of the 138 are for English, 10 for French, 9 for German, 8 for Spanish, 3 for Italian and so on. The corpora work with different media. 87 of them use written media (e.g. The Advanced Learner English Corpus (ALEC), Uppsala University - texts composed/written by students), 33 of them use spoken media (e.g. The ANGLISH corpus, University of Provence - readings, oral language), 11 of them use written and spoken media and 3 of them use multimedia. Generally these corpora have only one target language, but beside the 127 monolingual corpora the list also contains 11 multilingual corpora (e.g. The Corpus of Young Learner Interlanguage (CYLIL) Vrije Universiteit Brussel or The Eastern European English learner corpus Eberhard Karls University of Tübingen).

1.1.The case of FALKO

Now we will look at one learner corpus in detail – The FALKO corpus (*FehlerannotiertesLernerkorpus* 'error annotated learner corpus')[6]. The FALKO was developed at Humboldt University in Berlin by Anke Lüdeling and Maik Walter in 2004. The main FALKO corpus can be divided into five smaller corpora - *FalkoSummary*VL, *FalkoSummary*L1 V1.2, *FalkoSummary*L2 V1.2, F*alkoEssay*L1 V1.2, *FalkoEssay*L2 V2.0.

1. Learner texts (F*alkoSummaryL2*)[7]: Collection of summaries (linguistic texts and literary studies), made by advanced German learners (C1-C2). They were written in the framework of an exam, which is obligatory for foreign students who have German philology as their main subject. The ex-

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[3] Corder(1986:37). Corder, Stephen Pit (1986): The role of interpretation in the study. In: Corder, Stephen P. (Hrsg.): Error analysis and interlanguage. 4. impr. Oxford: Oxford University Press, S. 35–44.

[4] Anna O´Keeffe et al: From corpus to classroom. Cambridge University Press 2007, S.23.

[5] http://www.uclouvain.be/en-cecl-lcworld.html.

[6] https://www.linguistik.hu-ber-lin.de/institut/professuren/korpuslinguistik/forschung/falko. https://korpling.german.hu-berlin.de/falko-suche/search.html.

[7] Reznicek et al. Das Falko-Handbuch. Korpusaufbau und Annotationen, Version 2.01, 2012, S.8ff.

amination took place at the Free University of Berlin.

2. Native speaker texts (*FalkoSummaryL1*): Collection of the same texts as in FSL2, written by native German speakers.

3. Original texts (*FalkoSummaryVL*): Collections of the linguistic and philological texts which served as templates for the summaries. Altogether contains 197 texts written by 98 learners.

4. *FalkoSummaryL1* 1.1[8]: For this corpus, 4 data collections have been carried out. They took place at the Free University of Berlin and at Humboldt University of Berlin. Again only students with German philology as their main subject took part in these data collections. The conditions of these data collections were all the same.

5. *Falko Essay Corpus*[9]: This corpus contains two sub-corpora.

    a. *FalkoEssayL2*: contains a collection of essays written by advanced German learners. 4 different topics were given for the essays and the participants

had to achieve at least 60 from 100 points in a C-test.

    b. *FalkoEssayL1*: contains a collection of essays written by native speakers. The participants were graduating class pupils of three different secondary schools. The topics were the same as in FalkoEssayL2 as were the conditions of the exam.

All sub-corpora have different levels of annotation and FALKO's architecture allows the addition of more annotations levels (multi-layer stand-off annotation). In general FALKO contains written texts of advanced German learners. The most annotated sub-corpus is a collection of summaries.[10] The lemmata were automatically annotated by Treetagger (Schmid 1994).[11] The database also contains explicit information about the authors, e.g. level of education, level of language ability and much else.[12]

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[8] Reznicek et al. Das Falko-Handbuch. Korpusaufbau und Annotationen, Version 2.01, 2012, S.17.
[9] Reznicek et al. Das Falko-Handbuch. Korpusaufbau und Annotationen, Version 2.01, 2012, S.19f.

[10] Siemen et al., FALKO - Ein fehlerannotiertes Lernerkorpus des Deutschen, S.1.
[11] Mark Reznicek et al. Das Falko-Handbuch. Korpusaufbau und Annotationen, Version 2.01, 2012, S.4.
[12] Reznicek et al. Das Falko-Handbuch. Korpusaufbau und Annotationen, Version 2.01, 2012, S.6.

Table 1. Falko Annotation Levels[13]. ((word) – Learner utterance, (kpos) – Part of speech, (target-hypothesis) - Assumption about proposed utterance, (ref) – evidence reference.)

word	Dabei	Ist	es	zu	beachten
kpos	PAV	VAFIN	PPER	PTKZU	VVINF
lemma	dabei	Sein	es	zu	beachten
target_hypothesis	*Dabei ist zu beachten*				
ref	70	71	72	73	74

The annotation level contains a target hypothesis to allow the reconstructing of the error made by the learner. The errors are identified by comparing original utterances with so-called re-constructed utterances, that is, correct utterances having the meaning intended by the learner.

Table 2[14]. Error analysis in FALKO

word	Frau-en	konnten		sol-chen	geselschaft-lichen	Zustand	verän-dern
target_hyp_1	Frau-en	konnten	eine n	sol-chen	gesellschaft-lichen	Zustand	verän-dern
¬target_hyp_1	Frau-en	konnten		solch	eine n	gesellschaft-lichen Zustand verän-dern

The use of FALKO has shown which aspects of the German language are more difficult for learners (for example proper use of articles and prepositions) and hence, which aspects need to be prioritised in teaching.

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[13] Karin Schmidt Lernerkorpora: Ressourcen für die Deutsch-als-Fremdsprache-Forschung (publikationen.ub.uni-frankfurt.de/files/.../Schmidt_Lernerkorpora.pdf).

[14] Falko-Handbuch S.39.

2. About the motivation, construction and function of learner corpora

The main task of a learner corpus is the annotation of errors. Therefore texts which are written by learners have to be compared to those of native speakers. This assumes that there is, compared to the mistakes made by the learners, a correct version given by the native speakers. This seems to be easy, but in reality there is no right way to express yourself in the first language[15]. Language is something very flexible, so there are a lot of different ways to say the exact same sentence. Additionally, language is in a constant process of development, so it changes constantly. What may seem correct nowadays can be completely wrong in the future. Nonetheless learner corpora are an important instrument for didactical studies and didactics themselves.

The motivations to build a learner corpus may be various. For example, in foreign language teaching some verb constructions can be very complex for beginners. Some constructions are almost completely neglected in teaching materials. This would be a chance to prove that corpora are useful for cases like this. Learner corpus analyses are prone to a criticism similar to what recommendations for teaching based on native speaker corpora

have been subjected to for a while: that they only take into account one criterion that is important for teaching, and disregard others. In the case of teaching recommendations based on native speaker corpora, it has often been objected that the only criterion considered is frequency in native speaker usage. But the learner corpus would definitely motivate the learner and promote language awareness. They stimulate the student to work actively and independently, and in this way, they probably increase both the motivation of the student and the learning effect. In summary a corpus will be used in the education of teachers of a foreign language, as a source of examples usable in the classroom and for educational tools, and will help tailor instructions and teaching materials to specific groups of learners.

Linguists have different motivations for constructing a learner corpus. The main purpose may be to improve didactical methods. Learner corpora can identify specific problems learners have with a certain language. These perceptions can help improve learning methods for these learners. Hence, it is an important tool for foreign language didactics and allows the analysis of the mistake/error typology of certain learner groups. Therefore, it is a win-win-situation for both the learners and the teachers. By comparing the learner texts with those of native speakers,

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[15] Siemen et al., FALKO - Ein fehlerannotiertes Lernerkorpus des Deutschen, S. 2.

the learners themselves can learn from it and improve their language skills, and the teachers can adapt their methods to specific learner groups. In general, the main target groups of learning corpora are learners of a foreign language and teachers teaching foreign languages. Besides them, linguists and those who research didactical methods also benefit from this type of corpora.

Although learner corpora open up new possibilities for foreign language didactics they are still seldom seen in schools and language classes. One of the main reasons for this may be the lack of information and the fact that corpora are seen as a scientific tool, not a teaching tool[16]. Therefore, it is important to instruct the teachers and train the student so they can learn how to use learner corpora. At this point, schools and universities have to show initiative and start workshops. To help the students learn a new language, the teacher can include learner corpora in their lesson. They can, for example, give exercises which can only be solved by using the learner corpora. Many words have a wide range of meanings and are therefore used in a wide range of contexts. With the aid of the learner corpora, students can compare the usage of these words in the native text and identify the different lexical categories[17]. Or, if the

students have a certain question, they can answer it by searching in the learner corpora potentially turning students into language researchers[18]. Learner corpora can serve as a supplement for grammar studies by exemplifying the grammar rules.

3. How is a learner corpus built?

To build a learner corpus it is important to collect a great amount of written and/or spoken materials. Written corpora are easier to create than spoken corpora, because a written corpus can use the internet as a source. They may contain recorded speech, interviews, essays, exams and so on. These must be written by learners. For comparison the same materials must be available written and spoken by native speakers[19].

A basic language corpus can be assembled from spoken or written texts and can be used with commercially available corpus software, which any average home computer user can manipulate with relative ease. Of course, a spoken corpus takes considerably longer to build, because the speech, for example in videos, has to be transcribed and possibly coded for some of its non-verbal features. By comparison, building a written corpus is

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[16] Karin Aijmer, Corpora and Language Teaching, 2009 John Benjamins Publishing Company, S.47f.
[17] Aijmer, Corpora and Language Teaching, 2009 JBPC, S.50f.

[18] John McHary Sinclair, How to use Corpora in Language Teaching Studies in Corpus Linguistics, Silvia Bernardini, 2004 John Benjamins Publishing Company, S.16.
[19] Anna O´Keeffe et al: From corpus to classroom. Cambridge University Press 2007, How to make a basic corpus.

very quick using the internet as a source. Every corpus needs design principles. You have to consider not only the design, but also the feasibility, because there are struggles with what is available, what is ethical or what is legal. This could be a leading factor. Also deciding what to represent and how to represent the best for the general purpose is very important. In that case, you have to decide on the amount of data you want to collect and use.

In the case of spoken corpora, the next step is recording the data. There are a number of options for recording including analogue cassettes, digital media and audiovisual digital recorders. Traditional analogue, though they are inexpensive, have a number of drawbacks. They are cumbersome to store and unlike digital recordings, they cannot easily be computerized and aligned with the transcription later. Using digital devices leaves open the option of aligning sound (and image if you use an audiovisual recorder) with your transcription.

An important aspect is permission. Permission to record should be cleared in advance with the speakers and consent forms should be signed authorizing the use of the recordings for research or commercial pedagogical materials, etc. It may be necessary to specify how the recordings will be used when obtaining permission. After that, the main task is the transcription, because spoken data needs to be manually transcribed and this is what makes corpora of spoken language such a challenge. They are best stored as 'plain text' files, as this offers the maximum flexibility of use with different software suites. One hour of recorded speech may take days to transcribe, depending on the complexity of the language. In most cases, every word, vocalization, truncation, hesitation, overlap, and so on, is transcribed, as opposed to a cleaned-up version of what the speakers said. The level of detail of the transcription is relative to the purpose of your corpus. If you have no requirement to know where overlapping utterances and interruptions occur, then there is no point in spending time transcribing to that level of detail. This hard work includes *pattern matching* (1), *collocations* (2), *lemma and part of speech* (3), *synonyms and antonyms* (4), more complex searches using combinations of the preceding *types of searches* (5), queries based on the *frequency of the construction in different historical periods and registers of the language* (6), and queries involving *customized, user-defined lists* (7).

Transcription files need to be organized so that source information can be traced. For example, it may be useful to be able to retrieve information such as gender, age, number of speakers, place of birth, occupation, level of education, where the recording took place, relationship of speakers and so on. This information can be stored at the beginning of each

transcript as an information 'header', or in a separate database, where the information is logged with the file name. In short, the corpus should be richly annotated and should allow searches for many types of linguistic phenomena. The content of every corpus is a collection of texts and expressions in a language. Of course, we have to differentiate between written and spoken corpora. The materials for written corpora are comparatively easy to collect, because everything is physically available. The content of spoken corpora, as mentioned above, is more difficult to collect and to edit. The basic materials for spoken corpora are generally given through audio or audio-visual recorders.

4. Possible draft for a Georgian learner Corpus

The sociolinguistic situation of Georgia can characterized as multilingual. In border areas of Georgia to Azerbaijan and Armenia, but also in central regions, classroom settings are multilingual. It is an educational challenge to develop suitable language learning contents, which uses pointedly the spread errors of Georgian language learners. One of the first steps in that direction is the collection and unified documentation of all available errors in both the written and the spoken register.

As a first source of material, learner groups at the high schools of Georgia can be tapped. According to the official statistics[20], about 2000 non-native speakers of Georgian enter higher education in Georgia every year.
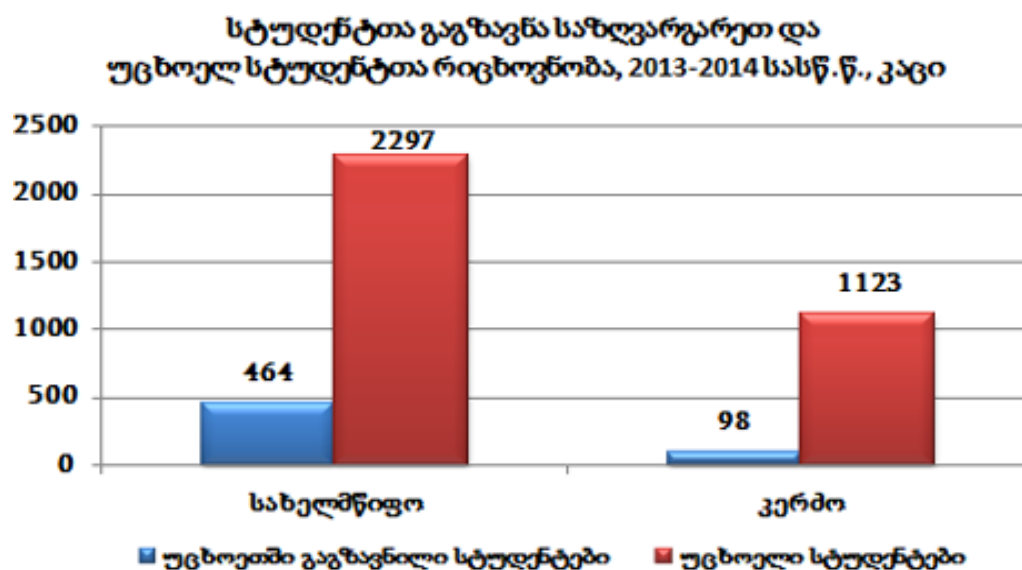

Figure 1. National Statistics Office of Georgia (*Red beam represent foreign students frequency in the state and privet universities*).

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[20] GeoStat.
http://www.geostat.ge/?action=page&p_id=205&lang=geo, 25.11.14, 13.00.

The teachers and language trainers can be constrained to notify the multilingual teaching experiences and systemize the recurring errors. These observations act as groundwork for the further development of the database containing error patterns. As we saw with FALKO (Ch.1.1), such a-database is need for the establishing of hypothesis as kind of the correction preliminary.

There are a few Georgian language-learning programs provided currently in Georgia[21] and abroad[22] (online distance learning course offered by Malmö University,

Sweden). A target learner group are Georgian citizens who speak Azerbaijani or Armenian as their first language. The topic structure of the program syllabi represents the program creators' presumptions about possible difficulties of the learner. The topics are not confirmed based on empirical evidence, despite the fact that the emphasis of any specific subject matter must be strengthened oriented on the errors made by learners in the real learning process.

ქართული ენის ელექტრონული სწავლების კურსი

Gürcü dilinin elektron kursu

Վրաց լեզվի էլեկտրոնային ուսուցման դասընթաց

eLearning Course of Georgian

გზამკვლევი   MƏLUMAT KİTABÇASI   Ուղեցույց   GUIDE

Figure 2. eLecture for Georgian Language.

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[21] http://www.ice.ge/web/elearning_geo.html
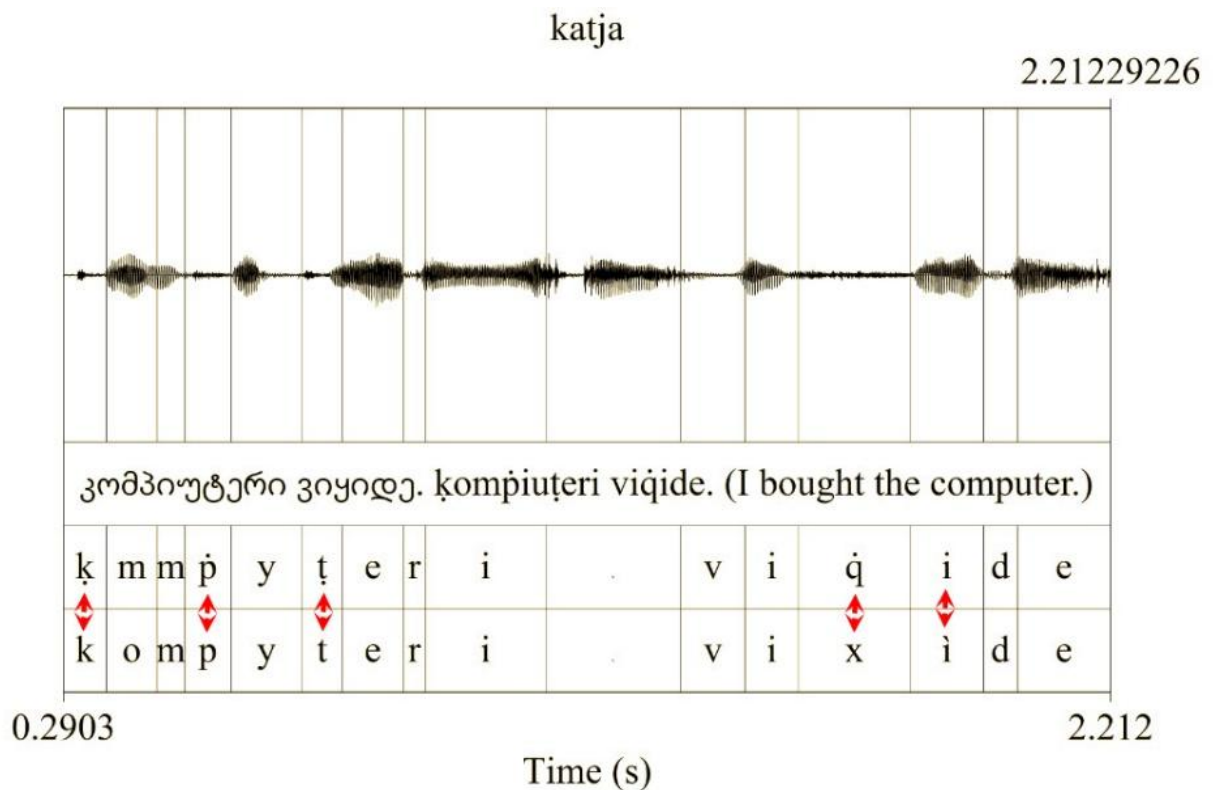
[22]

http://195.178.225.22/DiasporaGeo/Georgianonline.html

The most common difficulty in learning Georgian (like other Caucasian languages) was and still is the canonical consonant pronunciation. There are single consonants or consonant clusters, which are characteristic phonetic features of Caucasian languages. Hence, it is a significant intellectual and physical challenge for the learner to acquire and use these sounds.

Table 3.Pronunciation example by Georgian learner. 5 pronunciation errors in 2 words.

katja

2.21229226

| კ | m | m | p̣ | y | ṭ | e | r | i | | . | v | i | q̇ | | i | d | e |
| k | o | m | p | y | t | e | r | i | | . | v | i | x | | i | d | e |

კომპიუტერი ვიყიდე. ḳompiuṭeri viqide. (I bought the computer.)

0.2903   2.212

Time (s)

The targeted recordings of the audio material with L2 learners act as crucial database for closely exploring frequent errors in the phonetic acquisition and allow the focusing of teaching process on these errors. Even superficial observation of frequent errors highlights problematic areas, which should be a central point of attention. Below are some examples of prototypical language errors noted by Georgian language trainers[23].

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[23] Prof. Ketevan Gochitashvili. Tbilisi State University.

Table 4. Word order error.

wording	sad	šen	iq□avi?
lemma	sad_*wh*	šen_*PPron.2Sg*	q□opna.*be*
hypothesis	šen	sad	iq□avi?
Eng.	*Where have you been?*		

Table 5. Agreement error.

wording	ḳargi	var.
lemma	ḳargi_*good*	q□opna.*be*
hypothesis	ḳargad	var.
Eng.	*I am fine.*	

Table 6. Lexical error.

wording	didi	gemrieli-a
lemma	didi_*big*	gemrieli - q□opna.*be.Encl*
hypothesis	ʒ alian	gemrielia
Eng.	*It is very tasty.*	

Table 7. Syntax error, unused word order

wording	saxli	romeli	dgas	kalakši
lemma	saxli_*house*	romel_*wh*	dogma_*stand*	kalaki_*city*
hypothesis_1	saxli	romlic	dgas	kalakši
hypothesis_2	saxli	romlic	kalakši	dgas
Eng.	*The house, which is (standing) in the city.*			

wording	reṣṭorani	sad	viq□avi	gušin
lemma	reṣṭorani _restaurant	sad_*wh*	q□opna_*be*	gušin _yesterday
hypothesis_1	reṣṭorani	sadac	viq□avi	gušin
hypothesis_2	reṣṭorani	sadac	gušin	viq□avi
Eng.	*The restaurant I was in yesterday.*			

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