



სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
პრობლემები და გამოწვევები
**Issues of State Language Teaching;
Problems and Challenges**





SHOTA RUSTAVELI NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION

Issues of State Language Teaching; Problems and Challenges

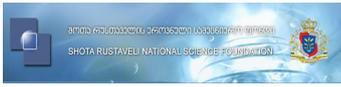
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Multilingual Education in Finland (with a special focus on the Russian language)

ABSTRACT

The present article tries to connect the language education policy in Finland with its historical development. Finland has always been a multilingual country, and the combination of languages in the school curriculum followed the necessities of power and economics. The numerous successes in the international PISA competitions are explained through teaching of languages and mathematics at school. The current state of foreign and second language acquisition is demonstrated in depth through example of Russian in education.

The historical perspective

The first settlers came to Finland approximately 8.000 B.C., supposedly, following the melting snow of the ice age. The Finno-Ugric people arrived from the Ural area between Europe and Asia, and there were Baltic and Germanic speakers arriving from the shores of the Baltic Sea. The Swedes lived on the modern territory of Finland for more than eight centuries, and vice versa, Finnish-speaking peoples moved to Sweden. Finland was part of Sweden until 1809, for 600 years. Ordinary people spoke various Finnish and Swedish dialects, and the upper classes could use several languages. For the official purposes, Latin (mostly for documents) and afterwards Swedish were employed.

Under many rulers, Russia and Sweden fought over Finland, dividing the country and expanding the own religious influence. As a result of Napoleonic wars, Finland became part of Russia and remained so until 1917. Enjoying the rights of an autonomous Grand Duchy, Finland was administered by the Senate, an own government, while the Emperor of Russia was proclaimed the Grand Duke of Finland. Under the Russian rule, the Finnish language, currency, army, culture and economy strengthened. Swedish and partly Russian became the official languages until 1863, when the Finnish language received the status of an official language (equality was achieved in 1982) in the autonomous Finnish part of the Russian Empire. The practically dominant language systematically and rapidly developed into a language of administration, journalism, fine literature and science. Many members of the Swedish-speaking Fennoman movement were prepared to learn and use Finnish at home and in public, ready to work for the interests of the majority (Lindgren et al. 2011). The Russian language as the third official language in the country played only a small role, although the Finns remember how they struggled against the attempts to the forced Russification at the beginning of the 20th century.

A general strike in 1905, the revolution of 1917 and the civil war in 1918 supported the independence of Finland from Russia (declared on December 6, 1917) and the development of an own Finnish culture, and so was in the recent times the challenge with the European Union. Since 1841, the Finnish language was taught as a subject in schools, but now, a tendency to education and schooling in this dominant language of the population occupied a key position in the nation's progress.

For the Swedish-speaking elite, the Finnish language was not cultural enough if compared to other European languages, but it was politically important. For the Finnish-speaking majority, the Swedish language was the language of the old upper classes, making them feel the inferiority of their own identification. The recent fight for the abolition of the obligatory examination in the forced Swedish language and the possibility to in-



introduce another language into its place (for example, a neighbour language) has its roots in the past (Buchberger 2002).

The Winter War (1939-1940) against the Soviet Union and its Continuation (1941-1944) were followed by joining the anti-Hitler coalition. Finland had to concede Karelia and a few other territories, receiving the 430.000 evacuated persons (mostly Finnish- and Russian-speaking) in the main territory. The after-war economic flourishing was due to a balanced policy towards socialist and western countries that led to blossoming of the public education, healthcare and social security systems. In the late 1980s, Finland revised its foreign policy; it became a member of the European Union in 1995.

The structure of the population and the language policy

The linguistic homogeneity of Finland is caused by the fact that the native language of 92 % of its population is Finnish, which is part of the Finnic subgroup of the Uralic languages, one of the official EU languages not of Indo-European origin. Russian has no status in the EU, although about 6 millions of its citizens speak this language as their mother tongue, and about 7% might be competent in it to some extent.

Before World War II, as in most countries, the German language was usually the first foreign language in the school. Nowadays, in Finland, about 63% of the population can speak English as a foreign language, 18% German, 3% French, 2% Spanish, 1% Italian, 2% Russian (Eurobarometer 2006). Multilingual Finnish citizens competent in at least three, often four, languages has been a reality in the Finnish education system since the early seventies, with English taking sequentially the role of the most important foreign language. The younger generation in the northern European Countries is able to communicate in English because English has the position of a first or second foreign language in the curricula of all primary or secondary schools in these countries. In this role, English has increasingly substituted the unofficial so-called Scandinavian language.

Learning of the two domestic and many foreign languages is a very important part of the Finnish educational system, providing, to my opinion, its most important key to success in the PISA-evaluations. Usually, it is not mentioned in the reports as a crucial factor of effective cognitive development (cf. PISA; Levine 2011). Yet, the experience of the best Russian schools specializing in mathematics, foreign language learning and trying to introduce sports were the principles leading to very high results of the pupils (cf. the school programs by Andrei Kolmogorov).

The two national languages of Finland are Finnish and Swedish. The language policy has been always to give equal rights for both the Finnish-speaking and the Swedish-speaking population. The percentage of the Swedish speaking population (Swedish-speaking Finns) was in the first decades of the 20th century around 10%, and has reduced to around 6%. They live predominantly in the coastal west-southern areas and partly in the big cities. Swedish remains the only official language in the autonomous Åland (Åland in figures 2011). Finnish constitution guarantees the same cultural and economic rights to both language groups.

In the northern Lapland, the indigenous Sámi people number around 1.800. Actually, three Sámi languages are spoken in Finland: Northern Sámi, Inari Sámi and Skolt Sámi; they are familiar to only a quarter of the Sámi population (0,03% of the whole population of the country). Efforts are undertaken to revitalize and modernize these languages; the language nest method has been efficiently adapted (Anarâš; Lehtola 2002; Pasanen 2010; Sámi in Finland).

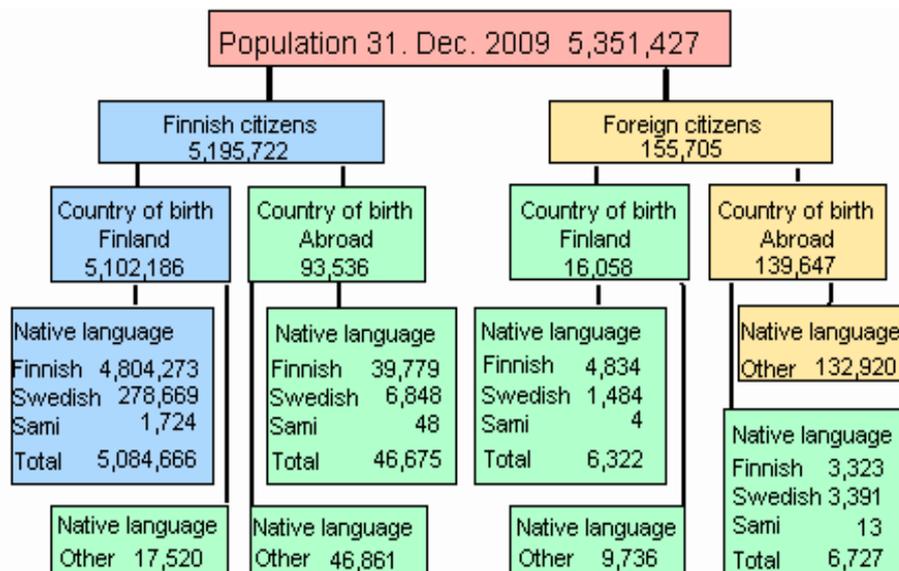
Additionally, the recognized regional and minority languages are Romani (Finnish Romani is spoken by 5.000-6.000 people), Tatar (Finnish Tatar minority of about 800 people who moved to Finland in the times of autonomy), Yiddish (as the supposed language of some hundred Jews who settled down in Finland during the Russian rule) – all of them are actually bilingual – and the Finnish Sign language. The degree of bilinguality was never measured on the all-nation scale. It is worth to mention that the life of minorities and their language use become often a topic of popular articles (e.g., Lindgren 2011).

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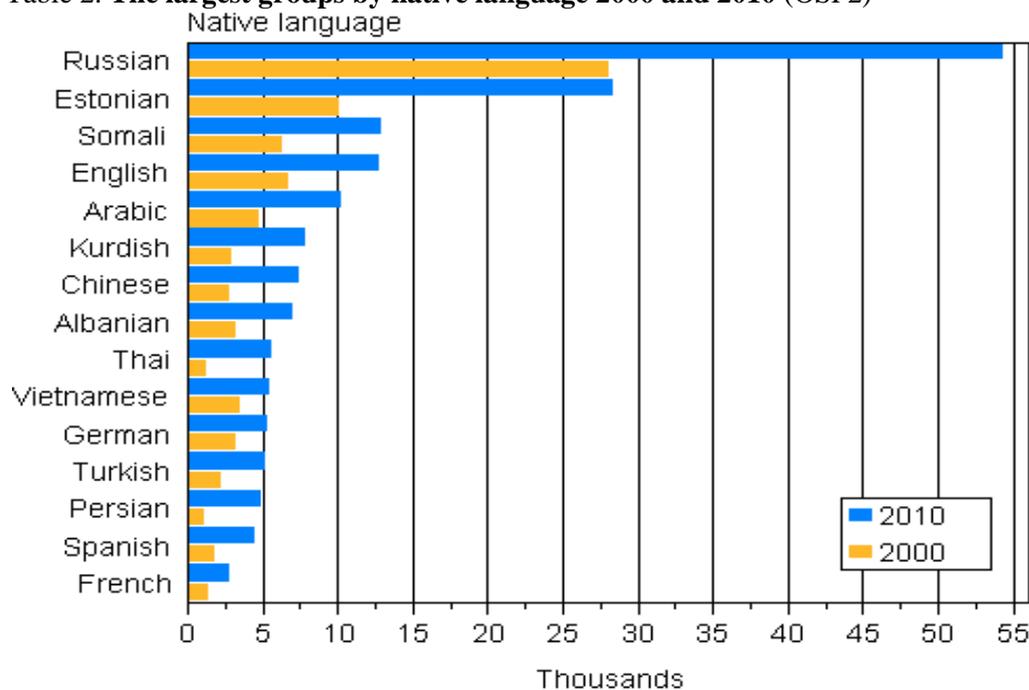
The Finland's Romani are provided with the same education as the majority population, their language enjoying the status of a non-territorial minority should be safe within the European Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities. Nevertheless, this group has difficulties both with access to the higher educational level and with maintenance of the own language (Finitiko romaseele 2004).

Table 1. Country of birth, citizenship and mother tongue of the population (OSF1)



About 140 immigrant languages are spoken in Finland today; they include, among others, Russian (1.0%), Estonian (0.3%), English, Somali, Arabic, Kurdish, Albanian and Chinese. Altogether, about 2,7% speak immigrant languages. The right of minority groups to maintain their culture and language is protected by the constitution.

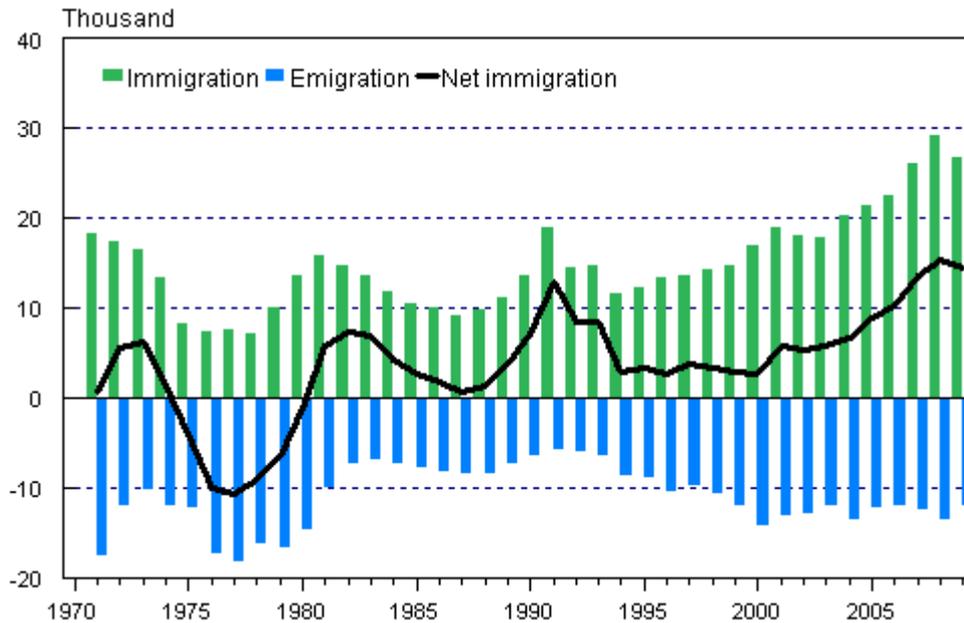
Table 2. The largest groups by native language 2000 and 2010 (OSF2)



In the history, Finns often were migrating from the country; in the recent time, the net immigration surpasses the emigration.



Table 3. Immigration, emigration from 1971 till 2010 (in thousands of people) (OSF3)



Finland had to develop its own strategy towards linguistic diversity through an elaborated system of teaching and exercising languages (Lähteenmäki, Vanhala-Aniszewski 2010). The fundament of this multifaceted approach is, in my mind, the own history and the practical experience of the many centuries of multilinguality.

Teaching of languages in the school system

The language of instruction in the Finnish educational institutions can be Finnish or Swedish on all educational levels, from the day care centre on. As a matter of fact, the institutions have either Finnish or Swedish as their languages of instruction. Some upper secondary vocational institutions and universities are bilingual; for example, the University of Helsinki is a university where students may use Swedish at all occasions if they want to do so, and there are special lines for the bearers of the Swedish language at some departments. Sámi is the language of instruction in some institutions of the general and vocational training in the Sámi-speaking municipalities.

More and more the speakers of Swedish had to communicate with the speakers of Finnish, and their bilingualism developed to a high degree. The number of mixed marriages also grow (today, a half of all marriages with Swedes are mixed). Despite of the school system of its own, the Swedish-speaking population had problems to maintain the mastery of their mother tongue at a sufficient level. Most of them learned Finnish already at home, in the neighbourhood or at school (Björklund 2002). The University of Vaasa also promotes bilingualism (Aschan 2011).

The Finnish foreign language instruction follows the time allocation prescribed by the government, presenting two levels of language teaching. A1 denotes the language learned from the lower stage which is obligatory to all students. A2 denotes the optional language that is also learned early. B1 denotes the language learned from the upper stage which is obligatory. B2 denotes the language that starts in the upper secondary school. B3 denotes the voluntary language at the same stage. In order to complete the upper secondary schooling, at least one A1 and one B1 should be learned, including the other national language of the country. The



facultative languages must not necessarily be evaluated at the leaving examination (Structure of Education System in Finland).

Normally, an A1 starts in the third grade of comprehensive school, while some schools offer a foreign language in the first or second grade or at the optional kindergarten level (for example, this combination is available from 2009 at the Käpylä school in Helsinki, Ojala 2010). The early start has become popular, and more and more parents wish their children to start learning of the foreign languages at least at the kindergarten level. Yet, English is by far the most popular A1-language (up to 95% prefer it as an A1, partly because there is no other choice). An A2 belongs usually to the fifth grade, sometimes it commences a year earlier. English (everywhere) and German (in more than 200 municipalities) are more easy to begin with, but Russian can be chosen only in about 30 municipalities. Girls chose an optional language two times more often than boys, especially for French, but not for Russian. Almost all school achievers had finished a course in English and Swedish; nearly half of them had been studying German, 20% French, 6% Russian, 5% Spanish and 2% Italian. Some graduates have been studying two or more A languages (NCC; Pöyhönen 2009).

Every Finnish speaking student studies Swedish at school as a second official language. The number of the lessons of the Swedish language in the upper-secondary school is nowadays less than before, 6 from 1994 on against 9 in 1985 and even 12 in 1970. Most of the Finnish-speaking learners (90%) start it compulsory only by the age of 14, and only 1% at the age of 9. The rest 8% start to learn Swedish out of their own desire by the age of 13 (Pekkarinen 2011). The popularity of Swedish as an A1 decreased, but it increased as an A2. In Sweden, the most frequently chosen foreign languages after English are Spanish (28%), German (22%) and French (22%).

The National Board of Education underlines that the official national bilingualism must be supported, and the research results showed that the studies of the Swedish as a second language are not sufficiently effective and those who learned it do not want to use it in real-life situations. The Swedish immersion program of Vaasa inspired hope for language immersion programs. It was introduced by professor Christer Laurén at the University of Vaasa in the late 1980 and supported by all political authorities. They are available for those who can cherish their first language at home. Consequently and increasingly, they become enough help from the school to support their first language as a subject and as a mean of instruction, from communicating and acquaintance with the cultural heritage to literacy skills. Foremost, they must be learnt in the second language, and when they are stable, respective skills in all other languages must be acquired. The third and the fourth languages are taught once or twice per week through communication and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL); this approach leads to functional competence in each language (Björklund 2011).

A description of possible bilingual education programs was published by the National Board of Education. It was proclaimed that the evaluation must be responsible, outcome-orientated, visible and continuant from national to individual levels. The development of students' first language and of their academic mastery in a second or foreign language are being researched. The experiments with a foreign language as the language of instruction opened the way to different teaching strategies in schools. Abundant information can be obtained from the website of the National board of education (FNBE).

Education in a language other than Finnish or Swedish has become increasingly available in Finland, especially in the capital region, including English, German, Spanish, French, Russian, Estonian and Chinese. The schools can be attended by native speakers and Finnish-speaking children, but usually include a language test to ensure the children's capability to follow classes. A number of public Finnish-language schools offer basic education in another language for children from an immigrant background. The subjects taught include mathematics and environmental science and do not concentrate exclusively on learning the language. The



teaching of Chinese started, for example, in Helsinki in 2008. In the Meilahti school, From its 380 students, 108 study Chinese as a foreign language, and 42 participate in bilingual Finnish-Chinese education; it is possible to start to learn it in the first grade as a A1 language or in the upper secondary education as a B2 language (Ahola 2011).

There are other opportunities for the international schooling in Finland. Children whose home language is English, French, German or Russian can study predominantly in their mother tongue in Helsinki and some other cities. Teaching in English at all age-levels is provided by the International School of Helsinki, the English School, the Maunula school etc. At the upper secondary level, students can study for the International Baccalaureate (IB) examination and some other advanced programs at the SYK and Itäkeskus high schools and at some other institutions. In such schools, instruction is organized in two languages, the country's official language and English.

The German School was funded in 1881 for the needs of the German-speaking minority, but it was always prestigious among bearers of other languages (the speakers of Russian among them). It is the oldest foreign-language private school in Finland, fully recognized by the Finnish authorities. The Deutsche Schule Helsinki employs German as the language of instruction, it has two lines, for the ex-pats and bilinguals vs. those who start from zero (two thirds of its students). The school leaving examinations are national Finnish as well as the German Reifeprüfung. There is also a German kindergarten.

The École française Jules Verne consists of a preschool and grades 1 to 9 where the language of instruction is French. It follows the French curriculum provided by the native French speakers. The Lycée franco-finlandais d'Helsinki has the Finnish agenda with a special attention to the French language, literature and civilization. The day care centre has a special program.

So, everyone in Finland should learn Finnish, Swedish and English (Leppänen et al. 2011). Different projects and campaigns aim to facilitate access to learning of German, French, Russian, Spanish, Chinese, Italian, Japanese and Arabic, as well as to the life-long learning (Nikula et al. 2010). The education policy slogan "high quality education and training for all" means best education for high achievers (under perspectives of global economic competition) and for all other students support services, as well as inclusive education for students with special needs (under perspectives of the Scandinavian welfare state model and comprehensive education).

Language education for immigrants

The foreign-speaking population is concentrated predominantly in the southern part of Finland. In Helsinki alone, more than 4,000 students from an immigrant background attend the schools. The principles of the multilingual education have been formulated, for example, in Cenoz 2009, García et al. 2006, Protasova, Rodina 2011, Skutnabb-Kangas et al. 2009. On the one hand, people have the right to study their own language and in their own language. On the other hand, they must be given all the possibilities to study the state language properly and to develop their personality. Then, there are the needs of a state to have citizens competent in many languages. If former immigrants or their children return to their country of origin, they might be able not only to use their first language to full extent, but to become human bridges between the new and the former counties of dwelling.

Therefore, the objectives of immigrant education in Finland are to provide the newcomers with equal opportunities to function as members of Finnish society and to get the same educational chances as other citizens. Both, children and adults, have to learn to be equal, functionally bilingual and multicultural. They have



to integrate into the Finnish education system and society, to maintain their cultural identity their own native language (ECRE; cf. Niessen, Schibel 2007).

Under the conception of *immigrants* may be refugees, migrants, remigrants, spouses from abroad, asylum seekers and other foreigners. If the immigrant arrives at a compulsory school age (7–17), he or she has the right to the same basic education as Finns. There is an elaborated system how to ensure that adult immigrants learn language and working skills needed for earning their life and how their former qualifications could be taken into account and profited of.

Some children learn state languages already in the day care centre (Mouna 2009). The pre-primary education (for the 6 years old) may be organised in the form of preparatory instruction, in the kindergarten or combining both variants, letting children grow into two cultures and two languages. It follows the general Core Curriculum for Pre-school Education 2000 and takes into account immigrant children's backgrounds. Legislation allows for the creation of full-time education in the minority language, but this right is usually not exercised.

Instruction for immigrant children who have recently arrived in Finland may be arranged in preparatory teaching groups or integrated into mainstream education, with support provided according to the children's needs including special arrangements for pupil's assessment. Pupils are entitled to instruction in their own religion if their parents or caretakers allow. Special preparatory classes exist for immigrant children and are aimed at the intensive teaching of Finnish or Swedish as a second language and the propaedeutics of other basic school disciplines. During this time the mother tongue is used as a tool of explanation and is also taught as a subject itself. Usually a child has the opportunity to study in such state-financed classes for one year, with a maximum of 10 to 12 pupils per group. Children then join the mainstream at a minimum of 450 hours of instruction for six-to-ten year olds and 500 hours for older children. In appropriate subjects, e.g. sports, music or the arts, children can be mainstreamed earlier. Morning and afternoon activities are supplied to eliminate risk factors caused by the lack of adult control and too much time spent unaccompanied. The study of Finnish or Swedish continues both in regular classes and in separate groups, with the goal of fully integrating foreign children into Finland's pedagogical culture. All schoolchildren in Finland whose mother tongue is not Finnish or Swedish, are entitled to lessons in their native language two hours per week, as long as a group of four pupils close in age can be formed at the beginning of the school year (even if they are drawn from adjacent school districts or municipalities). Native language instruction for immigrants is provided in 50 different languages to 11,000 pupils in 80 municipalities. A national core curriculum for basic education establishes standards for the teaching of immigrant pupils in the form of study plans and targeted achievement levels of eight on a ten-point scale. Working groups of home language teachers have developed teaching models for respective languages. Schools and other educational institutions offer many opportunities for heritage language instruction, although it is not available everywhere, and not all parents are aware of their rights. Training for teachers of immigrant languages and cultures is subsidized by the government and can be conducted in the respective languages (*IEF*; Latomaa 2007). Sometimes, new forms of the Finnish language emerge as a result of code-mixing, code-switching and linguistic hybridization with special goals or spontaneously (Lehtonen 2008). The long-term goal of immigrants is to join the mainstream, avoiding the risk to be neither here nor there (Saukkonen 2010).

The case of Russian

There is a whole assortment of Russian speakers living now in Finland: the New Russians, including ethnic Russians, Ingermanland Finns and Russia-Finns, former citizens of the Soviet Union and nowadays citizens of the CIS or EU countries, of different ages, born in Finland or in Russia; the Old Russians, it means the



descendants of 16th century and later arrived Orthodox missionaries and of merchants, soldiers and peasants, White emigrants, deserters and fugitives. The oral speech norms of several generations are in contact, experiencing attrition and displaying contact phenomena. Russians in Finland are concomitantly considered by the host population as enemies and friends, as belonging or strangers, easily understood or incomprehensible, cultured or uncivilized. The language of the majority in their country of origin is the minority language in Finland. The old Russians, Finnish-Russian bilingual children, newcomers who speak good Russian but drop the stylistic nuances, all of them mix semantically close words or misplace the accents in the Russian geographical names, including Finnish lexis into Russian speech and misinterpreting meanings of words. It has been described how the changes in the native language appear first as slips of the tongue and deepen with immersion in the Finnish environment. The absence of regular education in Russian and meaningful contacts with the language may lead to erosion, but some people who did not acquire their home language in childhood may have chances to learn it later. The Russian speakers are to a certain extent prevented from assimilation because of the economic benefits of bilingualism. They maintain interest in current events in Russia and identify themselves with Russians and Russian culture. They are afraid of the future rootlessness in the Finnish culture (Protassova 2004).

A brief history of the Russian educational institutions in Finland looks as follows:

The end of the 19th century: numerous primary schools and dozens of secondary schools for the Russian-speaking population in Finland, some operated by the Russian Orthodox Church. Most of the Russian schools were located in Helsingfors (Helsinki) and Vyborg (Viipuri).

By the 1920s and 1930s: all the Russian schools were facing great financial problems, and only the Tabunov Primary School and the Russian Secondary School in Helsinki managed to survive until the end of World War II.

1955: A new Russian-Finnish private school opened in Helsinki. It offered a day care centre and both a primary and secondary school. In connection with the comprehensive school reform of 1977, it became a public school supported by the government and called the Finnish-Russian School. Finnish-speaking pupils studied Russian as a foreign language, starting with preparatory classes, and children who speak Russian as their first language have access to dual instruction provided by native speakers for all subjects in both languages. English as a second foreign language was introduced in the second grade and Swedish in the seventh grade.

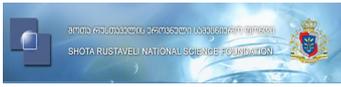
1992: The Myllypuro primary school in Helsinki teaches Russian speakers in grades 1 to 6.

1997: The Finnish-Russian network school of Eastern Finland in Joensuu, Lappeenranta and Imatra provides education to a few hundred children. The main language of instruction is Finnish. The school is organized mostly in the form of bilingual classrooms, and occasionally as separate classes in either tongue, taught by native speakers of both languages.

From 1988 on: about 20 Russian-speaking kindergartens opened all over Finland.

In the future: there are some plans to organize multilingual educational institutions to meet the needs of bilingual parents and Russian-speaking entrepreneurs and businessmen from Finnish and Russian origin (Protassova 2008).

Investigating the specificity of the Russian language and culture teaching in Finland, one must mention the long common border, the ambiguous relationships in the past and modernity, the rich sources of shared history and mutual needs of the neighbouring countries. Objectively, the requirement to have those who could speak Russian is mounting, and it can be demonstrated by personal and political documents (Rinne 2010). Thus, the Finnish population does not attain the numbers of those who speak Russian sufficiently well due to different prejudices and misunderstandings. Despite of this, the immigrants abandon their native tongue very fast, and the next generation is not as proficient as the former has been. The maintenance of the heritage language, Russian, along with the acquisition of the second one, Finnish or Swedish, contributes to a new speaker



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identity, though the complete acquisition of the L2 without the support of the first language is difficult (Mustajoki et al. 2010a,b).

Conclusion

The issues of language teaching, national history, immigration and education, conditions of the development of the native tongues of various linguistic groups and the place of Russian in Finland's educational system seem to be closely interrelated. It is important to work on the cognitive, emotional and intellectual development of a child in a family and in the society taking into account the child's individual development, including special attention to his or her linguistic past and future. Preserving the mother tongues in the social structure is a necessary condition for mutual understanding between the generations and the layers of society. Regardless of opinion that all levels of language abilities and aptitudes are beneficent, the palette of languages studied has to be improved, and the quantity of hours per week has to be added.

Recent years have seen an ongoing discussion on the role of the English language in Finland. Researchers have also studied more carefully linguistic everyday reality, assessed language proficiency and attitudes as well as the educational tactics and methods. The impact of immersion, linguistic environment, exchanges with schools abroad and motivation to use language multimodally were also burning themes in education. The language education policy is highlighted by the membership in the European Union and northern collaboration projects, by globalization and internationalization, new informational technologies and multicultural tolerance.

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სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
პრობლემები და გამოწვევები
Issues of State Language Teaching:
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Multilingual Education and the Rights of the Child

ABSTRACT

Articles 28 and 29 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child state, that every child has the right to access to relevant quality education, which supports the development of his or her full potential, without any discrimination on basis of ethnic, linguistic or other affiliation.

This paper/presentation will explore the consequences for the State obligations in education with regard to the Convention of the Rights of the Child, with a special focus on these two articles. It will explore the psycholinguistic development of the child in different linguistic situations in education, and will discuss the potentials of forms of multilingual education for the realisation of the rights of the child in education in a multiethnic and multilingual state.

The presentation will thus focus upon the importance of a linguistically sensitive system of education for the individual, and at the same time touch upon the relevance of the realisation of the rights of each individual for the emergence of a functioning and peaceful democratic society.

INTRODUCTION

This paper reflects the State obligations in language education with regard to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, with a special focus on articles 28 and 29. These two articles state that every child has the right to access to relevant quality education which supports the development of his or her full potential, without discrimination on basis of ethnic, linguistic or other affiliation. The paper explores the psycholinguistic development of the child in different educational settings, and discusses the potentials of multilingual education for the realisation of the rights of the child in a multiethnic and multilingual state.

Prevailing model of language education: monolingual education

In post-Soviet countries, there are traditionally two possibilities for a child to receive education within the State system: Either it attends a school with its mother tongue as language of instruction - other languages (including the State language, if the mother tongue is not the State language) are taught as subjects with second or foreign language teaching methodologies; or it undergoes schooling in a language other than its mother tongue, for example children from linguistic minorities attending education with Georgian as language of instruction in Georgia. In which class a child will be educated, is determined by the parents. However there are specific differences in the qualifications each child bears, depending on its mother tongue, and in the specific needs in terms of pedagogical and methodological support it needs in various settings of language education. These differences are usually not taken into account in a sufficient way in the educational process.

Since the determination of identity in this part of the world is largely based on ethnic belonging rather than citizenship, the languages, too, are closely associated with ethnic identity rather than other factors. Therefore, for example Azeri being associated as being the "language of the Azeri" or Armenian being the "language of the Armenians" etc., classes with these languages of instruction are attended mainly by representatives of these ethnic groups. This means that representatives of various ethnic groups are educated separately, in some countries even with different curricula, although they live next to each other. In addition to that these various ways of education provide the children with unequal possibilities in life and create a divided society with a high potential for conflict.

Although the State languages are taught in all classes as a subject, the results of these language lessons for children speaking a minority language are usually not satisfying. In traditional language lessons the main stress is on grammar and formal aspects of language. This means that children learn language in an analytical, grammar-based, rather than a communicative way, although at the age of 6-9 they are psychologically not



ready to perceive and understand such analytical correlations. Such a way of teaching of compliance with grammatical rules leads to formalised lessons, in which both teachers and students concentrate on the formal aspects of language, forgetting about its most important communicative function. The content of what is being said is less important, than whether it is formulated correctly. As a result the students spend their intellectual energy on formal aspects and are not developing their communicative skills in the target language. Traditionally the target language is not used as language of instruction during the lessons. Thus the children never hear the target language in a coherent way and naturally they cannot learn to use this language as what it is meant to be: a means of communication. As a result after finishing school pupils are able to communicate freely both orally and written only in the language, which has been for them the language of instruction.

With the differences in legal status of the different languages spoken in these countries – most of them have only one State language – it is crucial for the individual as well as for the State to have most effective ways for teaching the State language to minority language speakers. Georgia has been making serious efforts in improving the methods of second language teaching in the past years, but nevertheless, even if the teaching is on an increasing level, minority language speakers will stay behind in language competency in comparison with mother-tongue speakers of Georgian, and only very few will achieve enough language competencies to be able to fully participate in the educational, social and political life of the country.

The right of the child to relevant and good quality education

The Human Rights Framework, which the Convention on the Rights of the Child is an important part of, provides a useful reference for assessing and developing forms of language education in different linguistic settings. The Human Rights Framework takes into account both the needs of the individual, as well as the needs of different groups of society, including the state as a whole, and thus provides a frame for constructive discussions on continuous developments of education in an ever-changing world. In order for these inherently held rights to be realised for all rights-holders, the state, as primary duty-bearer, is obliged to provide everything necessary, starting from the national legal setting, up to definition of processes enabling the putting into practise, such as budget allocations, decentralisation of decision-taking, sensitisation and human-rights education for all.

The human rights-based approach is a useful and effective framework for development especially with respect to emotionally and politically sensitive issues, such as the language issue. Language is one very strong denominator of identity, and as such both a powerful means for state building, and at the same time a potential factor of conflict in this process. Broad participation in discussions, developments of approaches and solutions, as suggested by the human rights-based approach, can be the path towards overcoming the obstacles, and making best use of existing opportunities.

Articles 28 and 29 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child specifically refer to formal education:

Article 28

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:
 - a. Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;
 - b. Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;
 - c. Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;
 - d. Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;
 - e. Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates.
2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.



3. States Parties shall promote and encourage international cooperation in matters relating to education, in particular with a view to contributing to the elimination of ignorance and illiteracy throughout the world and facilitating access to scientific and technical knowledge and modern teaching methods. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

Article 29

1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:
 - a. The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
 - b. The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
 - c. The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;
 - d. The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;
 - e. The development of respect for the natural environment.
2. No part of the present article or article 28 shall be construed so as to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principle set forth in paragraph 1 of the present article and to the requirements that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the State.

These two articles are the main ones with regard to issues of education. However, they cannot be treated separately from or disregarding other articles of the convention. Especially important for the discourse about models of language education is article 30:

Article 30

In those States in which ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities or persons of indigenous origin exist, a child belonging to such a minority or who is indigenous shall not be denied the right, in community with other members of his or her group, to enjoy his or her own culture, to profess and practise his or her own religion, or to use his or her own language.

Thus, every child has the right to access to relevant and good quality education, which supports the development of his or her full potential, without any discrimination on basis of ethnic, linguistic or other affiliation. With regard to the language education, as well as the forms of language education this has specific implications for the state, and specifically for the system of state education.

Potentials and limits of monolingual education based on linguistic separation

Education with the mother tongue as language of instruction:

Linguists and pedagogues such as J. Piaget or Vygotskij have examined the role of the mother tongue, i.e. the language, in which the child speaks at home.¹ Since the 1990ies linguists, pedagogues and neurologists have been conducting research on the linguistic and cognitive development of children in primary schools with various linguistic conditions. On the results of these research activities see for example Baker, Wode or Thomas/Collier². The results confirmed Vygotskij's and Piaget's assumptions that the language of instruction plays a crucial role for the general development of the child.

¹ Piaget, Jean: *Sprechen und Denken des Kindes*, Düsseldorf: Schwann 1975

Wygotski, Lew S: *Denken und Sprechen*, F.a.M. Fisher 1974

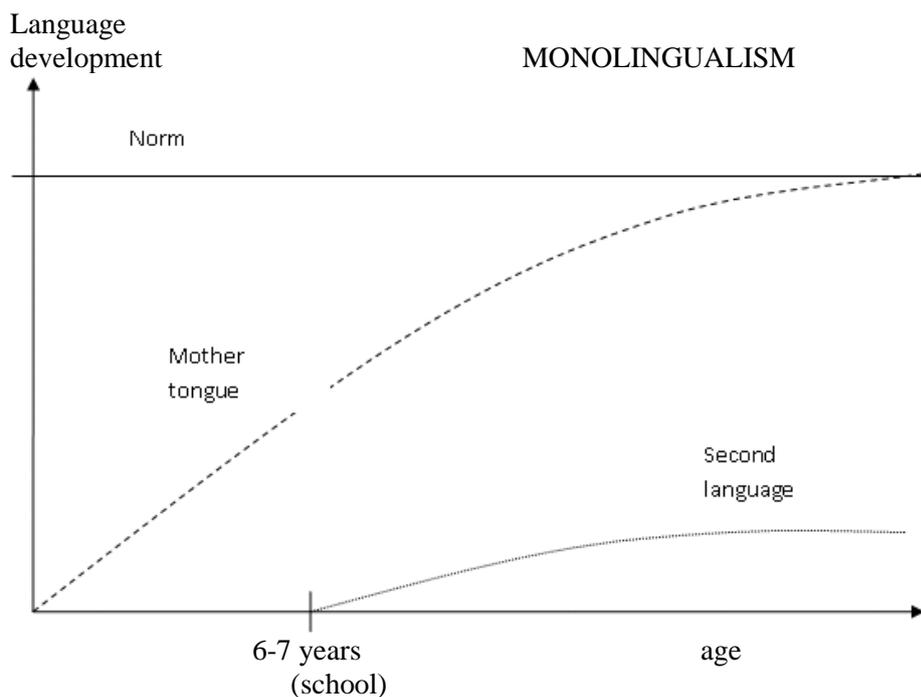
² Thomas, Wayne P. and Virginia Collier, 1997. *School effectiveness for language minority students*. Washington D.C.

Baker, Colin, 1996. *Foundations for bilingual education and bilingualism*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Wode, H. 1995. *Lernen in der Fremdsprache: Grundzüge von Immersion und bilinguaem Unterricht*. Ismaning.



For Georgian-speaking children attending a Georgian school the monolingual system guarantees both sound linguistic and psychological development and good competencies in the State language, which will enable them to full participation in the social and political life of the country, and have the full opportunities for higher education and employment. For children speaking a minority language and living in a region where the State language is not used in everyday life, however, this poses serious challenges. The following diagram³ is depicting the tendencies of the linguistic development of children, who are being taught in their mother tongue (i.e. the language, in which they first learned to speak and in which they speak at home), and learn the State language as a second language in separate language lessons.



These children steadily develop their mother tongue until it reaches the norm, because in the process of school education they will constantly communicate in this language. The cognitive development, fostered by the content of learning of different subjects, evolves together with the increasing language competence and vice versa. The second language on the other hand does not reach a high level, because traditionally the methods of teaching do not enable the development of communication skills. Even if the teaching is more communicative, usually the time during which the child is exposed to the second language is not sufficient to reach the needed level of language competency. Persons, who are educated in their mother tongue, even if they enjoy second language lessons, usually become monolingual. They have a high command of their mother tongue, but when communicating in the second language constantly translate from or to the mother tongue.

While this approach corresponds to the State's duties for fulfilling what is stated in Article 29 1.c) of the Convention, namely that education "shall be directed to [...] the development of respect for [...] his or her own cultural identity, language and values [...]" other parts of the Convention are not covered. Article 28 1.c) of the Convention obliges the State to make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity. However, with the education with the mother tongue as language of instruction, this obligation is not fulfilled: In the

³ The diagram shall be understood as an aid to illustrate the arguments. The line referring to the language development combines various aspects, including language skills, communication competence and general cognitive development. The line labelled "norm" in the diagram denotes a level of linguistic and cognitive development that enables a person to fully participate in all aspects of life.



course of the discussion about the unified national examination for entering university in Georgia in 2005 and 2006, this difficulty became evident. While in a first step in 2005 there was the possibility for high school graduates from non-Georgian schools to take an adapted Georgian language test, this benefit was cancelled in 2006. As we have seen, monolingual education in the mother tongue does not give minority language speakers the opportunity to acquire the State language on the needed level, making it impossible for numerous young people from national minorities to enter a Georgian higher education institution.

Apart from the purely linguistic drawbacks for minority language students, there is another problem with the system of separate minority and majority language schools: It divides children from a very early age according to their ethnic, linguistic and cultural background, and teaches them separately, even in regions and towns where they live next to each other. In their everyday life the children experience that they are seemingly fundamentally different from each other. This situation is counter-productive with regard to the State's obligation to what is stated in Article 29 1.d) "to ensure an education that is directed to [...] the preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin." The current system therefore not only provides the children with unequal possibilities in life, but also creates a divided society with a high potential for conflict.

Additionally, with this limited competence in the Georgian language, there is both little motivation as well as little possibility for minority language speakers to orient their professional life towards Georgian speaking parts of the country, wherefore they might rather search their opportunities in the neighbouring countries, where their mother tongue is the State language. This tendency is a potential threat to the development of a unified state based on citizenship.

Education for minority language speakers with the State language as language of instruction:

Understanding the growing importance of a good command of the Georgian language, as well as the minimum standards for command of the State language as laid down by the State, more and more parents of linguistic minorities send their children to Georgian language schools. This development was increasingly observed in an unpublished survey done by CIMERA in 2005 in the Kvemo Kartli region, where the notion prevails that it is the task of the family to "teach" children their mother tongue. However, in this setting the importance of education in the mother tongue for both the linguistic and cognitive development of a child is neglected.

Teaching children exclusively in a language, which is not their mother tongue, is called *submersion* or *total immersion*. It is important to note that this model can lead to bilingualism only in very specific linguistic settings, where the children's mother tongue has very high prestige and is widely used outside of the school⁴. Usually - and in most situations in Georgia - this does not lead to bilingualism. On the contrary, it can be dangerous for the overall linguistic and intellectual development of the child.

If non-Georgian speaking children attend a Georgian school together with Georgian speaking children, they undergo the whole education process in a language unknown to them and experience a so-called "full immersion shock". This shock slows down the children's ability to perceive information and to learn. These children are expected to adopt the second language on native speakers' level *and* learn the content of the school subjects at the same pace as native speakers. The pupils are constantly in a situation in which they do not understand what is being asked of them, and can conclude that the problem lies in them themselves: they feel stupid and think that they are not able to learn at all. In this situation the child can close in and the Georgian language, although in time does start to develop, never reaches the required level. This shock slows down the children's ability to perceive information and to learn and it puts in danger their cognitive development.⁵ Throughout the world, this problem is one of the roots for high drop-out rates in primary education. In this setting the requirements of the CRC Articles 29 1.a) "...education of the child shall be directed to the devel-

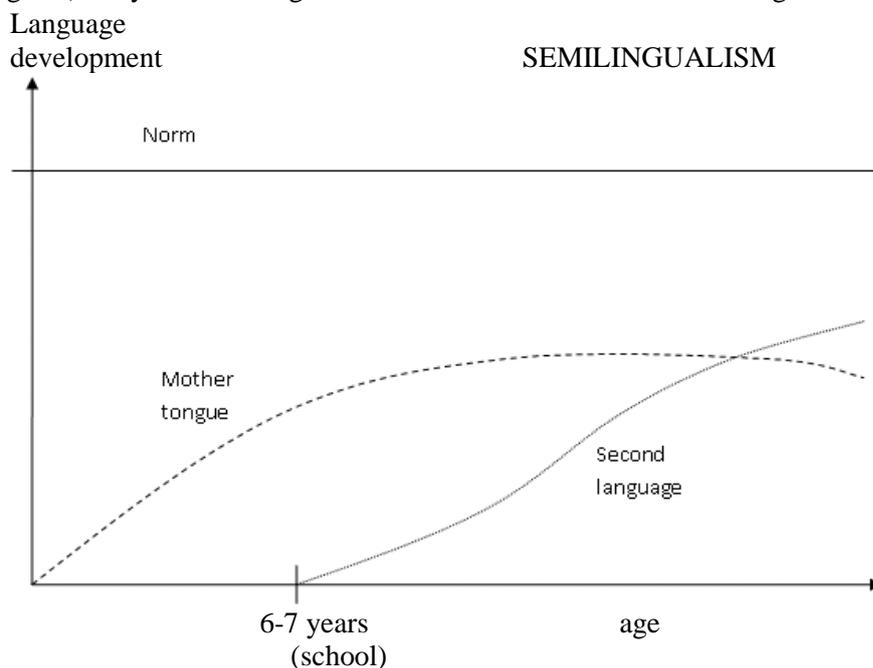
⁴ Baker (1993) and Wode (1997).

⁵ Crawford (1989) and (1997), Cummins (1980), Sweetnam Evans (2001)



opment of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential." and 29 1.e) "Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates" can not be fulfilled.

At the same time the mother tongue does not develop properly in this educational setting. The children do not learn how to read and write in their mother tongue and they will not be able to express more complex academic meaning in it. Even if children continue to use their mother tongue at home or with friends, they will not learn to formulate more complex academic meaning in it. The linguistic development stops on an everyday level. The diagram shows that the development of the mother tongue not only stops, but can go back at the age of about 14-15. This phenomenon is explained by the fact, that at this age the pupils start to subconsciously understand, that their mother tongue is the reason for their difficulties at school. Seeing that the children who speak the State language at home are doing much better, pupils can draw the conclusion, that everything they received from home (including the language), impedes them in life. This can go as far as a total rejection of the mother tongue and the culture connected to it. At the same time a hostile attitude towards the majority language and culture can occur. This psychological tension is called "bicultural ambivalence": "shame towards the native culture and hostility towards the other".⁶ In some settings, and if the teachers know the mother tongue of the children, teachers often start to translate. If the teaching process goes about with constant translation, children never hear any coherent texts in the target language, because the teacher constantly switches between languages. As a result the pupils might not be able to clearly differentiate the two languages and start to mix them. In this case their competence in the State language does not reach a normal level either. Therefore persons who undergo education in such a setting very often become semi-lingual (or subtractive bilinguals): they will have a good command neither of the mother tongue nor of the second language.

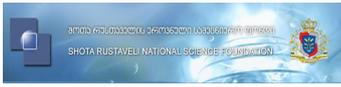


The potentials of multilingual education models

In order to tackle these challenges, various models of multilingual education can be helpful. Multilingual education refers to the use of two or more languages as mediums of instruction, as defined by UNESCO.⁷ Dif-

⁶ Crawford (1989, 107)

⁷ UNESCO (2003)



ferent languages thus can be used as language of instruction based on different criteria for division. Either the subjects are assigned to different languages of instruction: for example, mathematics, geography and sports in language 1, biology, history and arts in language 2. etc. Different languages can also be appointed to two or three different teachers, all of whom teach all subjects in one class, but using different languages. Or the languages of instruction can be assigned to specific times, for example one language always being used in the morning, the other in the afternoon, or different languages can be assigned for specific days of the week, and so on.

Pupils feel comfortable in the lessons, which are taught in the language they are already familiar with, because they understand what is being asked of them. They can experience their abilities, which develops in them a feeling of self-confidence. In this way one can first of all guarantee the sound development of the mother tongue: the child learns to read, write and express complex thoughts in the mother tongue, thus having the right according to article 29 1.c) fulfilled: "education shall be directed to [...] the development of [...] his or her cultural identity, language [...]".

The acquired self-confidence helps the children to openly tackle learning also in the subjects, which are taught in the second and third language. Having experienced their own learning potential, they can learn with curiosity and effort. For the children whose mother tongue is not the State language, for example Georgian, this second language develops much quicker than in a monolingual Georgian class.

Children not only develop language skills in two or more languages, but also, surprisingly, score higher in language proficiency as well as in academic subjects.⁸ Children become multilingual, which means that not only they are fluent and proficient in two languages, but that they develop a number of additional skills and abilities. First and foremost, multilingual persons show cognitive avails especially in what concerns the conscious handling of language.⁹ They become more creative and inventive in problem-solving in general. Thanks to their increased linguistic awareness and repertoire, multilingual persons are better at learning and/or acquiring other languages in their adult life. Persons, who thanks to an ideal linguistic situation develop such abilities, are called multilingual.

In that sense, this model can significantly contribute to the State's obligation according to article 29 1.a) of the Convention on the Rights of the Child: "The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential."

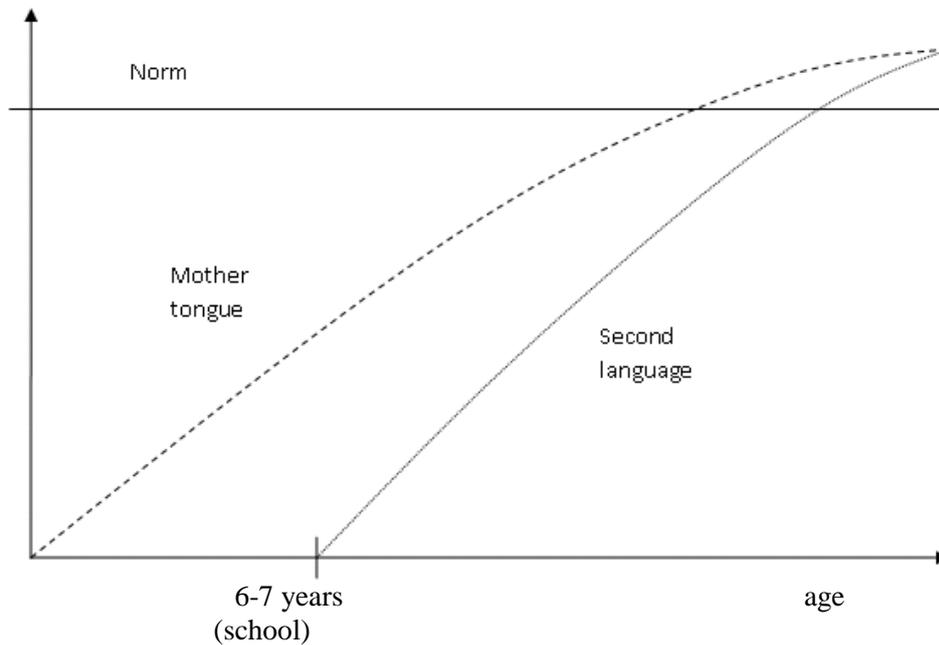
Language
Development

MULTILINGUALISM

⁸ Cazabon, Nicoladis, Lambert (1988)

⁹ Lemmon and Goggin (1989)

სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
 პრობლემები და გამოწვევები
**Issues of State Language Teaching;
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Many parents fear that learning in two or three languages at a time is very difficult for children. But in fact this is not the case. When child-centred, interactive methods are used, children can acquire two or three languages on a high level of competency, without even noticing how this happens. From the psychological point of view, it is not more difficult for children in a multilingual class than in mother-tongue education and a lot easier than in the full immersion model. Therefore multilingual education helps both the linguistic as well as the psychological, cognitive and creative development of children.

Baker (1988) identifies three types of partial immersion models of multilingual education:

Transitional immersion programmes start with a relatively large amount of mother-tongue lessons in primary school, and then gradually increase instruction in the second language up to 100% in the last years of schooling. Such programmes can be applied successfully for the integration of migrants in Western Europe. It fosters assimilation of minority language groups into the majority language culture. These models of multilingual education support the realisation of articles 28 1.c) and e), as they contribute to the reduction of drop-out rates due to the full-immersion shock, as well as to the increased accessibility to higher education due to increased competencies of the State language.

Maintenance immersion programmes are aimed at more or less homogenous groups of minority language speakers. The programme remains multilingual throughout schooling. The ultimate goal is to facilitate expression and literacy in two or three languages. Maintenance immersion programmes are popular in societies where cultural and linguistic diversity are valued as enrichment for society. It is for example applied in Kyrgyzstan in purely Kyrgyz-speaking regions, where multilingual education is used as a means to foster better knowledge of the official language Russian. With this approach, the State can further the realisation of articles 18. 1.c) (access to higher education) and 29 1.c) (respect for the child's cultural identity, language and values).

Two-way immersion programmes are aimed at promoting multilingualism and multiculturalism not only among minorities, but among all representatives of a country or region. This model makes use of all available linguistic resources in a multi-ethnic region or town. The ultimate goal of two-way immersion programmes is multilingualism, multi-literacy and multiculturalism for individuals of all linguistic groups. It is important that in these classes interactive teaching methods are used, which enable the children to learn actively, enable the teachers to determine the needs of each child, and use communication in the target languages as the basic



method for learning languages and content. Since in multilingual classes each child receives education in its mother tongue *and* in the second language, the classes can be ethnically and linguistically mixed, depending on the needs and possibilities of each region. With multilingual education the parents' dilemma in choosing the language of instruction for their children, is resolved.

This kind of multilingual education is successfully used in regions densely populated by a minority of the country. An example is the Rumantsch-speaking region of Switzerland, where in some villages both German- and Rumantsch-speaking children are educated with both languages of instruction. In this way, children speaking the minority language Rumantsch are assured proficiency in German, which ensures their access to higher education and a prosperous professional future; children speaking German on the other hand are given the chance to learn the minority language Rumantsch, to get to know the corresponding culture and to grow up bilingually and bi-culturally.

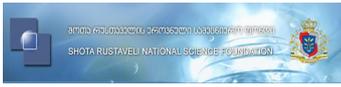
The two-way immersion models are the ones with the highest potential for contributing to the fulfilment of the State obligations with regard to the Convention on the Rights of the Child: It provides the setting in which every child can acquire the State language on a sufficiently high level for having access to higher education, if other capacities allow, thus supporting the realisation of article 28 1. c). Also, it prevents drop-out due to the full-immersion shock that children might encounter, contributing to the realisation of article 28 1. e). Additionally it contains a high potential to contribute to the values and quality factors as covered in article 29 of the Convention: “the development of the child's personality, talents, and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential; The development of respect for the child's own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own; The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin”.

The striking difference of the two-way immersion model to other models of multilingual education is the fact, that in this model not only minority language children are benefitting from the advantages of multilingual education, but all children, irrespective of their ethnic or linguistic belonging. In that sense the two-way immersion programmes are fully complying with the content and the spirit of the human rights framework.

CONCLUSIONS

Multilingual education models are a most powerful and pragmatic approach for multilingual States to fulfil their complex duties stated in the Convention on the Rights of the Child with regard to language education. It ensures that all children, irrespective of their linguistic background, can access education in their mother tongue, which is crucial for development of his or her full intellectual, personal, cognitive, creative and social potential (Article 29 1. a), and which as well is directed towards the development of the child's cultural identity, language and values (Article 29 1. c). Additionally it gives all children the possibility to acquire the State language on a high level, so as to make higher education accessible to all children equally (Article 28 1. c). Multilingual education can reduce drop-out that may occur with children, who are exposed to full immersion in the State language (Article 28 1. e). Multilingual education programmes imply the use of modern teaching methods, a concern raised in Article 28 3 of the Convention.

Two-way immersion programmes, involving children from the minority as well as the majority groups, being the most immediate, pragmatic and efficient way of intercultural education, are a means for realising and developing the values stated in Article 29 1.d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free



სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
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society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin.

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Content and Language Integrated Learning: Prospects for Bilingual School in Estonia

ABSTRACT

Teaching children in the language that is different from their mother tongue has been practiced in Estonia since the beginning of the 1960s. At first it was teaching in the English language. The schools which at that time introduced English-medium instruction have been considered elite schools in Estonia up to today. In modern Estonia under the notion “content and language integrated learning” people mean the methodology which ensures simultaneous acquisition of the content and language which happens due to development of certain learning skills (Mehisto, Marsh et al, 2008). The methodology of content and language integrated learning is applied primarily in general education schools with Russian as the language of instruction which compose one fifth of the whole of school system of Estonia. Voluntary systematic application of content and language integrated learning in Russian-medium schools began in Estonia over ten years ago with the launch of the “language immersion” project by the example of Canada. Language immersion is practiced both in kindergartens and in basic school. Thus, in Estonia both early and late language immersion is used in its both full and partial forms. This teaching methodology has already proved its effectiveness.

In 1997 the current “Law on Basic and Secondary Schools in Estonia” was added to with a new point according to which Russian-medium schools were to start transition to partial subject teaching in the Estonian language at the level of secondary school not later than 1 September, 2007. The pupils who started studying in secondary school in 2011 are to be taught subjects in the Estonian language in the extent of 60% of the compulsory study minimum stated by the National Curriculum. The aim of such “transition” to teaching in Estonian is to provide Russian-medium secondary school leavers with equal (comparing to pupils finishing Estonian-medium schools) possibilities of further education or employment at the labour market. New National Curricula for basic and secondary school (adopted by the Government Regulation of 6 January, 2011) recommend using the content and language integrated learning methodology in the process of the transition. Thus, devising of this methodology becomes the key topic of the education system of Estonia for the next years. The Estonian-medium instruction is applied already at the basic school stage in the vast majority of schools (according to data of the Ministry of Education and Research, it is practiced in, at least, three fourths of schools).

In the academic year 2010/2011 the compulsory minimum of subjects of Estonian-medium instruction in the first year of secondary school is 4 subjects (adopted by the Government Regulation no. 235 of 23 November, 2007). However, according to data of the Ministry of Education and Research, in 90% of secondary schools more than 4 subjects are taught in the Estonian language. Meanwhile, single secondary schools reach the 60% rate of Estonian-medium content/subject instruction. Up to today the subject of discussion is what we mean by the notion “content/subject teaching in the Estonian language”. Do we take into consideration the level of pupils’ Estonian language skills which depends directly on their age and speech skills in their mother tongue?

Pupils and teachers’ evaluation of and attitude to the serious changes¹⁰ which took place in Russian-medium schools during the last years have been the subject of research. The first results of such researches (2009) show that we are standing at a crossroads: pupils and teachers’ discontent with the changes in the area is at a high level, although it is too early to make conclusions yet. The differences between Ida-Viru County, Tallinn and other regions of Estonia are considerable. The standpoints of teachers and pupils also differ: as the research shows, pupils are more open to studying in the English language. The positive result is the pupils’ growing interest towards studying in secondary vocational educational institutions and universities in Estonia. The methodology of teaching and motivation of pupils remain the problematic issues (Masso, Kello, 2010).

¹⁰ Today in Estonia there are 62 Russian-medium secondary schools which are located mainly in Tallinn and Ida-Viru County. 19% of the total number of pupils study in 4gGeneral education schools with Russian as the language of instruction; every fourth Russian-speaking pupil studies in the Estonian-medium classroom or in the language immersion programme.



Unfortunately, we do not have the data about the methods which schools use for teaching second and foreign languages and about the effectiveness of these methods. The TALIS (2007/20008) research of teachers conducted within the frames OECD revealed the fact that is worth paying attention to: viewpoints of teachers in Estonia are liberal and modern, although the teaching practice is considered more traditional as compared to other countries (Loogma, Ruus et al, 2009). The question of the teacher's Estonian language fluency is no less important since the mother tongue of the majority of teachers using content and language integrated learning methodology is Russian.

The overview of the academic performance of pupils from Russian-medium schools is provided in reports of OECD PISA researches (2006, 2009), according to which schools with Russian as the language of instruction have showed poorer results (see the overview: http://www.ekk.edu.ee/vvfiles/0/PISA_2009_Eesti.pdf). A relatively small number of subjects¹¹ taught in the Estonian language could not have had a considerable effect on the indexes of the development level of main skills. According to the data of state examinations (the system has been in operation since 2000), the academic results of Russian-speaking youth are lower (as compared to the ones of their Estonian-speaking peers), primarily in the area of history, civic science, geography and foreign languages. It is noteworthy that those first Russian-medium schools where Estonian-medium instruction is applied to a much larger extent, showed academic results equal to the ones of Estonian-medium schools (data of the Ministry of Education and Research for the academic year 2010/2011). Directors of Russian-medium schools have recently been attracting the public attention via mass media to the problem of the most talented children's going to Estonian-medium schools ("Õpetajate Leht (Teachers' Newspaper)", 14 January, 2011, p. 2). The Russian-medium school of Estonia is at the crossroads: it is important to define the status of the basic school with Russian as the language of instruction and decide its destiny. In the new conditions an essential role is given to Russian-speaking teachers who are to keep and preserve the culture of their nation.

The success of further application of the content and language integrated learning methodology (the methodology which has already proven its effectiveness on the international scale) in Estonia depends on the state educational policy, teachers' preparedness and readiness to use it, availability of corresponding study materials and teachers' skills to adopt the study materials they already have.

The current state educational policy categorically allows secondary education in the Estonian language, while secondary vocational education can be obtained in the Russian language. According to the data of the Ministry, the number of Russian-speaking youth who choose to study in vocational educational institutions is 10 % higher than in the case of their Estonian-speaking peers. According to the "Law on Basic and Secondary Schools", the owners of Russian-medium secondary schools, local governments, can apply for the delay in transition to the Estonian language of instruction, and private secondary schools have the right to keep the Russian-medium instruction. Up to this moment, six months before the beginning of the school reform, the corresponding applications have not been submitted. Thus, today the main issue is not the necessity of introducing changes in the area of education, but the way of doing that.

Training of teachers for Russian-medium schools already was the subject of discussions over a decade ago (Vassiltšenko, Asser, Trasberg, 1998). The participants of that discussion focused on the teacher's language fluency and also on the issues of the possibility of teacher training in Russian (mother tongue) and linking the Estonian context with the national culture of a pupil. The alterations made in the teacher training curriculum are, unfortunately, not enough: the subject which would pay much attention to multicultural education is rather an exception than a rule in the teacher training curriculum. In today's Estonia all teachers need special preparation for using the content and language integrated learning methodology; it is important to pay special attention to training of teachers who work both in the Estonian and in the Russian languages. Content/subject teaching in the Russian language should be introduced, first and foremost, in the basic school in the case of exact and nature sciences. Education of teachers of Russian as the mother tongue should be in compliance with their new role: the preserver of the language and culture who shapes the identity and supports Russian-medium content/subjects instruction.

The above-mentioned content and language integrated learning is an issue not only for Russian-medium schools in Estonia. In Estonia besides schools with Russian as the language of instruction there are English-

¹¹ The participants of the research were pupils under 15 years of age.



medium and Finnish-medium schools, as well as schools with partial instruction in French and German. The key to further success is in cooperation between teachers and experience exchange, including that with foreign colleagues. In connection with the language-oriented teaching methodology the following fact is becoming increasingly important: pupils in Estonian-medium schools have very different cultural background and their mother tongue is not necessarily Estonian or Russian. The latter circumstance sets the Estonian education system and its teachers special tasks. The results of researches show that studying in the multicultural environment is under-estimated in the Estonian education system, first of all, in the case of the Estonian-medium school (Loogma, Ruus et al, 2009). It is necessary to provide the corresponding competence with a clear meaning in Teacher's Professional Standard of Estonia and in in-service teacher training.

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Minority students in the Latvian schools: some problems and solutions

ABSTRACT

The topicality of the research is connected with the problem that in the last fifteen years approximately 6% of minority children start their studies in a Latvian language school. The number of minority students in the secondary school classes is much higher. Together with students coming from monolingual families there are studying both harmonic bilinguals and students who are just gradually becoming strong bilinguals. Between them there are also asymmetric bilinguals. Teachers need to acquire a new professional competence – how to work with ethnically and linguistically heterogenic classes.

INTRODUCTION

Education plays a central role in promoting social development, stability, integration, and equity in a linguistically diverse world. The school is the environment for the successful development of personality corresponding to the needs of the students; therefore, new demands are created for education. The learning/teaching process can be broadly described as the development of intellectual, social, physical, emotional, linguistic and moral capabilities to function effectively both individually and as a part of wider society.

In the last fifteen years the number of students in Latvian language schools is rising and it is not connected with the rise in the overall proportion of Latvians. Since 2001 approximately 6% of minority students start their studies in a Latvian language school. The classes in Latvian language schools are becoming more and more ethnically and linguistically heterogenic. According to the research by Society Politic Centre PROVIDUS 19.3 % of pupils in the secondary school classes are considered to have the Latvian language as a second language. The most important parent arguments for sending their children to a Latvian language school are the following: an easier integration in the society of Latvia is achieved based on the usage of the Latvian language, it is easier to study in the state higher education facilities in state financed programs whose basic studies are only in the state language, and it is easier to take part in the Latvian labor market and there are more career opportunities etc. (*Austers, Golubeva, Kovaļenko, Strode, 2006*).

The more changeable social circumstances are, the more important is the responsibility of the teacher to help each student understand his/her specific identity and to acquire different education content.

The aim of the study is to draw attention to problems of psychological, linguistic and pedagogical nature in working with ethnic minority students in Latvian language schools and to analyze experience on how they are being resolved.

Methods and materials are different theories about language and culture interaction, theories about communicative approach, task-based learning and some empirical observations have shown the necessity to improve the teacher's professional competence in a multicultural environment.

Results and discussion

The purpose of multicultural education is to help a student develop his identities, solidarity with others, critical thinking, liberatory action. Multicultural education contains culture oriented content. Culture oriented content helps a minority student to integrate in the majority society, to express themselves in the intercultural dialog and better understand not only majority culture, but own ethnic cultural traditions and values, to see cultural similarities and differences between people with different cultural background. The individual culture of each person is associated with stable knowledge, proper skills and sound attitude to the environment. Each culture reveals its peculiarities and develops as a result of social interchange (*Bank, 2005; Giddens, 2003; Harmer, Blanc, 2000*).



The following multicultural features turn up at national schools in Latvia, for instance, different ethnic traditions, speech behavior, style of clothes, experience of the language, psychological and social development, material and spiritual values, beliefs, motivation to learn, previous learning habits and abilities. According to empirical observations in a multicultural environment various students groups are allowed to keep their own special features.

Minority students with different ethnic background are not isolated from other ethnic groups, but they coexist and value the cultural and ethnic diversity. Students need to develop identities- as individuals, as members of communities and a sense of solidarity with all people. According to empirical observations and questionnaire minority students and their teachers have some psychological, linguistic and pedagogical problems.

Psychological problems are connected with emotional stress. 52.8% from 154 students feel a certain discomfort. In such a case a new cultural environment is going to reinforce this discomfort. It may result in emotional anxiety, irritation, annoyance, fear to speak and to make mistakes, sudden and striking changes in the mood. A part of pupils try to get rid of the feeling of discomfort by isolation from the peers or on the contrary, by shocking misbehavior to attract attention and to excell in front of the peers (the pupil's learning process does not comply with acceptable cultural norms) (*Anspoka, Silina- Jasjekevicica, 2006*).

Linguistic problems are very diverse. The students who begin to learn the state language in these schools can be divided into two groups: one part of the pupils studies Latvian as their mother language, the other part - as the second language, some times as a foreign language. The acquisition of the Latvian language as a second language refers to those pupils who together with their parents return from the European countries when their parents' work contract is over or to the children whose parents belong to the countries of the third world. These students acquire the Latvian language and content of different subject by the model of submerse.

Empiric observations reflect student's different former practice of the language skills: listening skills, speaking skills, reading skills and written experience.

The linguistic problems for minority students disturb not only to learn different education content, to find, to read and understand the information in order to comprehend it, to analyze, to classify, to discover new interconnections among various facts, but to develop the dialogue between students and teachers in particular sociocultural contexts at particular moments of time.

Among the minority pupils there are pupils who easily pass from one native language to the Latvian language, but there are pupils who mix language codes. The mixing of codes most often is observed in oral speech including the words, phrases, sentence constructions, grammatical forms etc. from their native language or the foreign language acquired at school. The mixing of codes is caused by users' insufficient speaking ability, as well as insufficient motivation to learn, effort of will etc.

When working with texts minority pupils also have mistakes of cultural character and it interferes with the perception of the content, understanding and applying it in other communicative situations when making a crosscultural dialogue. Minority pupils think more about the form of separate words but not about the content and it results in losing the thought. Quite often in descriptions and compositions minority pupils use everyday words acquired in informal communication with peers outside the school because their vocabulary does not contain words corresponding to cultural norms of the Latvian language.

Minority students often cannot answer questions or form an independent narrative. In this case we have to be careful and consider if it is a lack of language competence or like majority pupils they do not have enough knowledge about the topic.

Minority pupils can make mistakes as a result of language interference, for example, Latvian words are formed according to the model of the native language or previously acquired Latvian language model. According to 49.9% respondents pupils do not have consistent knowledge about Latvian culture, history, therefore it is difficult to understand folklore texts, proverbs and set expressions.

Similarly, minority pupils frequently do not have knowledge about their own ethnic culture and then pupils accept Latvian traditions non-critically. Such a situation threatens pupils' assimilation or on the contrary – causes intolerant attitude towards other traditions, wisdom. (*Anspoka, Silina- Jasjekevicica, 2006*).

It is also an important conclusion (mentioned by 17.8 % of respondents) that a greater discomfort exists for those pupils who come from monolingual, mostly from



Russian families and who have not attended Latvian preschool educational institution. These pupils do not often have Latvian language environment outside school because families mainly watch and listen to programmes in Russian, read newspapers in Russian and have communication with Russian cultural life, parents cannot help to do homework because they themselves speak and write with mistakes and have a poor vocabulary. At the same time there exists a positive contradiction. If only a pupil has a motivation to learn, it is supported in the family, they themselves cope with the difficulties. According to 48.2% of the surveyed teachers, if in the first forms minority pupils have a smaller vocabulary compared to majority pupils, sometimes they even do not perceive or partly perceive the study content, then at the end of basic school the level of language skills between minority and majority pupils tends to balance. Quite often minority pupils who gradually become biliguals are also more diligent, their experience about the surrounding world is wider because they not only use two languages but they have a sense about two or several cultures. (*Anspoka, Silina- Jasjevica, 2006; Austers, Golubeva, Kovaļenko, Strode, 2006*).

Teachers consider the acquisition of the Latvian language as the most essential problem at work in multicultural environment and with bilingual students.

Language is not only an instrument for communication, but also the means of expressing thoughts as well as the means of thinking, the means of exploration of the world, acquisition of cultural heritage and values; moreover, it is the means of the individuality's self-realization in multicultural dialogue. The cultural dialogue is based on recurrent and habitual system of dispositions and expectations.

According to standards and programmes language learning is not any more aimed just at the development of communicative skills and the accurate use of grammatical forms of the particular language, but at the same time at learning the peculiarities of its material and spiritual culture as well as the traits of national behavior. While speaking or writing students express their attitude, show their values. During the communication process students reveal the reality of their culture with the help of the language and gain a new experience in the process of acquisition of cultural heritage. A language as a tool to transmit ideas, establish the aims, tolerate individual identities and memberships in social communities (*Anspoka, 2008*).

Language is not only a part how one defines the culture, but language also reflects culture. Target language cannot be properly understood and acquired without being aware of what one is learning and its cultural roots. Culture should be included in language learning process as one of fundamental components of language learning. Culture should be an integral part of any language learning as it makes communication and use of the acquired language meaningful. Understanding cultural phenomena would enable students to understand the application of linguistic structures better and vice versa, studying culture and language shows a more clear-cut organisation of the society (*Krasner, 1999; Giddens, 2003; Вязомский, 1997*).

One of the core aspects that are put forward is the ability of the teacher to make a student understand that a language is a lot more than an abstract system of symbols; to emphasize that a language learning is the way to get to know a different culture and deepen the knowledge of one's own roots. The purposeful use of authentic texts that provide information about cultural patterns and symbols can serve as a means of learning about standards in culture, behaviour models of verbal and non-verbal communication and help pupils to understand the meaning of a particular symbol and the context of its application within that culture. At the same time teachers should not ignore the acquisition of the grammatical system of the learned language. However, its acquisition could not be separated from the communicative culture acquisition. To maintain the intercultural dialogue the ability to apply the knowledge of the language use and communication skills to create the appropriate text in oral as well as in written communication is as equally important as the ability to understand connotation of words and phrases, consciously choosing such etiquette for behavior and speech that corresponds to the cultural traditions of the particular ethnic group.

Research shows some pedagogical problems too. Even though about 85% of teachers respect the choice of students and their parents and take into account that at the same time teacher's work is becoming more difficult.

To prevent students' assimilation and to maintain their national identity, the issue of the study content becomes important.

The study content is changing due the aforesaid factors, therefore, national component, native country and global perception components in their mutual interaction are becoming dominant in terms of the contents. The education content - the spiritual values is acquired by the student with the help of the teacher. It consists



of knowledge, skills, developing mind, moral, esthetical and other characteristic features, which create one's private culture. It is vitally important to realize and fulfill the learners' social role in the particular cultural environment. Students need to become critical thinkers, to be confident and persistent problem solvers so that they see themselves as activists rather than simple feeling overwhelmed by the challenges of the world. Teachers must ensure that all pupils gain the academic skills that will give them access to the knowledge of our society and the power to make a difference (*Bank, 2005; Ramsey, 2004; Zogla, 2001; Harmer, Blanc, 2000*).

The proficiency of the teacher is based on the assumptions that it is a sum of different competences, for instance, general intelligence, knowledge of the subject, classroom management, communication, etc. Much attention is paid to the teachers' emotional and psychological state in a ethnically and linguistically environment, the structure of lessons as a form of learning and the traits of the teacher's leadership.

One of the criteria to assess the teacher's professionalism is the teacher's level of all-round intelligence (IQ). It involves a teacher's psychological, pedagogical and social willingness to educate learners, regardless the scale of their social values, ways of behavior, ideals, previous practice of Latvian and their specific developmental background. If we wish to prepare a student to live and survive in a democratic society, a teacher should be aware of cultural diversity and inconvenient situations. Moreover, a teacher should act and react speedily in such situations, should predict their development and, if it is necessary, to change the selected means, keeping in mind the goal of developing a harmonious personality regardless student's physical, intellectual and social experience.

As very important for successful professional action in an ethnic and linguistic environment are considered some characteristic features of the teacher's personality (sensitivity, tolerance, patience). It depends on the teacher's personality, what emotional climate will be created in a particular heterogeneous student's group". If the positive emotions prevail in the group ("emotional piece"), then the process of acquiring goes deeper and faster. Emotions make an impact on the in-taking process of brains, memory and psychological processes. In heterogeneous environment one should pay attention not only to the study content, but to the emotional, psychological state of the pupils (*Mushi, 2004; Sousa, 2001; Ramsey, 2004*).

Professional competence of the teacher is seen in the way he/she manages to plan the pedagogical process. The research points out that there are teachers who partly acknowledge the National Standard as a precise, well structured programme to stimulate teacher-learner cooperation and find the programme as a regulator in educational process without which task-oriented and systemic approach cannot be carried out. On the one hand, programmes worked out by other authors are challenging for a teacher to plan his/her own professional activities. On the other hand, a teacher may run a risk if he/she does not take it analytically to meet the needs of the particular culture environment and does not apply it flexibly.

One of the criteria of the competences of a subject teacher is the skill to select a topically vital content and methods for realization this content. On the one hand, teaching and learning in an ethnic and linguistic environment, means to take into account each learner's specific characteristics of culture, on the other hand, to search similarities and differences in the variety of cultures, to enrich learners' specific culture including the experience of 'language in use'.

Research reflects that teachers need to develop some professional skills: social organization (emphasis on individual accomplishments versus peer cooperation), conventions and courtesies of speech (the length of time one waits for a response, rhythms of speech and responses), patterns of cognitive functioning, in particular the difference between verbal/analytic and visual/holistic thinking), motivation (responses to rewards versus affection).

To help all pupils irrespective of their ethnos, linguistic activity experience to acquire the contents of the different subject in Latvian, the teacher in the planning of the education process has to take into account the heterogenic content of the students and individual, cognitive, emotional and social character of the learning, especially language learning.

To teach the language means to create a certain environment, facilitating communication and linguistic interaction. Grammar regularities cannot be isolated; they are included into the use of the language in correlation with the language functions in the process of communication. In order to compare the native



language and culture to the other language, the information on a range of ethno-cultures, language peculiarities is essential as well.

In order to help each learner, a teacher's professionalism is to grasp the way of the learner's thinking, the former knowledge of the topic as well as his/her subjective logics. Teaching practice approves of having his/her own experience that should be taken into account in further teaching and learning process.

At the same time the former experience may differ from the teacher's imagined associations with it. It does not correspond the teacher's syllabus, teaching aids and sequence of themes. If a student has acquired his/her own learning style, (understanding of separate notions and their definitions, a habit of perceiving a word as a whole unit, skills to put it down, possesses a chain of associations that assists the formation of new notions based on the previous ones etc.), but if he/she is supposed to do as the teacher expects him to do, cognitive dissonance appears. It must be taken into account that each student has his/her internalisation in which like in all psychological processes perception depends on the level of appeal and topicality, that impacts a student's action to approve acceptable values and norms (*Fishman, 1999; Larsen-Freeman, 2000*).

One of problem is insufficient teachers' cooperation for the providing inter-subject link, for promoting the use of the particular knowledge and skills in real communicative situations. Effective communication requires paying close attention to what others are saying both verbally and nonverbally and genuinely trying to see and understand their perspectives, as well as making oneself understood.

The professionalism of teacher is connected with the skill to help a student work with such pedagogical tools that would stimulate him to learn, using the gained experience in other situations; realize that a pedagogical process is the tools for every student's development as a personality. In a multicultural class teacher's emotional and psychological sustainability matters greatly in the case of selection a class as a form to organize the pedagogical process and its management, taking into account the potential of each learner.

The current trends of teaching process cannot ignore the development of ICT and necessity to work with various information sources. The application of ICT in the teaching classes can facilitate the development of grammatical competence in different contexts and communicational aspects. The Web serves as a platform for spoken and written communication in authentic discourse and could be successfully incorporated in language learning and teaching methodology that would increase students' interest towards studies and create the possibility for a positive experience of student's autonomous learning.

Taking into account the many different problems in the last few years The Latvian Language State Agency in cooperation with higher education facilities, Ministry of Education and Science and local municipalities has created a system for further education of teachers and development of methodical and study materials etc. The general aim of the Latvian Language Agency is to promote and strengthen the status and sustainable development of the Latvian language – the state language of the Republic of Latvia and an official language of the European Union as well as to organize courses and seminars for teachers. Teacher's professionally competence courses and seminars includes content for development skills to integrate language and different subjects content, to teach grammar into the use of the language in correlation with the language functions in the process of communication. It gives enables to understand semiotical values, to learn not only language but culture heritage through emotional experience.

CONCLUSIONS

- The classes in Latvian language schools are becoming more and more
- linguistically heterogenic. Together with children coming from monolingual families there are studying both harmonic bilinguals and students who are just gradually becoming strong bilinguals. Between them there are also asymmetric bilinguals.
- As the results of the research show, the quality of learning process is affected
- by emotional stress which is associated with the student moving to a new cultural environment. Sometimes teachers are not convinced by the choice of learning/teaching methods or the usefulness of the work forms in the learning/teaching process, because the experience in pedagogic work is not



sufficient. In many cases a good cooperation with minority student's parents is not achieved mostly due to low Latvian language proficiency.

- As pupils frequently don't have knowledge about their own ethnic
- group's culture, they view Latvian traditions non-critically or do not understand them at all. Such a situation creates the threat of assimilation or an opposite thing – intolerant attitude towards Latvian culture. There are less problems with pupils who have attended a Latvian language pre-school institution, and who have a good family support in the process of learning the Latvian language and content of different subjects.
- Teachers need to acquire a new professional competence – how to work with
- ethnically and linguistically heterogenic classes.
- Especially important are problems of pedagogical nature. Teachers admit that
- they do not know the history of different ethnic groups, their traditions, and don't know their language to help the student if need be.
- Problems arise also from methodically unprepared teachers, the use of
- different text books and other study materials which are intended for majority students. It is important to take into account that minority students are learning Latvian as a second language not their native language as it is with majority students.
- In order to develop pupils' basic skills of the Latvian language, it is necessary
- to ensure a mutual link between different subject contents and the cooperation between teachers in its acquisition process.
- Taking into account the many different problems in the last few years The
- Latvian Language State Agency in cooperation with higher educational institutions, Ministry of Education and Science and local municipalities has created a system for further education of teachers and development of methodical and study materials etc.

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სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
პრობლემები და გამოწვევები
**Issues of State Language Teaching;
Problems and Challenges**



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Problems and Challenges of Teaching State Language in the Implementation Process of Multilingual Education

ABSTRACT

State Language and multilingual education are directly connected and complex issues. Looking back in the past of many former Soviet republics that have serious approach towards the implementation of the multilingual education, one can see that it has started with the improvement of the state language as a second language teaching. Making a next step towards the formation of the multilingual and multicultural education, the politicians, the society and educators have to be aware of the changes of language teaching and learning paradigm. The aims of the second language teaching cannot be simply transferred to multilingual education programme, on the other hand, the development of multilingual education has an effect on the second language teaching and learning. To correspond to the new demands, the aims of multilingual education put forward to the acquisition of the second language, it is evident that the teaching of the second (state) language should change.

Paper will summarize the most essential trends of the development of the second language, analyze what principles should guide design of appropriate set of instruments for state language teaching – learning to ensure that teaching will meet and contribute to the multilingual education process development, as well as share the examples of Latvia and Georgia.

The evidence is based on the theoretical foundations of the second language acquisition and experience working on the development of the Latvian language teaching in Latvia.

Background

Meeting the challenge of introducing Latvia to Georgian and international linguists in the most concise form possible, I approached the Latvian Institute web site. Which is the news that should be told others about Latvia? It is said that “Latvia is a comparatively small country in north-eastern Europe, whose present population is 2.2 million, inhabiting a land area of 65 thousand km². Latvia is one of the few countries whose population was larger 20 years ago, and even 100 years ago, than it is today. This is the effect of two world wars, deportations, emigration and a demographic crisis.” And it is emphasized that “as in many parts of Eastern Europe, so too in Latvia, **ethnic consciousness is very pronounced**, sometimes even predominating over national or religious consciousness.”

When adapting and analyzing the experience in Latvia it is important to keep in mind that state language acquisition for minorities has both pragmatic motives - it provides higher education and career opportunities, and a symbolic sense – loyalty to the country, respect towards the cultural heritage of home country. One of the requirements for obtaining Latvian citizenship is a certain level of State language proficiency.

Beside the commonly agreed learning achievements during the 15 years of bilingual education, public opinion on bilingual education and on the status of the Russian language schools are issues which still causes intense debates and parts Latvian society as it is not only an educational, but also one of the major ethno-political issues. The views particularly accentuate in pre-election atmosphere with appeal to national sentiments, bringing to front the educational issues of minorities, requiring extreme solutions as transition to national language as a language of instruction or state language status for the Russian language. According to bilingual education specialist Kristina Paulston, this context should be respected by every methodologist of bilingual education:

“...unless in some way we try to take into account the socio-historical, cultural, and economic-political factors which has lead to certain forms of bilingual education, we will never understand the consequences of this education”.

Insight into history of implementation of bilingual education in Latvia

After the regaining independence like in many former Soviet Republics the language policy and bilingual education have been discussed intensely. The first years after regaining independence can be described as a



period of national culture renewal. Pioneers in Latvian language text books were replaced by children in national costumes and stories about Latvian country life and ethnography. (Silova,1996).

After a period of rigid language policies in the former Soviet Republics, including Latvia, these republics are gradually becoming aware of the need for multicultural policies. Post-Soviet countries aspiring to join the European Union (EU), particularly the Baltic States – Estonia and Latvia, were „asked” to formulate minority policies in terms of Western values of pluralism, human rights, and tolerance, as well as cultural and linguistic diversity (Batelaan). Multilingual and multicultural education was prescribed as a tool for tackling the problem.

Nowadays, in Latvia education is provided in eight minority languages - Russian, Polish, Ukrainian, Belarusian, Lithuanian, Roma, Estonian, and Hebrew.

In school year 2010/2011, Latvian was the language of instruction in 724 schools, Russian – in 132 schools, but 81 schools had two sectors (Latvian and Russian). In 5 schools teaching process was conducted in Polish, in one school - in Ukrainian, in one school - Belarusian, and in one school in English. In one Estonian and one Lithuanian school and two Jewish schools some subjects were taught in minority languages. In two schools Roma language was presented as optional subject.

In State-funded universities lectures are held in Latvian, but in some private higher education establishments lectures take place in other languages as well. Every student has the opportunity to choose the educational institution regardless the language of instruction. Ministry of Science and Education is elaborating unified standards for subjects on primary and secondary educational level and national tests both in Latvian and minority languages, analyzing the learning outcomes. According to education program for minorities, students or schools can choose a minority language as a subject for centralized examinations of state.

The Education reform in minority schools of Latvia took place gradually, starting in 1995. Two different Russian and Latvian school systems, which were created during the Soviet period, continued to exist until the mid-nineties. In schools different curriculums were implemented and the books used in the classrooms varied in their content: in Russian schools Latvian language was included as the subject, but the teaching methods and learning outcomes were described as ineffective.

In 1992 the formation of Latvian national educational system started. The standards for all learning subjects were established, setting unified requirements for all Latvian schools, students and teachers regardless of the language of instruction, but the curriculum development and methodological approach was the professional choice of the teachers. Thus, part of the students gained knowledge and skills that did not correspond to the requirements and the level described in Latvian educational documents. One of the ways how to solve the existing situation was to provide the full-value Latvian language classes for students with different mother tongue.

In 1996, The Cabinet of Ministers approved the national programme, elaborated in 1995, with the main goal – "to facilitate the integration in the society by improving Latvian language skills among the inhabitants of Latvia". Initial goal for this Latvian language training programme was to ensure that in minority schools two subjects are taught in Latvian on primary level, but three on secondary level.

In school year 1996/1997, the Ministry of Education and Science (MES) established the task-force in order to develop an educational model for minorities suitable for Latvian circumstances. The task-force consisted of international experts, headmasters of minority schools, teachers and MES specialists, whose decisions were based on experience of other European countries in terms of how to implement the training programs for ethnic minorities.

In May 1998, the government approved the «National program for gradual transition to secondary education in state language» written by MES (for transition period until 2004). **In November 1998**, the Latvian Parliament issued the Law of Education, containing education programs for linguistic minorities, including bilingual education (BE) as a method. In secondary schools, which is not a compulsory education, the transition to national minority education programmes started in September 1995 and was completed by June 2007.

Starting from school year 1995/1996, in secondary schools three subjects had to be taught in Latvian, but starting from 2004/2005, in linguistic minority educational establishments run by state and municipalities, grades 10 to 12 are taught following the proportion: 60% of the curriculum is taught in Latvian, 40% - in mi-



minority languages. It was possible, and still is, to study subjects in Latvian, in minority language or bilingually (also within one learning subject).

From 2007 in educational establishments of ethnic minorities, the 12th grade students have done the national test materials in the Latvian language, while the students themselves may choose the implementation language for the test - Latvian or Russian. Thus, just starting with school year 2007/2008, the educational programs of ethnic minorities are fully implemented from grade 1 to 12.

Overall, the introduction of bilingual education in Latvia is a top-down example of implementation of educational reforms; perhaps therefore it is so attractive model and example for educational reforms in other post-soviet countries. Exclusion of minorities or only symbolic involvement in solving educational and social integration issues resulted in protests of national minority communities, which reached its climax in **2003**, when Political party For Human Rights in Independent Latvia and the newly created Russian school defence headquarters started to protest against the shift to secondary education «exclusively» in Latvian. As a result, in February 2004, the Law of Education was changed stating that 60% of education in minority secondary schools should be in Latvian, and the rest in the mother tongue.

To the question – why was educational reform for minorities necessary in Latvia, the official position of Latvian government is the following: With the new language law, the Latvian language skills became an essential part in both public and private sectors. It was necessary to create such education system which would provide equal opportunities in job and education market for graduates of both Latvian and ethnic minority schools. Bilingual education is an advantage for minority schools, because in these schools the Latvian language is not just one subject in the schedule, but it is part of all subjects that are taught in Latvian.

Second language acquisition research implications for second language teaching

Most second language acquisition theories can be observed in the Latvian as a second language teaching practice, in few cases it is the planned implementation of the theory in practice, but mostly these strategies were gotten somewhere and used fragmentary by the practitioners, unknowingly and not associating it with a certain theory or author. Especially typical in between 80s and 90s was that the ideas and methods came first, but the “names in profession” much later. This Latvian case is most likely common to the experiences of many parts of the former Soviet Union, but unique with respect to other parts of the world: theories and methods were not names, that is, to be more precise they entered and spread in Latvia in an adapted and localized (not to say plagiarised) form. For example, in the late 80s Latvian teachers were introduced to communicative approach which was associated with the Russian linguist J. Passov. An inner joke among Latvian methodologists later was that “Only after the fall of the “Iron Curtain” we found out that our authorities in EFL methods in reality were just good translators”. A similar problem in the following years was with European experts coming to Latvia in the framework of international projects (e.g. Tempus) who presented ideas, materials, handouts without context and references.

In the remainder of this paper I will discuss some second language research areas of immediate relevance for second language teaching in Latvia. The research areas that I will focus upon in this context are the following:

- Comparing and contrasting first and second language acquisition,
- Compliance of L2 as a subject teaching approach to multilingual education process,
- Reconceptualising culture teaching.

Comparing and Contrasting First and Second Language Acquisition

First and second language relationship is a fundamental issue of language acquisition. It was especially urgent to Latvian context due to state of asymmetric societal bilingualism - a common heritage of native Latvian speakers was an excellent command of Russian, but it did not work the other way around.

Like other second language teachers, I began my career in an environment where almost all students had one and the same first language – a big, prestige language, known also by the teachers. It caused the tempta-

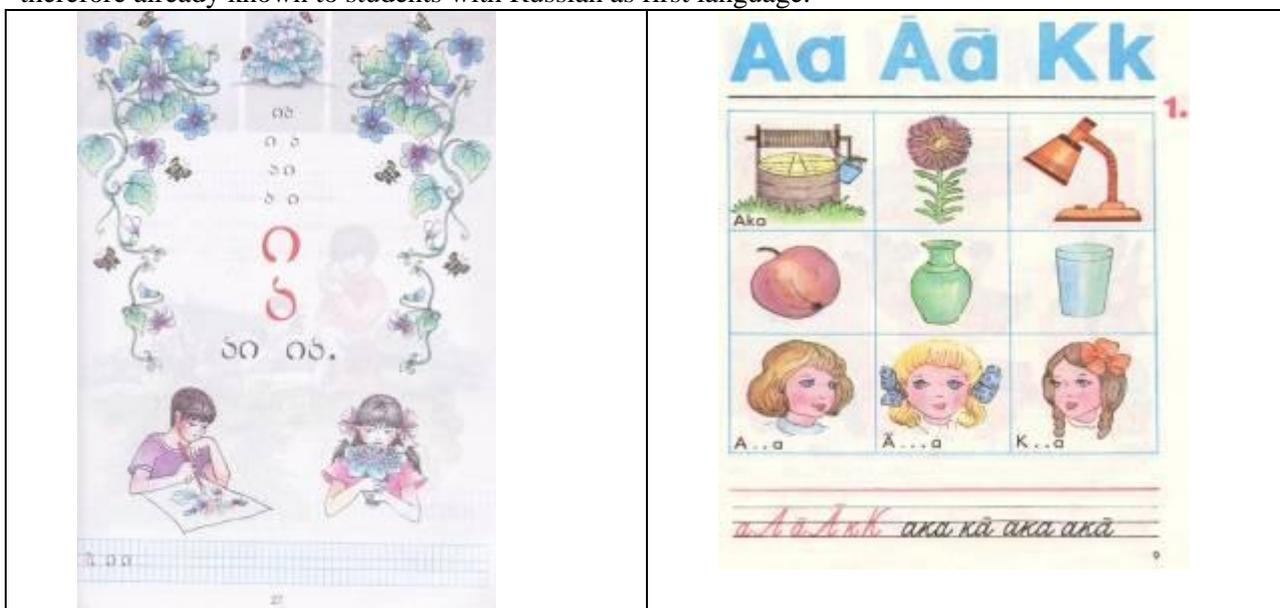
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tion – to develop curriculum and teaching – learning materials and organize the teaching based on the findings of contrastive analysis of the target languages. Even more, language comparison in the case of Latvia is historically deep rooted – the first Latvian grammar descriptions were developed by German linguists in German.

I would like to mention the ABC by Jakob Gogebashvili which is beloved by all Georgians. (Figure 1.) When I started learning Georgian and my teacher used this book to teach me letters I wondered why the book starts with the letters “a” and “i”. “Isn’t it exciting that after the first lesson student can read the sentence and understand the utterance” was the explanation. Even though this ABC was not very appropriate for my adult second language learner needs (and in fact was not meant for it) I would like to positively recognize the message received from the first page - we are learning language for functional reasons.

There is no so beloved ABC for Latvians. To find the most effective way of learning the alphabet during the years from 1945 to 1997 ten text books were developed. However, second language acquisition for decades was started with letters “k” and “a” (Figure 2). Why? These are the letters that are in the Slavic alphabet, therefore already known to students with Russian as first language.



Constructive analysis can be used on different levels – as a study course in teacher education programme, as a curriculum and text books structure, as well as in everyday teaching practice. In Latvia, language tests for years were based on typical errors, thus students “trained” by private tutors passed them exceptionally, creating an illusion of language competency. During the time when such tests became popular, second language learners were more successful and presented better results than first language speakers because they were trained purposefully.

A straight comparison to the first language hinders acquisition of target language as an independent system. An unnecessary battle occurs all the time whether “it is the same or different” in the first language. Error analysis is related to learning language as a system, that is, grammar – translation approach – to prevent errors language rules are explained explicitly. The prepared materials become useless in an environment with an audience that has a different first language.

This misleadingly effective temptation has been tried out also in Georgia (for experts I would like to remind, for example, teaching materials developed by L. Tushuria), even though a direct comparison of two languages in the multilingual Georgia has an even smaller target audience than in Latvia.

Markedness and error analysis concepts

Markedness is a specific kind of asymmetry relationship between elements of linguistic or conceptual structure. In a marked-unmarked relation, one term of an opposition is the broader, dominant one. The domi-



nant term is known as the 'unmarked' term and the other, secondary one is the 'marked' term. In linguistics, markedness ranges over phonological, grammatical, and semantic oppositions, defining them in terms of 'marked' and 'unmarked' oppositions like honest (unmarked) vs. dishonest (marked).

There is a dilemma in selection of learning content – to focus the teaching on marked or unmarked elements. Common sense/ functionality logic states that in the learning process it would be more effective to learn broader, dominant features.

However the tradition in language didactics inherited from the Soviet times is to pay attention to differences. What has stayed in mind from English lessons is that we learned irregular verbs (go - went) or irregular plural forms (mouse-mice).

The peculiarity of the Latvian language is long and short vowels. The *top activity* for many teaching materials and teachers is to teach word pairs that are different only by one letter, for example, *kazas – kāzas* (goats-weddings); *pile – pīle* (drop-duck). Teaching these pairs is not very productive, because such semantically diverse pairs are rarely used together, and their meaning can be grasped from context. When teaching explicitly the only result is that these words are marked as problematic in the learners mind.

The tendency to emphasize the marked elements is also supported by test makers, who try to determine where students lack knowledge instead of what they can do. It is easier to test exceptions, which are either known or not. Teachers who prepare students for tests concentrate on these exceptions (unfortunately pretty often only on these).

Other consequence – teachers like to control language output and avoid the error emergence and fossilisation later. Thus teachers control language input and restrict students' exposure to real, authentic language, where unpredictable exceptions and unconventional usage can be expected.

Interlanguage and Common Underlying Proficiency concepts

It was important for the teachers to be exposed to **interlanguage** concepts, as well as **Cummin's Common Underlying Proficiency** theory when beginning a purposeful and theoretically grounded teaching of Latvian as a second language,

An **interlanguage** is an emerging linguistic system that has been developed by a learner of a second language (or L2) who has not become fully proficient yet but is approximating the target language: preserving some features of their first language (or L1), or over generalizing target language rules in speaking or writing the target language and creating innovations. An interlanguage is based on the learners' experiences with the L2. It can fossilize, or cease developing, in any of its developmental stages. The interlanguage rules are claimed to be shaped by several factors, including: L1 transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning (e.g. simplification), strategies of L2 communication, and overgeneralization of the target language patterns (Selinker). We cannot say that there has been important interlanguage research done, but the point for teachers becoming acquainted with theory orientation to second language learner individualities.

Cummin's Common Underlying Proficiency theory was an important argument for advocating bilingual education. On the basis of the fact that bilingual program evaluation little relationship has been found between amount of instructional time through the majority language and academic achievement in that language, it has been suggested that L1 and L2 academic skills are interdependent, i.e., manifestations of a common underlying proficiency. The interdependence principle has been stated formally as follows (Cummins, 1981):

To the extent that instructional in L_x is effective in promoting proficiency in L_x, transfer of this proficiency L_y will occur provided there is adequate motivation to learn L_y.

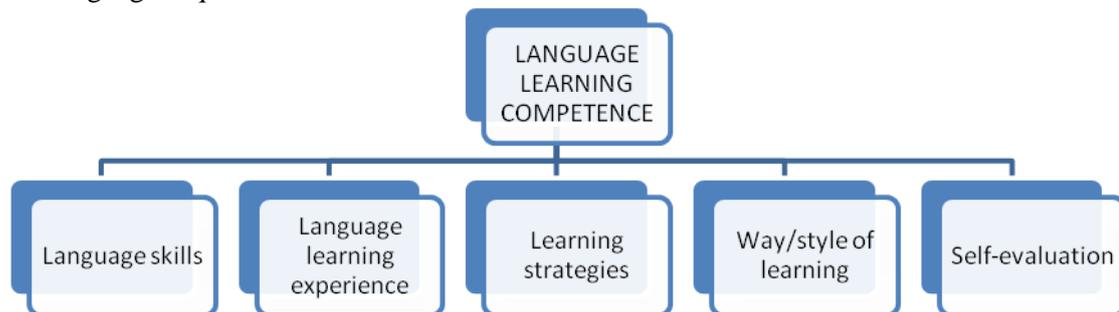
In precise terms this principle means is that in a Armenian – Georgian or Azeri – Georgian bilingual program, minority language instruction that develops L1 reading skills for minority language speaking students is not just developing minority language skills; it is also developing a deeper conceptual and linguistic proficiency that is strongly related to the development of Georgian literacy and general academic skills. In their words, although the surface aspects (e.g., pronunciation, fluency) of, for example, Armenian and Georgian or Azeri and Georgian are not clearly separate, there is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency that is common across languages. Transfer is more likely to occur from minority to majority language because of the greater exposure to literacy in the majority language and the strong social pressure to learn it.



Plurilingualism and plurilingual competence

In Europe today, 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. Plurilingualism concept has a close connection with language skill assessment and language teaching skill development. The Council of Europe has developed a general description of language levels. Joining this scheme allows to assess language skill according to an internationally understandable form (levels A,B,C), motivates to develop a united language education strategy, integrated language acquisition programmes and standards.

Developing Latvian language standard and program for minorities (2001) language learning competence and its role in language acquisition was defined.



During the acquisition of languages, students use the learning experience and skills of previously acquired languages: mother tongue skills – in the curricula for ethnic minorities, for the acquisition of Latvian language (as a second language) and foreign languages; mother tongue and second language skills – for the acquisition of foreign languages. The most essential requirements for the development of language learning competence are summarised in the table below.

Compliance of L2 as a subject teaching approach to multilingual education process

Another important aspect during the transition to the multilingual education system is the appropriateness of dominating second language teaching approach. Bilingual/ multilingual method is a new way to learn languages. The goal of traditional second language programmes is the defined set of language skills. Language programme generally remains a clearly defined sequence for introducing new language skills in the classroom. New vocabulary, idioms, constructions and grammar are introduced in a more controlled manner.

Bilingual programmes, on the other hand, use the target language as the vehicle for instruction of other knowledge and skills. Hence mathematics, history or geography will be taught using the target language as the vehicle for instruction. The teacher uses all the language – vocabulary, idioms, constructions, that are appropriate and necessary to the delivery of the content. The student is engaged in learning both language and content/skills simultaneously.

In this respect, bilingual programmes are modelled more closely to the first language learning. Young children acquire their native language through a natural process of communication with parents and caregivers rather than through vocabulary lists and grammar lessons. Early attempts at expression are generally only approximations of adult language but are met with praise and encouragement rather than criticism or correction.

Thus, bilingual programmes offer not only increased exposure to the new language, (i.e. more instructional time), but a different approach to language instruction. The communication of ideas/concepts becomes the key. The target language is used to communicate new content or new skills. Students are encouraged to respond using the new language. Consequently, students must apply their developing language skills to communicate about a broad range of topics related to the curriculum. Students are constantly engaged in an active process of trying to figure out how the language works.

After regaining independence the audio – lingual approach, a typical feature of which was – memorizing sentence models and dialogs, became popular in Latvia for a short period of time. It was quickly overtaken by the communicative approach, which concentrating at developing four language skills. Looking back, focusing



on developing four language skills was a hindering factor in the future transition to bilingual education. For many subject teachers it caused a resistance – both communicative approach and the four skills seemed to focus only on language teaching, thus neglecting the subject, which on its own has a very different methodology. Those are language activities, not thinking activities. In this case the Brumfit model and the functional approach would have been much more optimal.

Brumfit's model illustrates how the teacher can facilitate the process of a second language acquisition. According to Brumfit, second language instruction involves three stages: conversation, comprehension, and extended writing. Conversation develops a basic level of communicative proficiency; comprehension focuses on the understanding of oral and written texts; writing develops learner's ability to compose texts for public audiences. Brumfit deliberately ignores the traditional distinction between listening, speaking, reading, and writing; these interactive skills can be taught simultaneously when proper consideration is given to the students' developmental level. However, oral language is emphasized during introductory stages, and literacy becomes increasingly important during the later ones. The model is consistent with the well-known distinction between receptive and productive language; the oral or written texts produced by a particular individual are less complex and accurate than those he is able to understand. During the comprehension stage a student acquires knowledge appropriate for his age and grade level without engaging in formal writing. The linguistic and cognitive abilities he gains through reading and listening prepare him for advances academic tasks that acquire receptive as well as productive skills. During each stage, language interacts with cognition, and comprehension with production. Moreover oral and written language interact with each other; the phonological, syntactic and semantic rules that govern the system of the target language are applied by speakers as well as writers, and utilized by their audiences in order to understand the information they receive (Cantoni-Harvey).

Brumfit's model includes the teaching of communicative as well as academic skills. Since it integrates language with content, it seems particularly relevant to the multilingual education and subject and language integrated teaching. Even though Brumfit modelled the development of language acquisition in a horizontal dimension, it can be easily adapted to every lesson when observing – what students have to understand from the content, what they will learn in mutual communication, and what must they be able to express verbally or in writing.

Also the principles and elements of the direct and audio-lingual method, and the natural approach is a resource, which could be nicely used again teaching other subjects through Georgian.

The basic for the functional approach in Latvia was realized within the framework of the project, which was intended for developing basic school education standard and program for minorities. (2001). The goals for Latvian language as a subject standard were formulated in the bilingual education context.

“When implementing the curricula for ethnic minorities, a qualitatively new attitude develops towards the teaching – learning process of the Latvian language. The Latvian language in the schools for ethnic minorities is not only a subject, but also a means for acquiring other subjects. The language skills required both for everyday communication and the teaching – learning process can be developed in the course of learning the Latvian language. In addition, during the learning of other subjects students have the possibility to make use of and improve the skills acquired in Latvian language and literature lessons”.

In order to develop a theoretically justified and functional acquisition programme there was research and classification of **communicative functions** of language and exponents done in the beginning. In the research of communicative functions of the Latvian language, the classifications of the English linguist Halliday (1973), Van Ek and Trim *“Threshold Level 1990”* (1993) and Latvian *“Latviešu valodas prasmes līmenis”* (1997) were preserved, but components of each group were carefully adjusted to the system of the Latvian language. After assessing these variants, six basic functions of communicative systems were included in the Latvian language education program. They were adjusted according to the level of students' language development, knowledge and needs. They are the functions of *denomination, contact establishment, information exchange, expression of attitude and emotion, instructing and imagination.*

The project experts carefully planned their work in order to have all function groups represented at various stages of language learning. For this purpose it was necessary to examine grammar themes, speech topics and texts applied in textbooks for different age groups. On the whole, communicative functions embrace all



topics envisaged in the program, in this way providing students with language expression possibilities in interesting and useful spheres of life.

When transferring to bilingual education it is easy to associate the communicative functions and thinking skills and to keep such type of L2 teaching – learning program as a basis for the content and language integrated learning.

Reconceptualising culture teaching

It is obvious, that the teaching of culture is an integral, organized component of the every language teaching programme. Nevertheless, as it is formulated by Kenneth Chastain:

“Culture is one of the two major areas (the other being communication skills) in second language education in which the greatest need and the greatest potential for improvement exist”.

One of the major hurdles to the successful implementation of culture goals in language classes revolves around attitudes. This accounts for learners as well as teachers and those who are responsible for language content and teaching. For years, culture teaching typically looked like a monologue from a representative of one majority culture about particularity their own culture. The old approaches to the culture teaching were no longer adequate to society in which learners are not (should not?) treated as travellers, visitors but as equal citizens in the society. Culture teaching in a form of introducing visitors to majority culture should be replaced by learning to live together and celebrating cultural diversity.

New approach to teaching culture became visible in Latvian as second language text-books at the end of the 90s: by researching and including interesting age appropriate content. For the first time characters were not only called by typical Latvian names. Writing a text-book for Grade 6 the authors together with the Publishing house Zvaigzne ABC announced a competition for text-book design. Minority school students were asked to send in interesting photos on different themes such as “my friend as I had never seen before”. That way minority school children literally “came” into text-books with their life and interests.

In basic school education standard and program for minorities (2001) socio-cultural competence is defined as an understanding of cultural aspects in Latvia and intercultural dialogue, acquisition of literature and cooperation. When selecting literary works for reading in Latvian it was advised to have: 50% – works of Latvian authors and works that help develop an understanding of Latvian culture; 30% – literature in Latvian that meets students’ interests; 20% – texts that are appropriate to students’ individual needs in order to prepare for learning in the next stage of education.

The communicative, linguistic and socio-cultural competences are developed in an integrated way, gradually and consecutively, appropriate to the interests and needs of age groups, in the following thematic areas:

- myself, others, everyday life and relationships;
- myself, others, free time, healthy lifestyle;
- myself, others, surrounding world and mutual interaction;
- myself, others, science, technology and sources of information;
- myself, others, school and education;
- myself, others and cultural life.

Intercultural education became part of L2 teachers in service training programme. *Intercultural education, intercultural dialogue, tolerance, management of interethnic relations* are concepts of global education. It is interesting to examine which of these terms have become commonly used and dominating in Post – soviet countries’ discourse. In the Baltic States, the “intercultural dialogue” is more commonly used, in Middle Asia – “tolerance”. The author prefers the use of term intercultural dialogue because ‘tolerance’ is a principle, intercultural dialogue – a form. In order to substantially change the learning practice instead of just introducing new terms the learning environment as well as the form of interaction must be changed, which certainly is a transition to a dialogue.

All in all, I would like to conclude that second language teachers are facing a need of careful re-examination of classical ideas, preconceptions, methods and ways in language education for understanding its role and purposes in the multilingual education.



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By learning and accepting new concepts, teachers are looking for new resources for second language teaching. Linguists should respond to this request and should develop grammar descriptions for second language students. National Curriculum and Assessment Centre should develop an integrated language teaching curriculum (including minority language acquisition) and attainment targets should be internationally comparable, which would guarantee a frame of references for assessing language development. Teachers pre-service education and in-service training agencies should ensure that L1 teachers learn and use the same teaching methods as L2; and minority schools have a whole school language development approach, i.e., pupils language development is every teacher's responsibility not only the state language teacher's. If support is not given by experts in the field based on the internationally acknowledged solutions, then the missing places are filled with pseudo effective solutions. That is how in Latvia finances were wasted on developing different types of terminology dictionaries, in Georgia – translating school books.

Multilingual and multicultural society has become a state of fact, and the field of multilingual daily life is developing a little more each day. Multilingual education is an answer to the needs of multicultural society. An awareness of the second language acquisition process and the strategies that facilitate it provides the necessary foundations for dealing with such situations effectively. Once this importance of the second language teaching quality is acknowledged, commonly agreed and accepted not only by language specialists but by policymakers and society, I believe that the context for language learning will be much more positive.

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Aspects of General Education Evaluation in the Minority Schools of Latvia

ABSTRACT

Since October 2005, the State General Education Quality Evaluation Agency has been responsible for the comparisons of Latvia's education level to other European nations (the agency was established by a Cabinet of Ministers Regulation). Its basic task was to evaluate the quality of the operation of those schools which carry out licensed education programmes. In May 2009, through the collation of 723 (72%) general school operations quality evaluation results, a certain overall view was gained about the situation in education. The "positive" sides of the work were clarified (for example, professional teachers, a support system established at the school for the development of student personality), as were problems (for example, the shortage of modern resources, school work organization and leadership, a student learning achievement evaluation system) and the search and recommendation of solutions to them were found (including the review of the number of normative acts, then – the content). The quality of school operations in Latvia has been assessed as being similar to many places in Europe, for example, Scotland, Germany and Lithuania. Therefore, the data is comparable. Using the unified methodology, in evaluating 7 areas of a school's work (based on 20-22 criteria) at four levels, it can be inferred that Latvia's schools are good overall. The question though is – for how long? The period of regression already mentioned, including access to financial resources will also influence this overall assessment. Of the international measurements and research, the most popular currently is the OECD nations' "Programme for International Student Assessment" (*PISA 2006, 2009*) research, the results and conclusions of which also indicate that overall the achievements of Latvia's students can be considered as good, but process development provides evidence of certain signs of stagnation. The school operations quality evaluation process or accreditation is currently recognized by the community. A positive aspect is the clearly defined requirements (precise criteria) and method of evaluation. There has been a system in the area for at least five years. But the view also exists that accreditation, as it is interpreted currently, must be suspended. If by accreditation, we understand the monitoring of the work of educational institutions or quality surveillance, then I agree that it should exist, but it must be re-structured from its roots and, should possibly be completely different. And one of the foundation stones could be the data analysis of state testing, in order to be able to oversee the whole school process. In the same way, it will be necessary to create criteria, by which the monitoring of nurturing work can take place. The further goal of the research is, through an analysis of the existing education quality evaluation process in the nation, to develop criteria or to recommend an operations monitoring model for educational institutions, which would promote the improvement of the education process.

The words "Education quality" are characteristic key words in education systems throughout the world, which are closely connected with accessibility to education, education content, the period of the education's suitability and others. An example is the job market or even the requirements of the next step in education, as well as the education system's functioning as a whole. Article 112 of the Constitution of the Republic of Latvia prescribes the compulsory nature of the attainment of elementary education, and the guarantees of the attainment of elementary and secondary education can be interpreted as guarantees of the attainment of a quality education. (Constitution of the Republic of Latvia)

However, the concept of education quality, in practice, continues to be interpreted in many ways, especially emphasizing its specific character in connection with defined target groups – those to be educated and their parents, pedagogues, society and employers etc.

Along with this, questions continue to arise about the established education quality system and evaluation (accreditation) of education quality in the nation, as well as the education quality evaluation experience acquired up till now, the consistency of development and its problems. The analysis of this is also one of the wider research goals of the evaluation of general education which has been commenced.

The goal of the research is to analyze the existing general education quality evaluation process (accreditation) in the nation and to discuss the results of accreditation in the minority schools of Latvia.

There is no doubt that society noticeably influences the teaching process in educational institutions, basically demanding good defined education standards, which are also one of the foundations for putting up defined quality criteria and undertaking evaluation. We must guarantee that a graduate of any educational institution is prepared for life in this era, and that pedagogues are able to provide the required support in the



graduate's choice of path in their life. That's why it's necessary to develop a monitoring system which can evaluate the processes taking place in the educational institution.

The issues analyzed in the research affect the general education programme implementation quality evaluation processes in the nation, looking at the accumulated experience in the accreditation process from November 2005 until May 2009, as well as accreditation. The research methods used were an analysis of the available literature about the accreditation process in the nation, as well as the processing and collation of statistical data.

In the Ministry of Education and Science's *Education System Development Project* (2000-2004) done in cooperation with the World Bank, education system self-evaluation and external evaluation (education institution and programme accreditation and director attestations) criteria and methodology were developed. Methodological materials and organized courses for the training of external evaluators (experts) were also developed. In this way, from 2005, a new understanding of quality culture in education was introduced in the quality evaluation of general education in Latvia. This introduced a unified general education quality evaluation system for the country, which is similar to that in many other places in Europe, for example, Scotland, Germany and Lithuania, providing credible data for education policy analysis and development. (**Grinis E.** General Education Quality Evaluation // *Skolotājs* Journal – 2008. – No.1. – 40. – pg. 45)

In the period from October 2005 until May 2009, the State General Education Quality Evaluation Agency (SGEQUA) ensured the accreditation of 723 general education institutions on the basis of the education institution director attestation process having taken place. From the 1st July 2010, the SGEQUA functions were taken over by the State Education Quality Service.

The education institution accreditation process means the quality evaluation of educational institution operations in accordance with the *School Operations Quality Evaluation Methodology* (methodology) which has been developed and endorsed by the Ministry of Education and Science. This methodology is the result of the implementation of the wide ranging *Education System Development Project*, supported by the World Bank. The methodology provides for the following to be evaluated in the operations of educational institutions:

Accreditation was done in general and vocational education programmes and establishments. There were expert commissions (3-5 persons) established which evaluated every program. The term of accreditation is 6 years (2 years if there are some problems) for educational programmes. The most important activity today – the preparation of a new accreditation methodology (combining general and vocational education accreditation methodologies).

Aspects of School Performance and Evaluation Criteria

School evaluations take place in the key areas:

- of their performance, such as its quality
- of implementation of their education programmes and their quality
- of their management.

Aspects of a *school's performance* are evaluated covering seven key areas being:

- teaching content;
- teaching and learning;
- student achievements (without revealing an evaluation of the level);
- support for students;
- school environment;
- school resources;
- school work organization, leadership and quality assurance.

Each area is subdivided into *Quality Indicators*:

- school education programmes implemented,
- quality of teaching,
- quality of learning,
- evaluation as a component of the teaching process,
- collaboration with parents,
- support in the student's health care, psychological and social assistance area, ensuring safety,
- support for the development of personality,
- support in the choice of further education and choice of profession,
- providing support in learning work differentiation,



support for students with special needs if the school has a special education programme, and correspondingly provides support for students with special needs, school micro-climate, school physical environment, space, equipment and material-technical resources, financial resources, human resources, personnel management, personnel continuing education, self-evaluation of the school's work, school development plan, work of the school's leadership.

Each Quality Indicator is subdivided into *themes*.

There are a few core research questions: How effectively does a school work? What is the quality of teaching and learning processes and what are the achievements of students? What is the quality of the school management? These questions were answered according to a four level assessment system:

Level 4 – very good: mostly strengths prevail; major improvements not required

Level 3 – good: strengths prevail ; drawbacks – easily overcome

Level 2 – mediocre: a number of strengths, but some serious drawbacks; managerial support and additional resources required to improve the situation

Level 1 – unsatisfactory: drawbacks prevail
Immediate improvements required

The basic principles of the evaluation process are:

- The process has to assist a school to improve its achievements
- The evaluation process is planned on the basis of School Self- Evaluation and Development Planning.
- The same criteria are used in School Self -Evaluation and External Evaluation.

Some results from the Accreditation of Educational Establishments and Education Programmes in the 2009/2010 School Year:

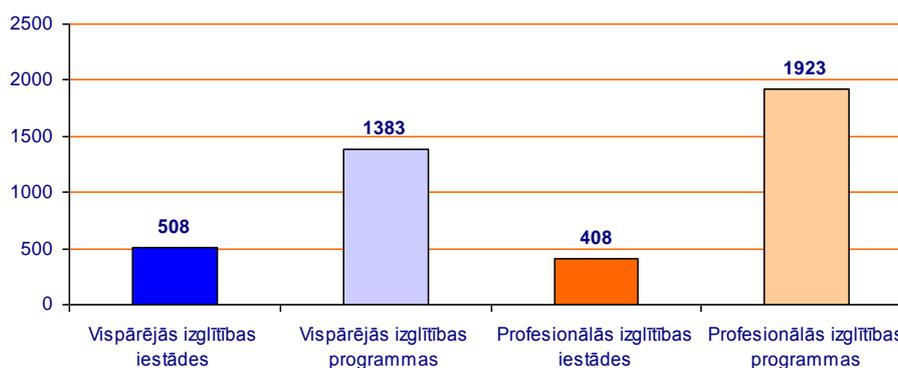
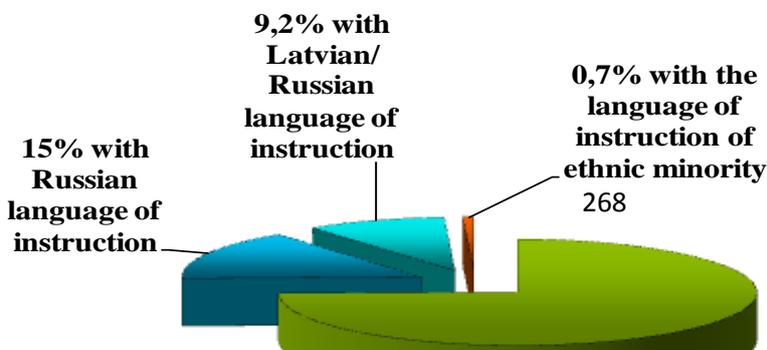


Diagram No 1. Accredited Educational Institutions and the number of programmes.

508 general educational establishments were accredited (incl. a change of accreditation pages); 1383 general education programmes were accredited (incl. a change of accreditation pages); 1 establishment – accreditation was rejected. 408 professional educational institutions and 1923 professional education programmes were accredited.





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Diagram No 2. Breakdown of General Education Institutions (in %) by Language of Instruction in the 2009/10 School Year.

State Contribution to the Education of Ethnic Minorities

1. In Latvia, general basic education and general secondary education is provided free of charge for pupils who study in education programmes provided for minorities (in Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Polish, Lithuanian, Estonian, Jewish and Romany languages)
2. In Latvia, a single state standard of general basic education and general secondary education is applied in all education programmes
3. Pupils are required to pass one state examination in each of Forms 3, 6 and 9 and a centralised examination in Form 12. Minority pupils have to additionally pass a state examination in the minority language and in literature
4. For minorities there is a bilingual learning process provided, as well as the opportunity to learn subjects in the minority language

Monitoring System for the Education of Ethnic Minorities

The evaluation system for the operations of educational (Accreditation) institutions is the same as for schools with Latvian language instruction. This accreditation is done by **the** Centre for Curriculum Development and Examinations (curricula, state tests, in-service teacher training) and these schools participate in various kinds of international research projects where different skills and the knowledge of pupils is measured. This research is guided by the University of Latvia (OECD, TIMSS, PIRLS, etc.).

The Results of Activities

High school graduates take centralized exams. Since 2007 pupils receive exam texts in Latvian, but can choose the language in which they wish to complete them, either in Latvian (marking L) or in Russian (marking K).

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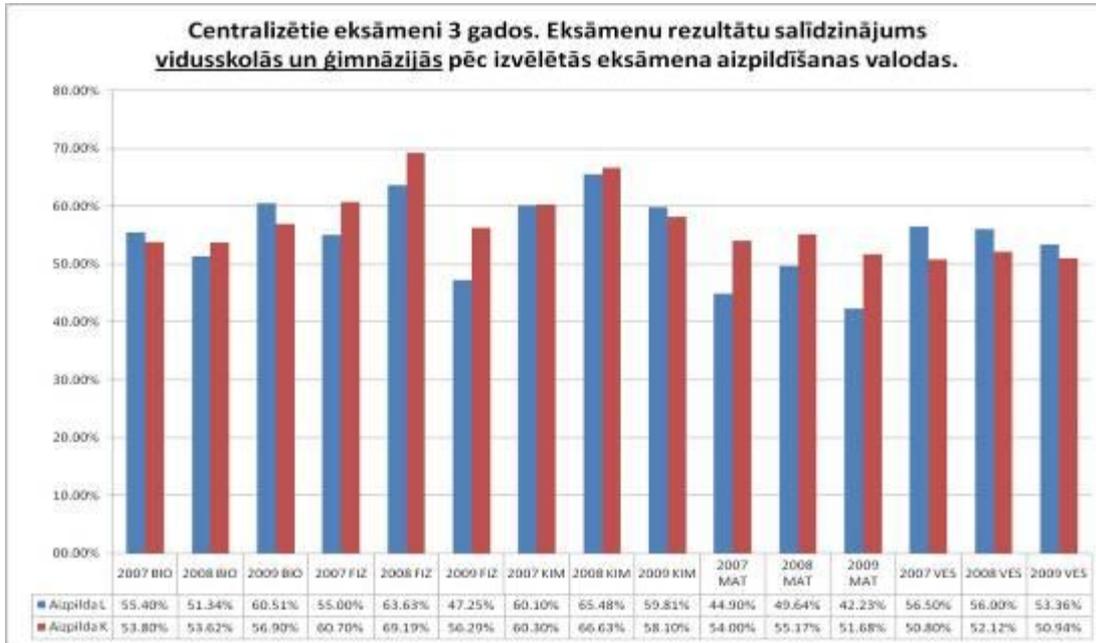


Diagram No 3. Centralized exams over 3 years. Comparison of the chosen language for completing exams.

Examination Results in Latvian

Centralized exam results are evaluated at six levels, of which F is the lowest, A- is the highest achievement.

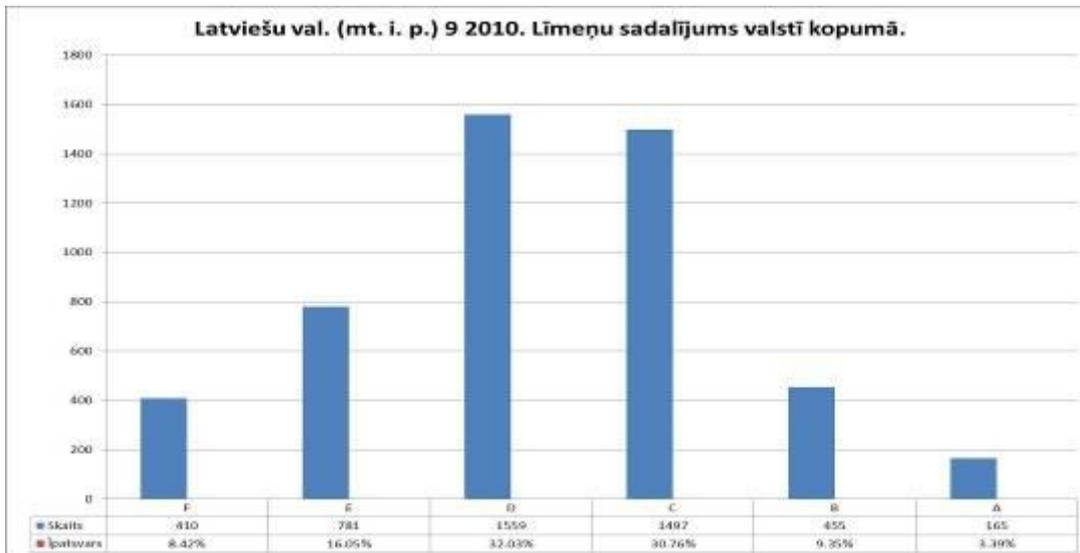


Diagram No 4. Basic education exam results in 2010 in the Latvian language in minority education programmes. (Form 9)

If we compare this diagram with the next, we can see that Latvian language skills have become better by Form 12, when compared to Form 9.

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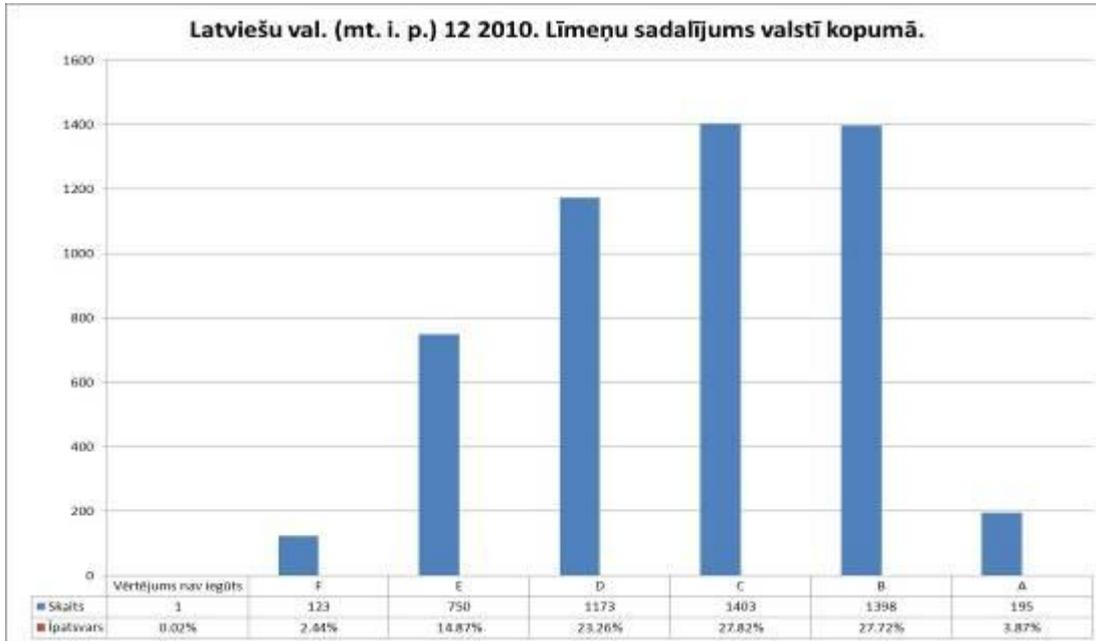


Diagram No 5. Latvian language centralized exam results in Form 12

In the school and education programme quality evaluation process, not only are exam results analyzed, but as previously mentioned, all of the school's 7 areas of operation are also evaluated and an assessment is given for them.

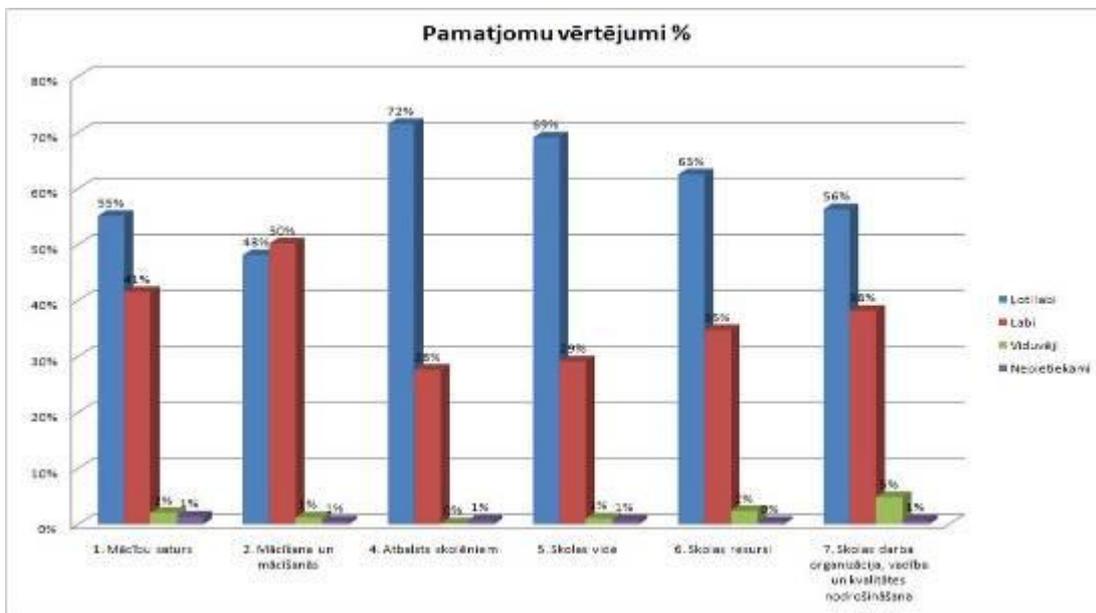


Diagram No 6. General Education (2009/2010) evaluation results for seven key areas (very good- blue, good- red, mediocre-green)

Evaluation Report of the Expert Commission

The results of accreditation for an educational establishment are summed up in the report of the Expert Commission.

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The information included in the report is based on the investigation of the documents of the educational establishments, observation of lessons, interviews with parents, students and teachers, results of questionnaires, as well as on the self-assessment of the educational establishment and analyses of the information included in the plan of its development.

The next diagram shows us how often different teaching subject lessons were observed within the process of accreditation:

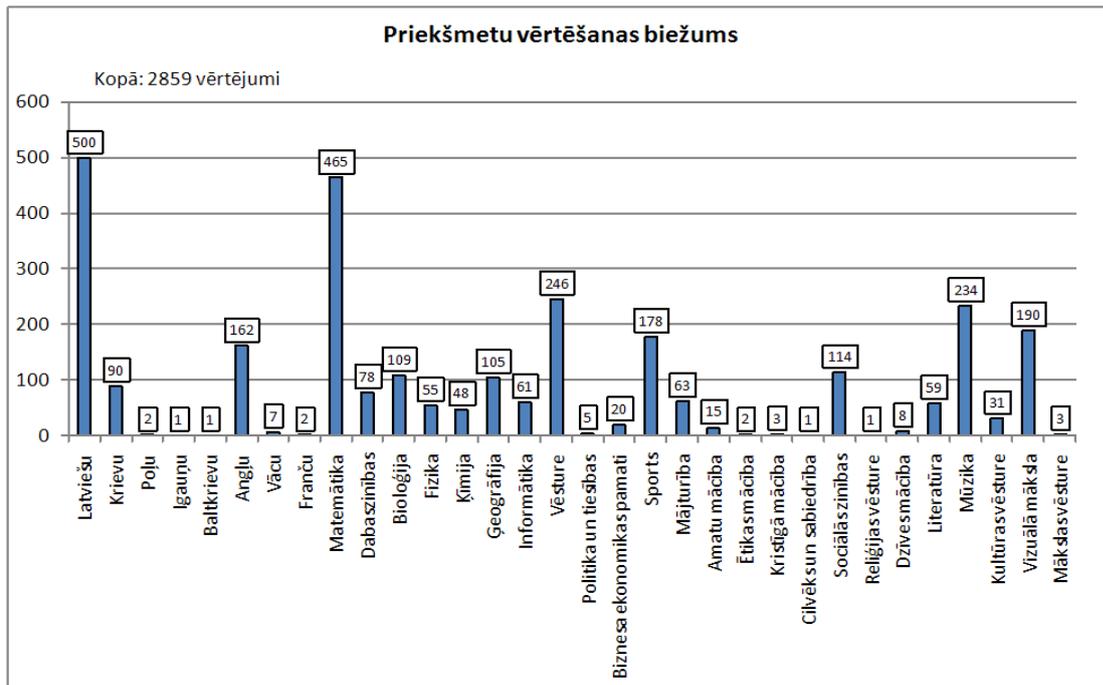


Diagram No 7. Frequency of Evaluation of Teaching Subjects

Every Evaluation Report has the same structure:

1. General information about the school performance evaluation process
2. General information about the school
3. Implementation of the recommendations of the previous external evaluation commission
4. Evaluation of the quality of school performance
5. Evaluation of the quality of teaching and learning on the basis of previously selected school subjects
6. **Summary Table – Quality indicators and their assessment by levels**
7. Strengths
8. **Recommendations for the improvement of school performance.**

In the summary from evaluation reports, it can be seen that most of the recommendations were in the field of teaching and learning, about recourses of schools and school management quality.

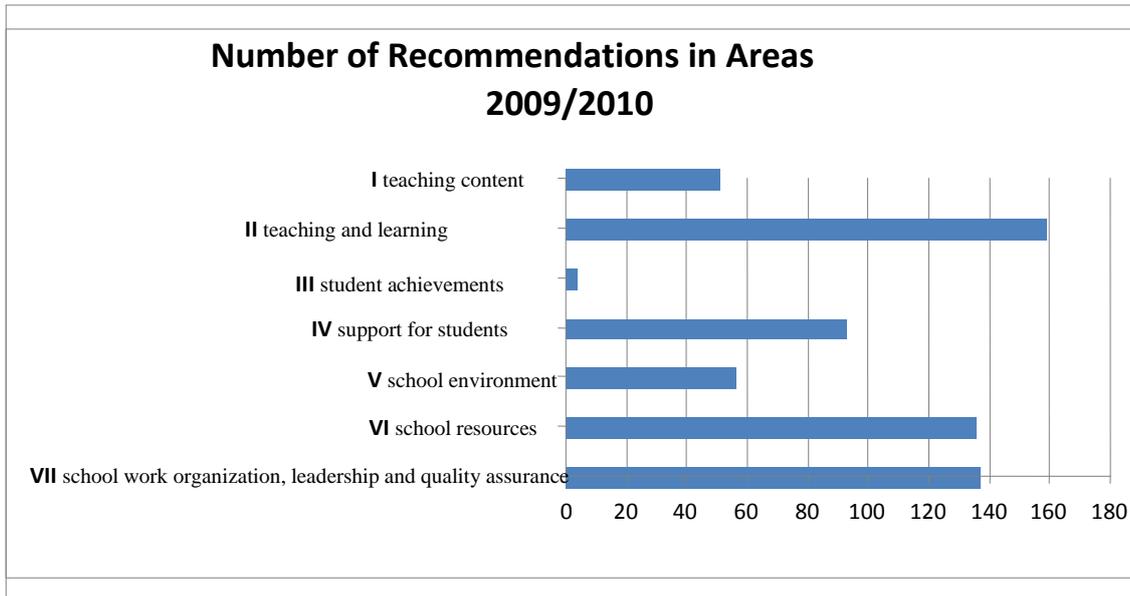


Diagram No. 8. Number of Recommendations in 7 areas of school operations in the 2009/2010 School Year.

The most difficulties arise in the criteria in the *Teaching and Learning* area: “evaluation of teaching and learning process” and “quality of teaching”

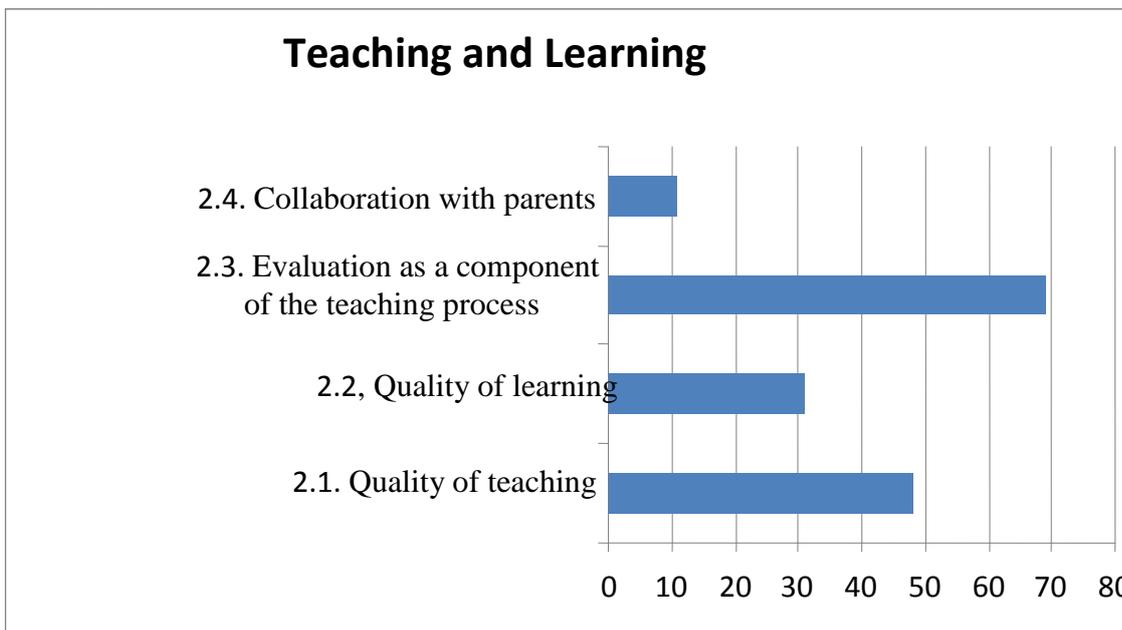


Diagram No 9. Recommendations in the Teaching and Learning area’s sub-criteria.

When accreditation reports were analyzed, the following questions arose:

- How to precisely measure the quality of general education? Indicators?
- What determines it?
- Are examinations the only indicator of the sound implementation of an education programme?
- Quality of education – a process or a result? Examinations – a result. Implementation – a process...
- The management of an educational establishment is closely connected with the quality of education.

The answers to these questions will provide further research in the field of assessment of general and minorities’ education.



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Arabic (Egyptian) Bilingualism and the Problem of Teaching

ABSTRACT

In the Arabic world, particularly in Egypt, the linguistic situation is diglossic. For part of the society it is bilingual; this is a layer of the society (educated society, as well as the student youth) which has an English education. The specificity (and complexity) of the situation is that for this part of Egyptian society native language is Egyptian Colloquial Arabic (Cairene speech – the standard variety of Egyptian dialect), not Literary Arabic which they start learn from the zero level as not native speakers (it seems that the school program is not enough).

The Arabic diglossia is the natural co-existence of literary and speaking forms of the language and shows its specificity as follows: on one hand we have a special diversity of dialects, on the other (literary Arabic) – two languages – Classical (fuṣṣā) and modern (standard). The first is only language of scholarship, the second has full function but its communicational capacity is very limited by dialects. Additional problem is that the literary standard language does not have its own graphical and orthographical system and when uses classical system can not/do not notes its peculiarities (Arabic alphabet is consonantal). Finally, on the place of Literary Arabic we have one graphical system i.e. one language in a graphical expression which has two representants. It is possible to say that there is some kind of heterography, when the same text (graphical language) can be read in two ways.

The above mentioned transfers the complexity on the level of bilingualism. The final result – not enough level of knowledge in literary Arabic – is reflected in the practice of teaching process. When at the universities (e.g. American University in Cairo) Literary Arabic is taught, course of the literary grammar is read on the permanent regime of interlingual code-switching when the basic communicational language is not Literary Arabic, but Egyptian Colloquial, and the object of code-switching is English. This situation is conditioned by various factors.

In the Arabic world, in general, namely, in Egypt, the linguistic situation is complex and as a rule is evaluated as diglossic. At the same time for a certain part of the population not only diglossia but also bilingualism is a reality.

According to Ferguson, diglossia is “a relatively stable linguistic situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation (C.A. Ferguson, 1971:16).

In case of diglossia we are dealing with a phenomenon when two linguistic forms are in a subordinated relation to one another. In case of Egypt and Arabic countries, in general, the high, prestigious variant of the language is Literary Arabic, whereas local dialects are forms of a comparatively lower status. “The linguistic situation in the Arabic world is evaluated as diglossic, but some authors (S. Kaye, 1994:47) regard that in fact there are “Many Arabics”, whereas the linguistic situation in the Arabic world in multiglossic. Such an approach to the question is indeed close to the real picture: in Cairo, one might say, the general linguistic situation does not go beyond diglossia, if we consider that here only two linguistic units oppose one another – the Cairo dialect and Literary Arabic. In the peripheries the situation is different: each village has its own local dialect, along with this, a great part of the population speaks the dialect widespread in the regional centre. Local residents have contacts with inhabitants of nearby villages, hence, speak their dialects. Their majority periodically arrive in Cairo on business and get acquainted with the Cairo speech as well. If such a village resident learns Literary Arabic (or even without learning it), we are dealing with poliglossia. However, this is not the ultimate example of linguistic



variety either. Along with territorial dialects and Literary Arabic, there is also a third linguistic conglomerate: the so-called Standard Arabic” (N.Ejibadze, 2010:22-23, in Georgian).

Along with this, it is of fundamental importance here that Literary Arabic, despite the fact that exactly it is the form of the high status, is not the native language of any Arab, it is never spoken during informal conversations.

At the time of bilingual situations there are two linguistic forms, often belonging to different linguistic spaces, having an equal status towards one another. In case of Egypt, in the diachrony of the last centuries, this was, on the one hand, Arabic and, on the other one, with respect to changes of historical realia, - Turkish, French, or at present, English. The history of Egypt has witnessed periods when the local population, already Arabicized for centuries, more precisely, its aristocratic part, did not even know Arabic, received an education e.g. in Turkish, and spoke Turkish. This fact posed a great problem at the time of communication between representatives of different social strata of the population, as its low, uneducated part (and such can be found abundantly in Egypt of the 21st c. as well) spoke only its native Egyptian dialect. The situation changed after the reforms of Muhammad Ali. Representatives of the high social stratum as well as talented youths of modest means were educated in Europe, mostly, in France, and later – in England. As a result, a new linguistic format penetrated into the Egyptian reality.

From the position of the present reality, it would not be exact to note that the situation in entire Egypt is bilingual. But for one stratum of the population the situation is indeed complex: on the one hand – bilingual, and on the other one – diglossic as well. This is the part of the population, which receives a European, according to the present-day situation, English-language education. As a result, a youth brought up in Egypt has a perfect command of English (and sometimes of other European languages), also speaks the Cairo vernacular (a certain standard variant of the Arabic dialect of Egypt), which in synthesis with one another results in a bilingual situation. On the one hand, these youths have to live in a diglossic society, where a factor defining diglossia is opposition of this dialect and Literary Arabic. Practice shows that the majority of these youths speak Literary Arabic very poorly, because this is the language which the Arab children study at school, and this part of the Egyptian youth studies at school European languages at a higher level than Arabic. They continue studies in European and American universities, and if these higher educational institutions are on the territory of Egypt, during the university years, they have to study Literary Arabic, which presents great problems for them. Those who speak with the status of the native language one form of the Arabic language – a dialect (in particular, mostly, the Cairo vernacular), practically are not familiar with the other form of Arabic – the literary language, and often start to study it from the beginning, in the same way as speakers of another language.

It should be taken into account that Arabic diglossia, being a natural co-existence of literary and spoken languages, manifests a specificity in the fact that if on the one hand there is a great number of dialects, on the other one (that of the literary language) there are two languages – classical (fuṣṣḥā) and modern (standard). The first is only a written language, and the other has the full function, but its communicative purpose is very restricted by the dialects. Another difficulty is that the literary standard-language does not have its own graphic and orthographic system and when it uses the classical one, it does not/cannot mark its own peculiarities (the Arabic alphabet is consonantal). Finally, in place of the literary language there is one graphic system, i.e. one language in the graphic expression, which has two representatives. One might say that we have certain heterography when one and the same text (graphic language) is read/deciphered in two ways. “In the graphic expression there exists only one language, not two. The standard-language is completely based on the classical graphic system (along with this, in principle – on the classical grammar as well, if we do not take into consideration some changes, not very difficult to describe). Hence, only the speech representation creates a fundamental difference between the classical and modern languages...” (A. Silagadze, 2010:8, in Georgian).

For working in the Arabic world, management of business correspondence, working with documentation, etc. it is necessary to know Literary Arabic, namely, grammar. How, with the help of which language do these youths study the grammar of the Literary Arabic language?

A characteristic phenomenon of any segment of the Arabic society is the so-called code switching, in which it is implied that during speech an Arab uses different forms of Arabic, from the dialect to Literary Arabic – different variants of language gradation, which depends on the change of the situation, the status of the thought to be expressed, the qualification of the relation with an interlocutor, and other parameters. In this regard, special studies were carried out even during public speeches of Presidents of Egypt. For example, in public speeches of Pres-



ident Nasser Literary Arabic was heard as “the language of abstract, idealized or metaphorical messages”, whereas as soon as he touched upon “topics associated with the specific, physical, strictly personalized”, he switched the speech code to the dialect (Encyclopedia of Arabic Language and Linguistics: 419) . This is a variant of the so-called code switching, which is an accompanying phenomenon of the speech of every Egyptian (and every Arab) and implies code switching inside one language – Arabic, between its different levels.

In the Arabic reality there is also another, bilingual variant of code switching, when code switching occurs from one language to another and vice versa.

The observation of the given part of the Egyptian youth demonstrates that they preferably resort to the second variant of code switching. This is the case, in particular, when these youths study Literary Arabic, its grammar. In the American University of Cairo lectures of grammar of the Literary Arabic language take place in the regime of permanent bilingualism. The Egyptian dialect (naturally, its standard variant, the so-called Cairo speech) is represented with the status of the basic spoken language, whereas the constant object of code switching is the English language. This has its own, not only sociolinguistic reasons.

A peculiarity of traditional – classical grammar is that as compared with modern, e.g. English grammatical terminology, some grammatical terms are less comfortable, which is manifested in the fact that the Classical Arabic variant does not correspond to only one specific, but at the same time to several concepts. For example, the Arab grammarians denote by the word *ḥarf* “a sound, letter, consonant, particle”; by the word *maḥall* - “case, syntactic status of a word”; by the word *wazn* – “a model/pattern, paradigm”, in versification – “meter of the verse form”, it is also used as a musical term in Arabic music, etc. On the other hand, 100% of the students have a perfect command of English, a language in which one, quite definite term corresponds to each of these concepts, which avoids any ambiguity. The situation becomes complicated with regard to the dialect, which does not and must not have linguistic terminology. Thereby the reason, time, place of code switching is defined.

Another reason is that as compared with Arabic Arabistics proper, Western Arabistics has a simplified approach to the Arabic grammar, which is more acceptable and easy to understand for persons of Western education, than the traditional Arabic approach. E.g. in the Arabic-language grammar there is not a special term to denote the word “form” (a very significant category of Arabic morphology, derivation) (the word *wazn* is used, which has a quite general meaning and implies any word model). Here too the reason of code switching and reasonability of shifting to concretized English lexemes are defined naturally.

One more reason may be the greater extent of economy of the second language (modern English) in some cases as compared with Arabic, e.g. in Arabic one concept is expressed by a definition having a comparatively complex syntactic construction, whereas in the other language it is conveyed by a single lexeme: *’iddigām(u) ḥarfayin(i) l-’illa(ti)* for the term “diphthong”, etc. This phenomenon is frequent in Arabic in cases when Arabic resorts to its own resources in order to render certain concepts, describes the meaning of a concept (as in case of “diphthong”), or translates the foreign title of a comparatively new concept.

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Bilingual Education for Ethnic Minorities in Georgia

ABSTRACT

The Article describes the necessity of study of the official language in Georgia and bilingual education as one of the facilities of study of the Georgian language. The issue has become most actual recently whereby the Georgian Government has started implementation of several significant projects in line of the multilingual education. The article represents the results of the research performed in 40 pilot schools in Georgia where the multilingual education has been put into effect. The goal of the research is to detect the preventive factors existing in the process of implementation of the bi-/multilingual programs, which impede their effective implementation. The object of the research is 23 randomly sampled pilot non-Georgian speaking schools where, based on the results of the expert assessment and quantitative research, have been detected the preventive factors and facts (the non-Georgian surrounding, low qualification of teachers both from the aspect of knowledge of the official language and from the aspect of the bilingual teaching methods, lack of methodical and educational materials etc.) which strongly interfere with the multilingual education process.

INTRODUCTION

In consequence of the multiethnicity of Georgia the need in communication in more than one language has been always on the agenda (The Language Policy and Education in Multilingual Community, 2000). Currently, the need in and demand for learning of the second language has been increasing day after day that first of all depends on the political course of the country and the requirements towards the society. In the recent years one of the trends of the national policy in Georgia like in other multiethnic countries has been promotion of the study of the official language for the representatives of minorities parallel with the preservation and development of their mother language, culture and traditions. Integration of the minorities is significant in order to prevent the ethnic confrontation, the precedents of which have become more frequent not only in our country but in many developed or developing countries worldwide especially in the last period.

The process of socialization of ethnic minorities will be not effective only through implementation of the multilingual education programs though the education is one the directions of top priority and top significance for the civil integration and improvement of knowledge of official language. This is demonstrated by the reforms implemented by the government in the last years in line of the general and higher education, the policy of preferences for the minorities entering institutes of higher education and so on (The UN Association of Georgia, 2010).

According to the 2002 data, the share of minorities in Georgia makes up 16% (the territories of the Abkhazia Autonomous Republic and former South Ossetian Autonomous District are not covered). (The First Report on Protection of National Minorities of Georgia, 2007). After the Georgians the largest ethnolinguistic group is represented by the Azeris (6.5%) who compactly inhabit the Kvemo Kartli Region, namely: Marneuli, Gardabani, Dmanisi, Tsalka, Tetrtskaro, Rustavi etc. The other large group is represented by the Armenians (5.7%) who are mainly settled in Samthkhe-Javakheti Region, namely in Akhalkalaki and Ninonstinda districts where their population exceeds 95% and in Akhaltsikhe where the share of the Armenian population makes up 36%. The compact residences of Azeris and Armenians are also in Tbilisi together with various small ethnic groups.

Depending on the existing demographical situation the education and development of the minorities is one of the top priorities of the government in the peaceful development process. In spite of the significance of this issue the problem of their education has remained unsolved for many years that has been resulted in the



low index of their integration and current alarming situation as at schools of general and higher education so in the non-Georgian speaking communities in general. The low level of knowledge of the official language among the non-Georgian-speakers, the informational vacuum, civil isolation and low quality of involvement in the united national space due to this lack of knowledge of the official language is most evident in the regions compactly inhabited with the non-Georgian-speakers where the interest and need in the study of the Georgian language is very low. The current alarming situation and estrangement due to the ignorance of the Georgian language is very detrimental for representatives of both national minorities and majority on the way of peaceful development (Cimera publication 2006).

The latest scheduled and implemented activities of the Georgian Government aimed at the promotion of education and integration of the non-Georgian-speaking population are serving facilitation of these problems and slackening of estrangement. One of the most important activities was the introduction of the bi-/multilingual education which has been step-by-step implemented in 40 non-Georgian-speaking schools selected nationwide (The UN Association of Georgia, 2010). The detection of the preventive and impeding factors existed in the process of multilingual education piloted in those schools and search of the ways for their elimination is the goal of our research.

The bilingual education implies teaching of academic subjects in the native and second languages simultaneously. The bilingual education is not a separate process and represents a part of the general education and socioeconomic and cultural policy. As Polstin (1992) notes, “If the effect of social, historical, cultural, economic and political factors on the bilingual education is not studied, we will not share the results of this type of the education”. (Baker, 2010). Therefore, it is very important to study the effect of those factors which determine the effectiveness of the bilingual education. If the bilingual education and programs are customized to the individual needs of the students where their age, surrounding, social status, national and cultural peculiarities, children physical and mental abilities are taken into consideration, the bilingual education will bring only positive results to schools (Baker, 2010).

The bilingual education in the article is considered in the context of ethnic minorities that implies the development of the skills and competencies determined by them in the curriculum both in the native and official languages thus promoting their integration in the Georgian community and preventing the threat of assimilation and anxiety of loss of the minority’s language and culture. Noteworthy is that the bilingual education is one but not the only facility, on the right and purposeful implementation of which the positive or negative outcomes depend. We may face both the positive and negative outcomes in case of wrong implementation of the programs. All innovations which are entering our everyday life and which are establishing as standards therein, require the thorough study, analysis, conscientious research and consideration of their results in the process of introduction of the innovation as well as the will and support of the government.

Based on the results of the performed qualitative and quantitative research we have detected some important factors, the consideration or ignorance of which determines the effect thereon. The surrounding where the concrete multilingual education model is introduced; taking into account the culture, traditions, mentality and other individual peculiarities of ethnical groups; the current sociopolitical environment in the country; sharing experience of other countries; analysis of individual needs of a concrete region and school, consideration of psychological and age peculiarities of children, adequate readiness of the logistic base – those are the factors which along with many other ones determine the successful implementation of the program.

Research in 40 pilot schools

The research was held in 23 out of 40 non-Georgian-speaking schools selected by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia where the multilingual education programs has been piloted since 2009. (The Statute of Multilingual Education Programs, 2010). The goal of the research is to reveal the preventive factors existing in the process of implementation of the bi-/multilingual programs which impede the effective implementation of the programs. Based on the set problem the methods of qualitative and quantitative study were selected as the method of research. Within the qualitative study were held two depth interviews with the multilingual education experts and for the quantitative study were randomly sampled the principals of 23 non-Georgian-speaking pilot schools that represents 58% of all such schools and enables to generalize the obtained result for all pilot schools.



Whereas the linguistic situation, problems in the bilingual education process and those related to the teaching of the official language differ in Tbilisi and regions with compactly inhabited non-Georgian-speaking population, for the evident result we have sampled as the target-group the principals of 6 Tbilisi schools (26%) and 17 schools (74%) of the compactly inhabited regions. The school principals were selected for the target-group of the research as they are directly involved in the piloting process and obtain the information about the linguistic and educational situation in the school as well as about the attitude of the community and society towards the bilingual education in general.

Within the qualitative research was made the interview with the Latvian expert of the High Commissioner on National Minorities of the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE/HCHM) Ms. Ligita Grigule. Her experience of many years was very useful for us in line of the interesting and reliable information especially at the first stage of the research. We have also held the interview with the multilingual education expert Mr. Davit Zatiashvili which has been working on this issue since 2010 as the representative of the National Curriculum and Assessment Center and is directly involved in the process of perfection and approval of the multilingual education application forms filed by schools and holds the information about what threats and contradictions exist in the process of piloting of the programs. For the research we have used the questionnaire intended for the half-structured interview which has provided maximum information at the expense of minimum time and resources especially at the initial stage of the research. The data were gathered in frames of the depth interview round several important problems based on the results of which the structured questionnaire for the quantitative research was created.

The important source of the secondary information for the research was the report “Bilingual Education in Georgia” (Grigule, Perrin, 2007 and DEDZE2007) where the analysis of activities in line of the multilingual education implemented in Georgia until 2007 is provided. The information obtained from the multilingual education application forms filed by the schools was also very important from the aspect of data regarding each concrete school thereof. Based on the analysis of the secondary information and qualitative research was compiled the 44-item questionnaire designed for pilot school principals for gathering quantitative data. The questionnaire consists of three blocks: the first part contains eight questions of the inquiry form – general information about a respondent, region/city and ethnic groups in the school and so on. Twenty-five questions of the second block regarded the problems existing in the school from the aspect of the bilingual teaching. The respondents should give their answers according to the 4-score scale (1. Don’t agree at all; 2. Don’t agree; 3. Agree; 4. Totally agree). Eleven questions of the third block were aimed at obtaining information about the interest in the multilingual education programs in the schools and in the languages - throughout the region in general.

As a result of the research was checked out the hypothesis that the process of introduction of bilingual education faces many contradictions and problems that may be counterproductive if each problem is not thoroughly studied, analyzed and if the results thereof are not taken into account in the piloting process.

Research framework and reliability:

- As a result of testing of the questionnaire it was found out that a great part of open questions were left answerless by the majority of respondents. For this reason in the final version of the questionnaire all questions were closed. At the end of the questionnaire was allocated a place for the additional opinion which was ignored by 91.3% of the respondents or where they have fixed the opinion provided as the answer to the concrete question in the previous items.
- The principals often stated their own attitude to various matters but refused to record it (in kind of a video- or audio-material).
- The questionnaire was translated into the Russian language because the majority of principals do not know Georgian language;
- The electronic version of the questionnaire was made (in Georgian and Russian languages) which we intended to use as an alternative facility for the involvement of the majority of schools in the research. However, electronic format could be used only in Tbilisi schools because the Internet is not available in the schools of the region though the majority of schools have the computer classes.
- In process of quantitative research the percent of lost questionnaires or unanswered questions was insignificant;



- We have got the photo-material made in the schools, also the audiorecords of the interviews that ensures the reliability of the research.

Analysis of qualitative research:

Ligita Grigole: Latvian University, (OSCE/HCHM), multilingual education expert:

- There are total 149 schools in Georgia (though from 2011 the number of Russian schools is decreasing) where the teaching language is Russian (Tabatadze, 2010). As Ms. Grigule states, the majority of students of those schools are not ethnic Russians (Armenians, Azeris, Ossetians, Kurds, Georgians...) that creates a great problem in process of teaching of official language because for the students the learning of the official language is relegated to the background in the conditions of the teaching language (Russian) and study of one mandatory foreign language.

- The significant preventive factor is non-existence of the Georgian surrounding in the compactly inhabited areas;

- Low involvement of parents in the process or often negative attitude to the bilingual education, a reason of which may be the lack of awareness.

Davit Zatiashvili, multilingual education expert (since 2010 the representative of the National Curriculum and Assessment center):

The goal of bilingual education for the ethnic minorities residing in Georgia is not only to provide the adequate teaching of the official language but to ensure the learning of their native language at the academic level because the success in the second language to some extent is conditioned by the level of mastering of the native language.

According to the data of January 2011 only 17 application forms were considered and approved out of the application forms of 40 pilot schools.

The work for ensuring the training of teachers of academic subjects in the Georgian language is also in process. The following is planned: creation of guidebooks (in cooperation with foreign experts), conduct of intensive monitoring and research in some schools for elaboration of the appropriate teaching technologies; introduction of multilingual education in all non-Georgian-speaking schools financed by the government since the academic year 2011-2012. For the nearest future it is planned to make amendments in the General Education Law of Georgia, according to which the bilingual education (the official language + the native language) will be mandatory for all non-Georgian speaking schools in Georgia.

Based on the current analysis data there has been noted the significance of the social factors that implies the readiness of both majority and minorities to and public awareness of the bilingual education; what positive outcomes may its right implementation bring; what threats may occur in case of its wrong implementation; and in general, what is the significance of knowledge of the official language for minorities and so on.

Quantitative research analysis

As a result of elaboration of the questionnaire was revealed the positive attitude to the bilingual education from the side of respondents as well as the increased interest in and demand for the learning of the official language. The majority of schools before the piloting had had no experience in line of the bilingual teaching, though in some schools a few subjects were taught in the Georgian language only due to the absence of the desirable teacher. However, such teaching did not take into account the peculiarities of method of teaching in the second language, the communication between the teachers and students speaking different languages was a problem.

- 74% of the respondents have agreed that the need in the teaching of the official language in their regions really exists;

- Learning the official language through the bilingual education is considered as the significant ground for integration by 100% of the respondents. They explained that this was the reason of involvement of their schools in the process of piloting of the multilingual education;

- 34.8% of the polled school principals have had no experience in the bilingual teaching; only 26.1 % have participated in various projects. 47.7% have noted that in their schools they have teachers who have taken part in various trainings and who have got certain experience in the bilingual teaching which they are sharing with other teachers.



As a result of the quantitative research there have been marked some important preventive factors which interfere with the effective implementation of the multilingual education at schools:

- Low motivation of students – 52%;
- Low linguistic competence of students in the official language – 52.2%;
- The non-Georgian-speaking surrounding – 65.2% (especially for the compactly inhabited areas. The majority of those who have not agreed with this opinion were Tbilisi Kurds where the situation with the Georgian-speaking surrounding is much better).
 - Poorly trained teachers – 52.7%;
 - The low linguistic competence of teachers in the official language has been fixed only in 8.7 % cases;
 - Low motivation of teachers – 30.4%;
 - Lack of educational material – 82%.
- 43.5% of respondents agree in full or partially with the fact of unconformity of the educational material (difficulty) with the language competence of students, and the remained 56.5% who have not agreed with this opinion are mainly the Tbilisi school principals. They state that for the students of schools of the capital city the material is too easy that causes their indifference during the teaching process. Their language competence enables them to master much more complex and diversified material.
 - Low competence of teachers from the aspect of teaching of school subjects – 91.4%;
 - Low competence of teachers in the bilingual teaching methods – 100%.

In spite of the existing difficulties the school principals state that the majority of teachers (88.3%) have positively faced the novelty – introduction of the multilingual teaching at schools. As to the priority teaching language, 82.6% have noted that lately the interest in learning of the official language has increased. Noteworthy also is that in private conversation the majority of principals stated that after the held information briefings, meetings, workshops and other arrangements the bilingual education has not been already perceived by the non-Georgian-speaking population as a threat of their assimilation.

39.2% of pollees noted that a great part of non-Georgian-speaking students have got higher education abroad, mainly in their historical motherland because due to the lack of knowledge of the official language they could not enter the higher school in Georgia. However, the “preference policy” having been carried out in respect of the minorities has enabled them to enroll in the one-year preparation department at Georgian higher schools based on the results of one exam only (the general skills) passed in their native language. During the studies at that preparation department they are mastering the Georgian language (within 60 credits) for further studies. The reform has promoted the demand for learning of the official language at schools whereupon the number of those who wish to get the higher education in Georgia has increased significantly, as 81.4% respondents confirm.

In connection with the growth of prestige of the official language 52.2% of the polled schools applies the multilingual education program of support of the official language and 21.7% - the program of support of the native language.

52.2% of the pollees stated that the main language at schools is the Georgian language, the second place is held by the Armenian language (43.5%), then comes the Russian language (39.1%) and Azeri (30.4%). Noteworthy is that the majority of schools where the main language of teaching is Russian are using the mixed multilingual teaching model as for the major part of the students the Russian language is not native. At such schools the students of the mixed ethnolinguistic group are studying.

In Tbilisi and regions the priority languages have been distributed rather differently. This demonstrates once more how the surrounding and needs determine the prestige of a language. At Tbilisi schools the priority teaching languages are Georgian (50%) and Russian (50%) and at the regional schools – native (75%) and official language (17.6%).

Conclusion

As a result of the qualitative research there has been separated the problem of the Russian-speaking schools especially for those students for whom the Russian is the second language. The demand for Russian-speaking schools is a vestige of the Soviet period, the elimination of which requires great efforts and time. The demand for the Russian language in the compactly inhabited areas is also favored by the non-Georgian-



სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
 პრობლემები და გამოწვევები
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 Problems and Challenges**



speaking surrounding as the status of the Russian language as the language of communication has preserved in those regions since the Soviet period.

The low level of involvement of parents or their negative attitude is also a preventive factor separated as a result of the qualitative research which has not been proved with the outcomes of the quantitative research. The positive attitude of parents and the readiness for involvement in the official language teaching is a significant step forward.

Training and advancement of skills of teachers; preparation of diversified and student-oriented teaching materials and visual aids, public awareness in process of introduction of programs – those are the issues of top priority which match according to the results of the qualitative and quantitative research.

Surrounding

In compactly inhabited areas the non-Georgian-speaking surrounding negatively impact on the students and teachers both from the language teaching and integration aspect. In conditions of the non-Georgian-speaking surrounding the adequate learning of the Georgian language at school only is not possible, the more so as the process of teaching of the language at those schools is related to big problems. The problems of absence of the appropriate educational material and lack of high-skilled teachers along with the non-Georgian-speaking surrounding still makes the good mastering of the official language at schools impossible.

Absence of methodical and training material:

- Inconformity of textbooks with the language competence of students;
- Lack of visual aids and appropriate additional manuals;
- Absence of teachers' guidebooks.

Low skills of human resources:

- Low competence of teachers for the bilingual teaching;
- Inadequate knowledge of the official language;
- Lack of high-skilled teachers of school subjects.

Informational vacuum

- The significant problem is the belated provision of information to the minorities. For example, the news about the novelty at higher schools that has been taken place in Georgia since 2010 (the preference policy) has reached the compactly inhabited areas with a great delay.

- For teachers of those areas the information about the modern teaching technologies and other novelties is not available.

Positive outcomes gained as a result of the research:

- Naming the official language as the priority teaching language at schools that implies the increased interest and need in the learning of the official language.

- Significant growth of the parents' interest and involvement that shall be considered the important step forward.

- Positive attitude of teachers and wish of involvement in the multilingual education process;

- Growth of those who wish to get the higher education in the Georgian language in Georgia that in turn is very favorable for the employment of the non-Georgian-speaking population and their integration in the society after the long-term “expulsion”, the reason of which was just the lack of knowledge of the official language and minimum opportunity to get adequate education.

Discussion

In our époque all ways to the successful carrier pass through the bilingual education. It is hard to imagine the life in the world speaking a single language today and tomorrow. Therefore, the role and priority of bilingual education is increasing day after day both for the minorities and for majorities not only in Georgia but worldwide.

As it is seen from the conducted research, for the minorities the study of the official language by means of the bilingual education and their integration in the society is assessed positively by the majority of the respondents. However, the results of the analysis of the qualitative and quantitative research have proved our hypothesis that introduction of multilingual programs will be accompanied with many contradictions and pre-



ventive factors which interfere with the planned process, and disregarding of them is detrimental for positive results thereof.

Parallel with those many challenges which our country is facing now, such as the problems of Georgian public schools in general, the fact that many Georgian children are lacking possibility to get the adequate general and higher education due to the lack of funds, the proper attention shall be paid to the issue of education and integration of ethnic minorities in the process of the current educational reform. Their integration is of vital significance in the process of formation of the united powerful democratic society and country development. I think the education shall be of top priority and study of the official language shall be mandatory for all citizens of the country and the bilingual education is a way towards the set objective.

Recommendations:

The school administrators and education policy-makers shall do their best endeavors to plan and implement the program in due way as the basis of success is only the rightly planned and implemented reasonable steps. During this process the following main factors which have been separated as a result of the generalization and analysis of the research shall be taken into consideration. Those are:

- well-timed study and analysis of needs;
- carrying out intensive research and experiments before setting a novelty as a norm;
- well-timed training and advancement of skills of teachers;
- perfection of the bilingual teaching methods and public awareness;
- taking into consideration the national and cultural peculiarities as well as a respect for the culture and traditions of minorities within the planning of the academic process;
- taking into consideration the method of the second language;
- intensive monitoring of schools;
- creation of the diversified and interesting academic material customized for the linguistic abilities of students.

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Bilingualism Model in Mastering Georgian as a Second language

ABSTRACT

In order to overcome unilateralism and static of the above-mentioned model we (N. Imedadze. 1979, 1993) created a dynamic model where these two types of bilingualism are understood as two steps of a continuum. According to this model, differential characteristics of these two types of bilingualism should rely on real speech production rather than only on hypothetically implied semantic systems ratio. Real speech production is estimated in the aspect of existence/not existence of language interference and development of linguistic code. Thus, the above-mentioned typology can be viewed as a dynamic formation, where more or less autonomous functioning of language systems depends on subject's actual condition. The psychological mechanism of this phenomenon is formation of language "set" that will activate semantic and structural peculiarities characteristic for the language (D. Uznadze)

Formation the set for speaking second language implies two factors: subjective (need) and objective (situation). Subjective factor is created by existence of the relevant motivational base – integral or instrumental motives (Gardner, Lambert 1985, 2007), and the situation – by the communication with the second language bearer (e.g. teacher) or specific activities (entertainment, professional activities, etc).

Thus, formation of bilingualism is possible to understand as shifting from the compound, mixed type to the autonomous model. This depends on the quality of teaching. Teaching can accelerate formation of coordinated bilingualism, or vice versa, ineffective teaching can constantly leave a pupil in the state of a mixed type of bilingual, constantly making lexical, grammatical and phonetic errors.

The models of bilingualism created in the recent years take into account social-psychological factors based on what LaFromboise and Coleman (1993) identified five models: assimilation, acculturation, alternation, multicultural and mixed. We consider that alternation model is more realistic for non-Georgians living in Georgia as it does not imply hierarchical relation of cultures. Person alters own behavior, verbal behavior among them, according to the social context. For example native language is used for communications at home and the second, state language for professional and broader social interaction. Such people are less prone to social anxiety.

The data obtained by us in 2007-2008 (at Georgian schools with Armenian and Russian children) showed clear distribution according language situations, less language interference, positive emotional background and pride with the fact that they master two languages.

Child's language preference is mediated by the status of their communities and may become a valuable indicator of young people's future well-being and sense of long-term security in their cultural identity.

Broad definition of bilingualism implies having a skill to use two languages for communication (despite the level of mastery). In this aspect bilingualism is a result (intermediate or final) of the second language learning. In this context teaching of Georgian language as a second language to non-Georgians should be based on a specific model of bilingualism.

Classical dichotomic model of bilingualism distinguishes coordinated and compound types (Ervin-Osgood, 1954). In the first case two language systems function autonomously and in the second case – interdependence of language systems is revealed in semantic interference.

In order to overcome unilateralism and static of the above-mentioned model we (N. Imedadze. 1979, 1992) created a dynamic model where these two types of bilingualism are understood as two steps of a continuum. According to this model, differential characteristics of these two types of bilingualism should rely on



real speech production rather than only on hypothetically implied semantic systems ratio. Real speech production is estimated in the aspect of existence/not existence of language interference and development of linguistic code. Thus, the above-mentioned typology can be viewed as a dynamic formation, where more or less autonomous functioning of language systems depends on subject's actual condition. The psychological mechanism of this phenomenon is formation of language "set" that will activate semantic and structural peculiarities characteristic for the language (D. Uznadze)

Formation the set for speaking second language implies two factors: subjective (need) and objective (situation). Subjective factor is created by existence of the relevant motivational base – integral or instrumental motives (Gardner, Lambert 1972, 2007), and the situation – by the communication with the second language bearer (e.g. teacher) or specific activities (entertainment, professional activities, etc).

According to Albert and Obler (1978) notions of compound and coordinate may be difficult to define, but they serve to remind us that acquisition parameters may influence the way in which a second language is organized in later life. Age of acquisition and manner of acquisition must be considered as factors influencing mechanisms of bilingualism. It is likely that certain systems (e.g. phonological perception, deep semantics) will be compound for all bilinguals, while other systems (e.g. lexicon and syntax) will be coordinate to a greater or lesser extent. Ellen Bialystok (2006) proposes the model of second language learning which attempts to account for discrepancies both in individual achievement and achievement in different aspects of second language learning.

Thus, formation of bilingualism is possible to understand as shifting from the compound, mixed type to the autonomous model. This depends on the quality of teaching. Teaching can accelerate formation of coordinated bilingualism, or vice versa, ineffective teaching can constantly leave a pupil in the state of a mixed type of bilingual, constantly making lexical, grammatical and phonetic errors.

In the modern models of bilingualism the two types maintenance and transitional are distinguished (C Baker, 1993). The maintenance philosophy promotes developing, enriching the second language and as such promotes additive bilingualism. This process involves adding second language skills to a person's linguistic repertoire in a context where both the second language and culture are equally used. The transitional philosophy allows the development and strengthening of the home language so that it can serve as a vehicle for learning subject matter but the home language is deemphasized

The models of bilingualism created in the recent years take into account social-psychological factors based on what LaFromboise and Coleman (1993) identified five models: assimilation, acculturation, alternation, multicultural and mixed. We consider that alternation model which supposes that an individual can alter his or her behavior to fit a particular social context, is more realistic for non-Georgians living in Georgia as it does not imply hierarchical relation of cultures. Person alters own behavior, verbal behavior among them, according to the social context. For example native language is used for communications at home and the second, state language for professional and broader social interaction. Such people are less prone to social anxiety.

The data obtained by us in 2007-2008 (at Georgian schools with Armenian and Russian children) showed clear distribution according language situations, less language interference, positive emotional background and pride with the fact that they master two languages.

Child's language preference is mediated by the status of their communities and may become a valuable indicator of young people's future well-being and sense of long-term security in their cultural identity.



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The Factors influencing the Effectiveness of Bilingual Educational Programs; the Prospects of Pilot Bilingual Educational Programs in Georgia

ABSTRACT

Multilingual Education Programs Regulation was adopted and the implementation of bilingual educational reform started in Georgia in 2010. The article presents research results on readiness of non-Georgian schools to implement multilingual educational programs effectively. The research studied the important factors influencing the effectiveness of bilingual educational programs, specifically (a) Type of Program; (b) Human Resources of Schools and Teachers Professional Development; (c) Bilingual education as shared vision for all school stakeholders; (d) Community and parental involvement in designing and implementation of bilingual educational programs. The following research methods were used during the research: (a) Quantitative and qualitative content analysis of bilingual educational programs of 26 non-Georgian schools of Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe-Javakheti; (b) Quantitative survey of non-Georgian school principals through questionnaires; (c) Quantitative survey of non-Georgian schools' teachers of different subjective groups through questionnaire. The study revealed that schools are implementing mostly "weak" bilingual educational programs. The schools implementing bilingual educational programs do not have sufficient human resources, bilingual education is not a shared vision for all school stakeholders and parents and community are not actively involved in designing and implementation of the programs. The bilingual educational programs submitted by non-Georgian schools at The Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia are developed based on existing situation and does not react on needs for effectiveness of the program. The designed and implemented programs cannot achieve the goals of bilingual education.

INTRODUCTION

The research findings are mostly positive about the effects of bilingual education on children's language awareness and cognitive functioning (Bekerman, 2005). Skugtnabb-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-culturality 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 (Beckerman, 2005). There are several reasons for this controversy. The effectiveness of bilingual education is influenced by the type of the program, as well as by many other intervening factors.

There are several typology of bilingual education program. Colin Baker proposes the distinction between "strong" and weak" forms of bilingual education programs (2006). The "weak" programs mostly ignore the importance of student's native language and are the main reasons of academic underachievement of minority students (Cummins, 2000). There are several other important factors influencing the effectiveness of bilingual education. Human resources, shared vision of bilingual education by all stakeholder as well as parental and community involvement are the most crucial factors influencing the effectiveness of the bilingual education programs.

This article presents the research results on bilingual education programs in Georgia. The aim of the research was to investigate the readiness of non-Georgian schools to implement bilingual educational programs effectively. The first part of the articles describes typology of bilingual educational programs worldwide developed by Colin Baker based on Skutnabb-Kangas typology. Second part presents bilingual educational reform in Georgia.. Third part of the article analyses the important factors influencing the effectiveness of bilingual educational programs. The fourth part of article is devoted to the research methodology, research results and discussions and implications of research results.

The research studied the important factors influencing the effectiveness of bilingual educational programs, specifically (a) Type of Program; (b) Human Resources of Schools; (c) Bilingual education as shared

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vision for all school stakeholders; (d) Community and parental involvement in designing and implementation of bilingual educational programs. The following research methods were used during the research: (a) Quantitative and qualitative content analysis of bilingual educational programs of 26 non-Georgian schools of Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe-Javakheti; (b) Quantitative survey of non-Georgian school principals through questionnaires; (c) Quantitative survey of non-Georgian schools' teachers of different subjective groups through questionnaire. The study revealed that schools are implementing mostly “weak” bilingual educational programs. The schools implementing bilingual educational programs do not have sufficient human resources, bilingual education is not a shared vision for all school stakeholders and parents and community are not actively involved in designing and implementation of the programs. The bilingual educational programs submitted by non-Georgian schools at The Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia are developed based on existing situation and does not react on needs for effectiveness of the program. The designed and implemented programs cannot achieve the goals of bilingual education

Typology of Bilingual Educational Programs

Colin Baker proposes the distinction between “strong” and weak” forms of bilingual educational programs (2006). The ‘weak” programs mostly ignore the importance of student’s native language and are the main reasons of academic underachievement of minority students (Cummins, 2000). There are several other important factors influencing the effectiveness of bilingual education in terms of language learning, academic achievement and cognitive development (Cummins, 2000) Skutnabb-Kangas as well as other bilingual education researchers developed bilingual education programs typology based on worldwide experience. The 10 most widely used bilingual education programs are presented below from existed typology:

MONOLINGUAL FORMS OF EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALS				
Type of Programs	Typical Type of Child	Language of the Classroom	Societal and Educational Aim	Aim in Language Outcome
MAINSTREAMING / SUBMERSION (Structure d Immersion)	Language Majority Minority	Majority Language	Assimilation/ Subtractive	Monolingualism
MAINSTREAMING / SUBMERSION with Withdrawal Classes / Sheltered English / Content-based ESL	Language Majority Minority	Majority Language with “pull-out” L2 lesson	Assimilation/ Subtractive	Monolingualism
SEGREGATIONIST	Language Majority Minority	Majority Language (forced, no choice)	Apartheid	Monolingualism
WEAK FORMS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALS				
Type of Program	Typical Type of Child	Language of the Classroom	Societal and Educational Aim	Aim in Language Outcome
Transitional	Language Majority Minority	Moves from minority to majority language	Assimilation /Subtr active	Relative Monolingualism
MAINSTREAM with Foreign Language Teaching	Language Majority	Majority Language with L2/FL lessons	Limited Environment	Limited Bilingualism
SEPARATIST	Language Majority	Minority Language (out of choice)	Detachment/ Autonomy	Limited Bilingualism
STRONG FORMS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALISM AND BILITERACY				
Type of Program	Typical Type of Child	Language of the Classroom	Societal and Educational Aim	Aim in Language Outcome
IMMERSION	Language Majority Minority	Bilingual with initial emphasis on L2	Pluralism and Enrichment . Additive	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
MAINTENANCE /HERITAGE LANGUAGE	Language Majority Minority	Bilingual with emphasis on L1	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment. Additive	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
TWO WAY / DUAL LANGUAGE	Mixed Language Majority & Majority	Minority and Majority	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment. Additive	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
MAINSTREAM BILINGUAL	Language Majority	Two Majority Languages Pluralism	Maintenance, & Biliteracy and Enrichment. Additive	Bilingualism

Colin Baker “Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, Fourth Edition, 2006, pp 215-216



Submersion

The minority students are taught in majority language in submersion programs. The language of instruction is majority language. The classroom consists of minority students alongside the majority students, who are fluent speakers of majority language. The other type of submersion program is called structured immersion. The structured immersion program consists of only language minority students.

Submersion Program with Withdrawal Classes

This program is another type of submersion program. This program has several names in different countries, such as Mainstream Education with Pull –Out Classes, Mainstream Education with Withdrawal Classes, Sheltered English or Content Based Second Language. The minority students study in schools with majority language of instruction in this program; however, the students are withdrawn for “compensatory” lessons of mainstream language. There is another approach in this program as well. Minority students in mainstream schools may be withdrawn for additional classes conducted with simplified wording of content of various academic fields.

Segregationist Education

The segregationist education is the state policy, which implies “minority language only” education for minority students (Skutnab-Kangas, 2000). The graduates of this type of minority schools are not competitive in the labor market as well as do not have access to higher or vocational education. “Segregationist education occurs where minority language speakers access to those programs or schools attended by majority language speakers. Such separation can be through law (de jure) or practice (de facto)” (Baker, 2006, p 221). Mostly, this is a state policy. The aim of the policy is to have minority groups in subordinate situation and to prevent their social mobility.

Transitional Bilingual Education

The transitional bilingual education is one of the most frequently used types of bilingual education, especially in the United States (baker, 2006). The aim of transitional bilingual education is to increase the proportion of majority language of instruction in the classroom and decrease the use of minority language. The main aim of the program is to assist minority students in the process of second language acquisition. The knowledge of majority language will enable them to function effectively in majority language in mainstream society. However, the transitional bilingual educational programs mostly fail in terms of academic achievement of ethnic minority students.

There are two types of transitional bilingual educational programs: Early and late exit programs (Ramirez & Merino, 1990 in Baker, 2006). Early exit transitional bilingual educational program allows using minority language as language of instruction for 2 years. Late exit bilingual education program implies to conduct 40% of classes in minority languages until the sixth grade (Baker, 2006).

Mainstream Education with Foreign Language Teaching

This program is the regular mainstream education program. Students are majority language students. The language of instruction is the state/majority language. Foreign language is taught as separate subject. Foreign language is not used as a language of instruction in these programs. The most important problem of the program is that majority of the students are not able to become proficient in taught foreign language.

Separatist Education

The main goal of separatist education is monolingualism and monoculturalism in minority language. The separatist education is similar to segregation education programs with one significant difference. Segregation education is the state policy, while the separatist education is the choice of minority groups. The movement for separatist education was called secessionist movement by Schermerhorn. The aim of secessionist movement is “to detach itself from the language majority to pursue an independent existence” (baker, 2006, p. 224). The goal of separatist education can be protection of minority languages or to achieve political, economic and cultural autonomy.



Immersion Program

The students are linguistic majority students in immersion programs. The immersion program was developed first in Canada. There are two state languages in Canada. The immersion model was introduced as an experiment in Canada. The English language speaking parents took their children in school of experimental French language class. The language of instruction was only the French language and English was used as a language of instructions at a later stages.

There are several different programs under the immersion bilingual education program. The most popular and widespread program are Total Immersion and partial Immersion programs. The language of instruction is second language in total immersion programs for the first two years. The native language becomes language of instruction in 20% of subjects after 2 years and by the end of elementary school the proportion between second and first language of instruction is 50%/50%. The partial immersion programs have 50/50% proportion of language of instructions in first and second languages throughout infant and junior schooling (baker, 2006).

Maintenance/ Heritage Language Bilingual Education Program

The students of these schools are linguistic minority students. The minority language is used as language of instruction in these programs with the final aim of full bilingualism in minority and majority languages. The majority language is taught as a separate subject as well as is used as language of instruction in some subjects. The main precondition for effectiveness of the program is the majority language environment.

Dual Language Bilingual Education

Majority as well as minority languages are used as a language of instruction in Dual Language Bilingual Educational Programs. The classroom consists of almost equal number of majority and minority students. The goal of the program is to achieve bilingualism and biculturalism for both majority and minority students. The interaction between different ethnic group students is very important to develop intercultural sensitivity in students for this type of program.

The language distribution in classroom setting varies based on specific situation. One subject can be taught in minority language and other in majority or one day classes can be conducted in minority language and another day in majority language and so on. However, the language balance in these programs is always almost equal. It is important that two languages have equal status in the school as well as teachers and school administrators should be bilinguals themselves.

Bilingual Education in Majority Languages

Bilingual Education in Majority Languages occurs when two majority languages are used for the instruction. The main goal of these schools is to achieve bilingualism, biliteracy and promote cultural pluralism in students (Mejia, 2002 in Baker, 2006). This type of bilingual education program is mostly used in bilingual or multilingual states and societies.

Bilingual Educational Reform in Georgia

Multilingual Education Program Regulation was adopted by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia on August 20, 2010. The approval of the Regulations as well as formulation of the multilingual education programmes for Georgia particularly was the result of of considerable work done by local and international experts and organizations for at least 6- 8 years (Grigule, 2010). The several project and initiatives were implemented during this period, several models of bilingual education were developed and piloted, methodological and teaching materials were developed as well as local experts and trainers are trained (Grigule, 2010).

The various bilingual education programs were piloted and evaluated in the context of Georgia form 2006. The most important project “Multilingual Education Program” was implemented by international non-governmental organization from Switzerland “CIMERA” with financial support of Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe High Commissioner on national Minorities. The project was implemented during two academic years in 12 public schools of Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe-Javakheti regions of Georgia (Grigule, 2010). In 2008, the Ministry of Education and Science developed the ‘National Minority Integration



through Multilingual Education' document, basing on which, on March 31st of 2009, the Ministry of Education and Science approved the 'Multilingual Education Support Program'. The program achieved the following: (a) development of a regulation system for multilingual education, (b) in August-September of 2009, the members of the multilingual education work group of the Ministry were delivered 4 trainings with the support of the OSCE HCNM experts, (c) 10 local trainers were selected by the program, which were delivered the professional trainings by OSCE international experts, (d) OSCE experts delivered the training to the directors of 40 pilot schools, 30 personnel of education resource centers, and 64 accreditation experts (UNAG report, 2010).

The implemented project and activities, developed policy documents as well as prepared local human resources and accumulated experience enabled the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia to adopt regulations for bilingual education programs. The Regulations proposes the following six multilingual educational programs to public schools:

Developmental (enrichment) Multilingual Educational Program - subjects and subject groups provided by the national curriculum are taught equally on both state and national languages (50 to 50% or 40 to 60 %) and equally high language competence is achieved in both state and national languages. The program is similar to enrichment bilingual educational program proposed by Skutnabb-Kangas.

Transitional Multilingual Educational Program – study process is carried out on both state and native languages. Although, studies on state language is scaling up and step by step transition on state language takes place. The program is similar to enrichment bilingual educational program proposed by Skutnabb-Kangas. The program is referred as “weak” bilingual education program. However, the program can be effective in Georgian context in the regions of compact settlements of ethnic minorities. This issue will be discussed in depth in analytical part of the article.

Multilingual Educational Program to Support Native Language – subjects and subject areas determined by national curriculum are taught on state language. To teaching of native language is dedicated maximum hours and varying proportion of the curriculum being taught in the native language.

Multilingual Educational Program to Support State Language - subjects and subject groups provided by the national curriculum are taught on national language. State language is taught as a subject with maximum hourly demand and varying proportion of the curriculum being taught in the state language. The program is similar to heritage language bilingual educational program proposed by Skutnabb-Kangas. The program is referred as “strong” bilingual educational program in the typology. However, the program can be ineffective in Georgian context in the regions of compact settlements of ethnic minorities. This issue will be discussed in depth in analytical part of the article.

Dual Language Multilingual Educational Program - subjects and subject groups provided by the national curriculum are taught equally on both state and minority languages. Contingent of students is equally divided and represent the Georgian language students as well as non-Georgian language students. The program is similar to Dual Language Bilingual educational program proposed by Skutnabb-Kangas

Mixed Languages Multilingual Educational Program - study process starts on language, which in most cases is pupils' second language (Russian, for instance). After the initial development of literacy in the second language, 1) subjects on state language or 2) subjects on native and state language are introduced aiming at development of state language, mother-tongue and other languages necessity for pupils. This program is specific for Georgian context and implies the transformation of the Russian schools into bilingual/multilingual schools

The public schools can choose the program based on their need assessment, human resources as well as social environment. Public schools can develop their own multilingual education programs; however, the program should be approved by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia (Multilingual Education Programs Regulation, 2010)

The amendments and additions were adopted in the “Law on General Education” on December 15, 2010. The term “multilingual education” was officially written in the article two of the law with the following explanation: “Multilingual Education- Education, which aims at development of pupil's language competences in various languages. It implies the organization of the teaching process in educational system to improve the process of acquisition and effective usage of these languages” (Law of Georgia on General Education, 2005). The same amendments defined that National Centre for Curriculum and Assessment will be responsible for



implementation multilingual education in Georgia. The amendments changed the list on subjects of national curriculum, particularly; the subjects Georgian Language and Literature and Abkhazian Language and Literature were changed with subject State Language. The law defined that language of instruction of social science subjects would be only the state language in non-Georgian schools.

Based on the new initiative of the President of Georgia, the Ministry of Education and Science (MES) has started to implement a new program “Georgian Language for Future Success” in 2011. The goal of program is to implement such activities that will improve knowledge of state language among minorities. In the framework of the above mentioned program all activities will be focused on improving teaching/learning level of Georgian as, a second language. The following activities are planned in the framework of the program: (a) To establish new “language House” in Kvemo Kartli, Samtskhe-Javakheti and Kakheti regions and increase the efficiency of “Georgian Language Houses”; (b) To conduct teachers’ professional development programs for minority school teachers; (c) To implement multilingual educational programs in all non-Georgian schools; (d) To develop and elaborate Georgian, as a second language methodological and teaching materials; (e) To organize Summer camps; (f) To establish bilingual pre-school education centers; (g) To implement school student exchange programs Georgian and non-Georgian public schools; (h) To implement School partnership programs and other activities; (i) To select and send qualified Georgian language teachers in non-Georgian public schools; (j) To involve BA, MA and PhD students in the process of improving state language teaching process in non-Georgian schools of Georgia (MoES, 2011). The bilingual education is only one minor sub-component of this global and large-scale program and is considered in the context of improvement of State Language teaching in non-Georgian schools.

The factors influencing on effectiveness of Bilingual Education

Colin Baker in his textbook “Bilingual Education and Bilingualism” (2006) suggested to address the issue of effectiveness of bilingual education from four different perspectives. The suggestion came based on literature review and researches in the field. The issue of effectiveness of bilingual education can be discussed from the following perspectives: (a) individual student level; (b) particular classroom level; (c) school level; (d) type of bilingual program.

First, there is effectiveness at the level of the individual child. Within the same classroom, children may respond and perform differently. Second, there is effectiveness at the classroom level. Within the same classroom and type of bilingual educational program, classroom may vary considerably. Third, effectiveness is often analyzed at the school level. What makes some schools more effective than others even within the same type of bilingual education program and with similar student characteristics? Fourth, beyond the school level there can be aggregations of schools into different types of program (e.g. transitional compared with heritage language programs)... (Baker, 2006, pp 260-261)

The type of bilingual education program is seen as important factor influencing the program effectiveness. The previous chapter discussed the “strong” and “weak” forms of bilingual education. The research findings proved that “weak” forms of bilingual education programs are ineffective. The programs aimed at to ignore the importance of native language are main reason for minority student’s academic underachievement (Cummins, 2000). However, only the choice of “weak” or “strong” bilingual educational programs cannot guarantee effectiveness of the program. The other important factors influencing the effectiveness of bilingual program should be considered. The following factors are important for bilingual program effectiveness even for “strong” bilingual education programs: (a) Human Resources; (b) Shared vision, mission and goals by school administration and teachers on bilingual education; (c) Parental involvement in school life in general and in designing and implementation of bilingual educational program.

Human resources: Human resources are important factor for effectiveness of bilingual education (Varghese, 2004). The issue of human resources can be divided into components: (a) School leadership and administration; (b) teachers. The school leadership needs several important traits and knowledge to lead bilingual program effectively, particularly: (a) School principal should be instructional leader, should know curriculum approaches and language teaching methods and able to deliver the approaches to the teachers (Shaw, 2003 in baker, 2006); (b) School principals should be inspirational leaders. They should be able to develop bilingual education program and models, formulate the vision and mission of their school and develop strategic plan for



school; (c) School leaders should be effective administrators and managers, as the “Not only... inspire, motivate, support and communicate well with staff, they also identify, secure and mobilize human, financial and material resources (Montecel&Cortez, 2002, in Baker, 2006, p. 315).

The second important component of human resources is teachers and their professional development. Haworth *et al* (2004) pointed out that literature does not clearly determine the importance of teachers in developing young children’s bilingualism. This is explained by the dominance of Krashen’s (1981) theories, “which hold that fluency in another language is gained through a process of natural acquisition, rather than through conscious learning”. Chomsky pointed out that children can construct language only in the natural settings (Chomsky, 1965; Lenneberg, 1967) and thus it is critically important to engage children in play-based activities. The only person, who can create natural setting for students and engage them in play-based activities, is a teacher. Thus, teacher’s preparation and training is the most important component of bilingual education reform. As Varghese (2004) points out “The highly politicized and debated nature of bilingual educations serves a determining factor in the formation of the professional roles of bilingual teachers”. At the same time professional roles of bilingual education teachers are influenced by societal forces created by local context and their personal life and experience (Varghese, 2004.) Teacher without high qualification is important threat for effectiveness of bilingual education program. The bilingual education teachers should know modern teaching methods, should have positive attitudes toward bilingual education and minority students, and should be “pedagogue, linguist, innovator, intercultural communicator... (Benson, 2004, p. 207-8, in Baker, 2006, p. 314). The bilingual education teacher should conduct a lot of extracurricular activities, assure parental and community involvement in school and classroom life and at the same time should be bilingual and role model for students. It is very hard to meet all these standards.

Vision, Mission and Goals shared by school administration, teachers, parents and community It is crucially important, that schools have school mission toward bilingual education and strategic plan of school to achieve designed goals for the effectiveness of bilingual educational programs. The school mission, strategic plan and goals should be shared by school administrators, teachers, parents and community. It is utmost important that all stakeholders have positive attitudes toward bilingual education.

“*Parental involvement*” is the important component for success of such programs related ethnic minority education (Swail & Perna, 2000). On the one hand parents are important factors for successful implementation of bilingual education program as they can influence greatly political situation for bilingual education and ensure readiness of ethnic minority students to be involved in these programs (Tabatadze, 2008). The parent involved in designing and implementation of bilingual educational program can be the most effective mechanism for quality assurance in such programs. On the other hand parental education and involvement is part of a social capital, which is important for ethnic minorities for success not only in education, but also in the future life (Perna & Titus, 2005). In sum, the study of Perna and Titus (2005) revealed positive relation between the parent involvement as social capital and ethnic minority students educational achievements. Thus bilingual educational programs, which are able to involve parents in it, are a promising approach to addressing the problem of non achievement of ethnic minority students due to lack in State language proficiency (Tabatadze, 2008)

Research Methodology

The research aimed at to evaluate the readiness of non-Georgian schools to implement multilingual educational programs effectively. The research studied the important factors influencing the effectiveness of bilingual educational programs, specifically (a) Type of Program; (b) Human Resources of Schools and Teachers Professional Development; (c) Bilingual education as shared vision for all school stakeholders; (d) Community and parental involvement in designing and implementation of bilingual educational programs. The following research questions were studied: (1) What type of bilingual educational programs do non_Georgian schools of Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe-Javakheti regions implement to achieve high competences of their students in native and second languages, high academic achievements and to develop social skills sufficient for their social integration; (2) Are non-Georgian schools ready to implement effective bilingual education program? (3) Do they have sufficient human resources as well as shared vision toward bilingual education to



implement the programs effectively? (4) Are parents involved in designing and implementation of bilingual education programs?

Research Design

The mixed research method was employed during the research study. Thus, the research combined quantitative and qualitative research techniques and approaches. Particularly, two research methods were used; (a) Document content analysis; (b) Survey. The 26 applications of bilingual education programs from Kvemo Kartlis and Samtskhe-Javakheti regions submitted at the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia were studied during the document quantitative and qualitative content analysis. The survey for teachers and schools principals were conducted as well. 366 teachers and 155 schools principals of non-Georgian schools participated in the survey.

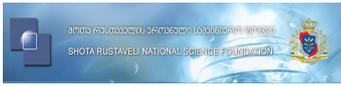
Opportunity of participation in the survey was offered to all the non-Georgian schools located in the target districts (Akhalkalaki, Ninotsminda, Tsalka, Akhaltsikhe, Marneuli, Bolnisi and Gardabani). By the time of the survey there were total of 216 non-Georgian schools across Georgia. Out of 216 schools 189 non-Georgian schools were located in the above-mentioned target regions (Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia, 2011). As part of the research, principals of all 189 non-Georgian schools received questionnaires. Out of all the schools, principals of 155 schools (82.01%) agreed to fill out the research questionnaire. High response rate and participation of more than 80 % of all the schools allows for the generalization of the research findings.

As part of the research separate questionnaires were sent to teachers of non-Georgian schools. According to the 2008 data of the National Center for Teacher Professional Development Center, there were total of 6541 teachers in all non-Georgian schools of Georgia. In the target districts the number of teacher amounted to 5 400 teachers (Tabatadze, 2008). For the purposes of teacher survey stratified sampling was applied. The sample was drawn from all the non-Georgian schools of the regions compactly resided by ethnic minorities – Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe-Javakheti. Specifically, sample was drawn from the teachers employed at the non-Georgian schools in Akhaltsikhe, Akhalkalaki, Ninotsminda, Tsalka, Marneuli, Bolnisi and Gardabani. The following stratification principles were used for the survey: (a) 20 % of all the village schools in each district participated in the survey; (b) Minimum one teacher of the following subject areas participated in the survey: (1) Primary level; (2) Math; (3) Natural Sciences; (4) Social Sciences; (5) Sport/ Physical Education and arts; (6) Foreign Languages.. Village schools were selected by random sampling. Every 5th village school participated in the survey.

The size of the sample was 366. The objective of the survey was to study how actively the teachers and parents are involved in the programs of multilingual education and what their attitudes are towards these programs. 7 % of the total number of the teachers in minority schools participated in the survey. Teachers participating in the survey represented all the districts of the regions compactly resided by ethnic minorities, both city and village schools of all the districts, teachers of all the subjects, as well as teachers representing all three levels of general education: primary, basic and secondary education. Schools were selected by mixed method. All the schools from the cities participated in the selection. Village schools were selected by random selection – every fourth school from the list participated in the survey. In sum teachers of 56 schools participated in the survey, which makes 30 % of all the minority schools in the district where research have been conducted.

Limitations of the Study

Most of the factors that define the level of effectiveness of the bilingual education programs were studied in the study. However, there are other important factors that affect the quality of the bilingual programs. Such factors are: social-economic status of the family, status of the language of instruction and its reputation among the local community, etc. Within this study, it was impossible to control all the factors mentioned. Therefore, such factors as social-economic status of the student's family and the status of the language of the instruction were not researched in this study. However, irrespective of the positive and negative influence above-mentioned factors may have, effectiveness of the bilingual program can be achieved if the school selects the "strong" program, has the qualified teaching and administrative staff, has well-articulated and widely shared mission and goals and ensures active involvement of the parents and community in the school life. These fac-



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**Issues of State Language Teaching;
 Problems and Challenges**



tors may not be the full guarantee of the effectiveness of the bilingual program; however they are necessary precondition of the success of the bilingual programs.

Findings of the Study

The study presents several noteworthy findings: (1) Most of the pilot schools implement so called “weak” bilingual education programs; (b) Schools do not have enough human and financial resources to implement bilingual education programs; (3) School administrations demonstrate no readiness to implement this kind of programs; (4) Bilingual education programs are seen as the ones imposed by the Ministry of Education and they are not reflected in the mission, goals and strategic plan of the school; (5) Bilingual education is not shared vision of the school community, parents and teachers of the schools; (6) Parent participation in the implementation of the bilingual education programs as well as in school life in general is very minimal. Below these findings will be described briefly.

Discussion/Recommendations

(a) Most of the pilot schools implement so called “weak” bilingual education programs;

There are several bilingual educational programs implemented in Georgia in pilot schools. The analysis of bilingual programs as well as analysis of language of instruction in non-Georgian schools revealed the following typology of bilingual educational programs in Georgia:

Bilingual Education Program Typology in Georgia

<p>Monolingual</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Submersion (Georgian Schools); - Prestigious-Immigrational (Russian schools with teaching state language as a subject; <p style="text-align: center;">„Weak“ Bilingual Educational Programs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Supporting State Language program Minority Language with teaching state language as a subject- “Weak” program in Georgian context due to demographic situation and language environment); - Transitional Programs (Can become “strong” program in Georgian context); - Mixed Programs; - Supporting Native Language Bilingual Program <p style="text-align: center;">“Strong“ Bilingual Educational Programs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dual Bilingual Educational Program; - Enrichment Programs;
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The submersion programs are really important and needs further research in Georgian context. The number of submersion programs as well as number of non-Georgian students is dramatically increased especially in Kvemo Kartli region (MoES, 2011 <http://mes.gov.ge/content.php?id=2831&lang=geo>). Submersion programs and their impact has not been empirically studied in Georgia. However, the practice and research in the world reveal negative outcomes of such programs. Submersion implies sending non-Georgian kids to the Georgian schools with the zero-competency of the Georgian language. Gvadaluppe Waldes (1998) draws on the research and points out that students in submersion programs do not develop such skills as critical thinking, questioning, collaborating. It also hinders the cognitive development of a child as the child’s competency in the language of learning is limited and it hinders his cognitive development as well. Research suggests that drop out rates are very high in schools with submersion programs (Waldes, 1998 in Baker, 2006). Qatasqvello and Rodriguez (2002) also emphasize the ineffectiveness of the submersion programs. Submersion programs are considered worldwide as extreme forms of bilingual education. It is important to conduct empirical research in Georgia and study the impact of the submersion programs. This will contribute to the development of the research in this field.



Nobody questions the inefficiency of the native language monolingual programs. Graduates of these such programs cannot integrate in Georgia's political, social, economic and cultural life (International Crisis Group, 2006; European Ethnic Minorities Center, 2003-2010; OSCE High Commissioner on Ethnic Minorities, 2002-2010). Introduction of the bilingual programs became the response to the urgent need of reforming such schools. Bilingual education is seen as an efficient strategy to improve the quality of education in the minority schools and help their graduates better to integrate in the Georgian society.

It should be mentioned that Georgia has another model of bilingual education. There are 14 Russian schools and 135 Russian-language sectors in Georgia with total of 28 260 students enrolled (3748 students in Russian schools and 24 512 students in Russian language sectors). Based on the year 2007 statistical data of the Ministry of Education of Georgia there are only 4732 ethnically Russian students in Georgia. This data suggests that Russian language is not a native language for the big part of the students of Russian schools. It is difficult to get the accurate number of such students as quite often in Georgia the first language spoken does not correspond with the ethnicity. For example, Russian is the native language for certain part of Armenian citizens of Georgia as their parents had received education in Russian and therefore the latter became the first language spoken in the family. Despite this peculiarity, the number of the students at Russian school with the native language other but Russian is quite high. This means that for the most of the students of the Russian schools the language of instruction is neither the native, or dominant language. This model can be defined as a "prestigious emigration model" (Tabatadze, 2010). This model contains three different problems: (a) Similar to the submersive programs, the language of instruction is different from the native language which as we discussed earlier has negative consequences; (b) Similar to the native language model, students get their education in the language different from the state one, which creates the problem of the integration of the graduates in the Georgian society; (c) Finally, this model of "prestigious emigration" leaves no other chance to the school graduates but to emigrate in the neighboring countries. This can be explained by the fact that the graduates of Russian schools have very low chances of integration into the Georgian Society, as well as the level of their competitiveness to succeed in their career is very low. Thus these schools educate the students who are competitive in foreign countries and not in Georgia and add to the already existing brain-drain from Georgia. Given only to this third problem, "emigration model" needs to be revised in order to minimize above-mentioned negative consequences.

Education research questions the effectiveness of the "weak" bilingual education programs too. Programs supporting the state and native languages will not be effective in Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe Javakheti as they have entirely non-Georgian environment outside the schools. Therefore other social agents (such as families, community, church, neighborhood, etc.) do not play the supporting role to the bilingual education and the school remains to be the only agent in this process. Hence, these "weak" bilingual programs have no enough capacity to make positive impact in the regions compactly resided by ethnic minorities. These regions have been purposely selected as the target of this research. 12 schools out of 26 target schools selected "weak" form of bilingual education program (9 schools in Samtskhe-Javakheti and 3 schools in Kvemo Kartli). Selection of the "weak" programs was explained by the limited teacher resources the schools have. Given to the circumstances outlined above, it can be hardly expected that these "weak" programs work effectively in the regions compactly resided by ethnic minorities. The same kind of programs can be defined as "strong" programs in Tbilisi as the environment is Georgian and therefore it may represent the analogy of the Heritage Language Support program as given in the Scutnab-Kanjas classification.

It is very interesting to analyze the so called "transitional" bilingual education program in the context of Georgia. Out of the 26 target schools 3 schools selected this "transitional" model (all three schools are located in Kvemo Kartli region only). As part of the "transitional" bilingual education programs, students learn the subjects in their native languages in the beginning years of the schooling and shift to the full-Georgian language instruction at a later stage. Such approach enables the schools to ensure the proper academic development of the students and smooth shift to the full-Georgian instruction after the language competency of the students in the native language is high enough. "Transitional" bilingual education programs are considered to be the "weak" programs in the US and Great Britain as they are believed to have little positive impact (Moreover, as a result of the evidenced ineffectiveness of the "transitional" bilingual education programs, no more public funding was allocated for their implementation. It was argued that "transitional" bilingual programs are ineffective for the following reasons: (a) For the full acquisition of the language and



smooth transition to the non-native language instruction students need much more time. Given to the insufficient amount of time allocated students suffer from academic problems at a later stage; (b) Minority languages have much lower status than majority languages which lowers the self-esteem of the students and hinders their academic progress and success; (c) majority of the teachers are monolingual and are competent only in the majority language. The success of these programs mainly depend on the existence of the bilingual teachers who can speak both majority and minority languages when needed; (d) Given to the quick shift to the majority-language instruction students remain at the low academic level in their native language as well. (Garcia, 1991, Evando et al, 2003, , Creese, 2004, Baker, 2006). These arguments are very powerful. However, it should be mentioned that the Georgian context significantly differs from the US and Great Britain due to the following reasons: (a) The status of the minority languages in Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe-Javakheti is quite high. Therefore students cannot be expected to develop low self-esteem or negative attitudes towards their mother tongue if they study in their native language; (b) Majority of the teachers in non-Georgian schools are monolingual, but in the minority rather than the majority language; (c) Both in Kvemo-Kartli and Samtskhe-Javakheti the social environment outside the school is fully non-Georgian. Having considered these differences it can be argued that given the proper planning and implementation, “transitional” bilingual programs can be very effective in the minority regions of Georgia. For effectiveness of the program transitional program should be implemented in primary as well as on basic school level and the entire shift to the state language can be done only on high school level. However, the human resources are important for transitional programs. The main aim of the schools implementing transitional model should be professional development of their teachers. Monolingual teachers should become bilinguals themselves.

Out of the 26 target schools 4 schools selected mixed bilingual education programs (3 schools in Samtskhe-Javakheti and 1 school in Kvemo Kartli). Previously the language of instruction was Russian in 3 schools, and Georgian – in 1 school. The case of the Georgian school is very interesting. This school selected mixed program, however, in practice this is a totally innovative program and can be defined as a “double-submersion” program for the minority students. Majority of the students in Akhalkalaki Georgian school are ethnically Georgians. Introduction of the bilingual (Russian-Georgian) program was seen as the instrument for attracting more ethnically Armenian students. Russian-Georgian Bilingual program puts the ethnic minority students under the “double-submersion”, as for the majority of the Armenian students neither Georgian nor Russian is the native language and accordingly start the schooling with the two languages of instruction they do not speak. Hence, it can be easily predicted how negative the impact of the “double-submersion” program is for Armenian students. Above-mentioned Russian-Georgian bilingual program at the Georgian school in Akhalkalaki can have different implications for the Georgian and Russian students. From their perspective, this program can be defined as a dual bilingual program.

In general, mixed bilingual education programs can possibly play important role in substituting Russian submersion and prestigious-migration programs. Nevertheless, the program contains certain risks mainly related to the multiple languages used in it. As it was mentioned, Russian is not the native language for some students. Therefore, the schools are facing three important tasks they have to accomplish: they have to ensure that Armenian students have opportunity to receive education in the native language in the beginning stage; they also have to ensure that students are learning the state language which is Georgian; and finally they have to fulfill the Russian-language component of the program. This complicated approach becomes even more challenging if we consider the new policy of the Ministry of Education and Science to strengthen the teaching of English language at the secondary schools. As a result of this policy, instruction of the English language will be starting from grade 1 in all the schools in Georgia, including the minority schools (National Curriculum 2011-2016, 2011). In this context proper planning and implementation of the school language policy is very important.

“Strong” bilingual education programs are the most effective ones, However, only introduction of such types of the programs cannot guarantee their success. Out of the 26 target schools only 7 schools selected the “strong” bilingual programs. Among these 7 programs 6 programs are formative ones, whereas the seventh one can be classified as a dual bilingual program. 6 of these programs were introduced in Kvemo-Kartli and 1 – in Samtskhe-Javakheti.

Dual bilingual education program is a very interesting one. This program implies that students to be taught are both representatives of majority and minority. Dual bilingual education programs are widely



spread across the world and work quite effectively. Given to the demographic composition of Georgia it is a matter of discussion whether dual programs can be effectively implemented in the regions compactly resided by ethnic minorities. It is more likely that such programs can be effectively implemented in cities like Akhaltsikhe, Rustavi and Tbilisi where the schools have both ethnically Georgian and non-Georgian students. Dual programs can be also implemented in the regions compactly resided by ethnic minorities. However, the scale of implementation can be very limited given to the demographic composition of these regions.

b) Lack of qualified human resources

The findings of this study suggest that in the beginning stage of the bilingual programs schools do not have adequate human resources. This problem was evident both based on the analysis of the existing bilingual programs and the survey of school principals and teachers. The same barrier is pointed out in other studies. The lack of qualified human resources can be broken down into two directions: (a) lack of the qualified teaching resources; (b) lack of the qualified school administrators.

There are several interesting findings related to the lack of the qualified teaching cadres: (a) Approximately 60 % of the Georgian language teachers do not demonstrate sufficient competency in the Georgian language. According to the results of the Georgian language testing held in 2010 by the National Curriculum and Assessment Center, 67 % of the teachers of the non-Georgian language schools do not know Georgian Language (Melikidze, 2010). The Georgian-language competency among the teachers is particularly problematic in the regions compactly resided by ethnic minorities: Marneuli, Akhalkalaki, Ninotsminda and Tsalka. 70-80 % of the teachers in these cities demonstrate the level 1 and 2 competency of the Georgian language (Center for Civic Integration and Inter-ethnic Relations, 2011); (b) Teachers demonstrate very low confidence in their ability to conduct bilingual instruction. 94 % of the subject teachers of the minority schools indicated that they do not know Georgian language and therefore are not able to teach in bilingual programs; (c) Apart from the barriers associated with the Georgian language competence, teachers of the minority schools have problems with the professional development in their subject areas. In the above-mentioned study only the primary, native language and Georgian language teachers responded positively on the question about the participation in the professional development programs. Rest of the teachers indicated that they do not participate in any kind of in-service professional development programs. The interesting findings were mentioned in UNAG report conducted in 2010 regarding teachers professional development programs and non-georgian schools teachers (UNAG, 2010); (1) Teachers of non-Georgian language schools have limited access to professional development programs. Providers of the professional development programs are not providing the programs in native languages (because of low human resource and low profitability), and the majority of teachers of non-Georgian language schools have poor knowledge of the state language. Respectively, teachers cannot participate in professional development programs, nor can register on certification tests. For example, from 54 teachers, registered for certification test in Akhalkalaki, only one foreign language teacher was ethnically non-Georgian, where the majority were the teachers from the Georgian language schools, or the Georgian language teachers from non-Georgian language schools. In Marneuli, only 10 teachers from total 64 teachers registered for certification tests, are non-ethnic Georgians. Majority of teachers in Marneuli that registered for certification tests, represent the Georgian language schools, or are the teachers of Georgian language in non-Georgian language schools. Similar situation can be found in all areas that are densely inhabited by national; (2) No vouchers are provided for the professional development of the teachers of Armenian and Azerbaijani as Native Languages. No standards were elaborated and approved for these teachers, according to which their professional development could have been handled (UNAG evaluation report, 2010).

In the study the special attention was given to the readiness of the teachers of social sciences to teach their subjects only in the state language. It was very important to research this area as according to the Law on General Education of Georgia, as of the academic year 2010-2011 social sciences are taught only in state language in minority schools. Interesting information was collected both from the teachers and school principals. 48 teachers out of 364 participants were teachers of the social sciences. According to the survey results, only 16 of 48 social science teachers speak Georgian (e.i. 33.3 % of the surveyed teachers). Moreover, when the teachers of the social science were asked whether they could to teach the discipline in the state language, only 8 of them (16.67 %) responded positively. Very similar information was obtained from the school principals.



Only 20 participants out of 155 (12.9 %) principals responded that teachers of social sciences would be able to teach social sciences both in the native and state languages. These findings demonstrate that at this stage it is quite unrealistic to expect the teachers of social sciences to teach their discipline only in the state language.

With regard to the non-Georgian language schools, new human resources related problems were also identified. This information is confirmed by the data of the Ministry of Education and Science, according to which 46.7% of all teachers in non-Georgian language schools are over 45 years. But the training of substitutes to these teachers in higher education institutions could not be accomplished because of following factors: a) general low public interest into the profession of the teacher, respectively resulting in low graduates of the program (in 2007-2008, only 134 students enrolled in education masters program countrywide. In 2008-2009 – 354 and in 2009-2010 – 642 students), b) The share of students belonging to national minorities in the education programs significantly decreased after the unified national exams, and actually no new resources are trained in the higher education institutions of Georgia for non-Georgian language schools (UNAG evaluation report, 2010). It is worth mentioning that none of the universities with education programs prepare the future teachers of the bilingual programs. This vacuum has two main explanations: First, the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia has not developed and approved the standard of the bilingual teacher; Second, universities themselves are not willing to design and implement the education programs for the bilingual teachers.

Another important component of the issue of less qualified human resources is related to the lack of the relevant competence among the school principals. Out of all the principals of the target schools only 3 principals were informed about what kind of bilingual program was being implemented at their school. This means that 98.6 % of the school principals have no information about the bilingual programs in general, as well as in the context of their own school. At the same time 90 % of the principals indicated that they had participated in the trainings related to the bilingual education. This evidence once again suggests that despite certain professional development opportunities school principals have no readiness for the implementation of the bilingual programs.

The election of school principals conducted in 2007 can be one of the measures of qualification of non-Georgian school principals. The number of candidates nominated for school principal candidacy was insufficient. This insufficient number decreased dramatically after the different stages of examinations.. 79% of non-Georgian school candidates failed qualification exams, while another 19% were rejected after interview. The number of nominations for non-Georgian schools averaged 0.3 candidates per non-Georgian school. For instance, only two candidates were nominated in 55 non-Georgian public schools in Akhalkalaki district as well as only 2 candidates were nominated in 33 public schools of Ninotsminda district (Tabatadze, 2008). This statistical data proves the problems of qualification of non-Georgian school administrations.

(c) Multilingual education programs are not shared by the school community

One of the findings of the study reports that out of the 155 target schools none had the school mission and strategic development plan outlining the school vision and strategy of the bilingual education. Lack of the shared vision of the bilingual education programs was also revealed when principals were asked whether they were planning to launch the bilingual education programs and why. 45 % of the 155 school principals responded that they were not planning to start the implementation of such programs. Those school principals, who were implementing or were planning to implement bilingual education programs indicated that they had taken such a decision as it was required by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia. Along the request of the Ministry of Education, 5 % of the schools also indicated the parent request. 2 % of the schools also reported the school competition for more students and more vouchers as one of the reasons for implementing bilingual education programs (it should be mentioned that due to the changes in the school financing system introduction of the bilingual education programs is no more considered as the financial incentive). Survey results also showed that majority of the teachers do not participate in the planning and implementation of the bilingual programs. Only the teachers of the Georgian language and literature reported to participate in these processes. Subject teachers are not involved in the planning process and accordingly do not share the value of the bilingual education programs.



(d) Parental involvement in the planning and implementation of the bilingual education programs, as well as in school life is very low

Given study showed interesting results on the involvement of the parents and the community. As it was already mentioned, only 2 % of the school principals indicated that they introduced or were planning to introduce the bilingual education programs based on the parent request. The analysis of the bilingual programs also revealed that mainly the Georgian language and literature teachers and representatives of the educational resource centers participate in the selection and planning of the bilingual programs. It is also interesting to review the responses to the questions related to the parents involvement in school life. 100 % of the school principals and teachers indicated that parents participate in the school life. However, 95 % of the school principals and 82 % of the teachers could not answer the question about the specific programs, strategies and activities of parent involvement. These evidence explicitly suggests that parental involvement in the school life is very minimal. Moreover, even when parents are actively participating in the school life, they tend to be cautious about introducing bilingual programs. This can be explained by the fact that majority of these parents do not speak the Georgian language and therefore in bilingual programs they will not be able to help their children with the homework. Clearly, these parents could have benefited a lot if school had parent education and awareness-raising programs. Unfortunately, such kind of programs exist neither in the Georgian, nor in the non-Georgian schools.

Conclusion/Implications for Practice

The findings of this research may become the significant foundation for the implementation of the bilingual education reform in Georgia. These findings suggest that existing situation is quite challenging for the implementation of the bilingual programs. At the same time the results of the research advise the measures that have to be taken in order to maximize the positive impact of the bilingual education programs.

Given study revealed the problems that have to be solved at the national policy level. The ministry of education and science of Georgia demonstrates the improper understanding of the purpose and importance of bilingual education reform. Bilingual education is seen as part of teaching the state language. This is evidenced by the fact that the Ministry of Education made the bilingual education reform as part of one of its projects which is aimed teaching Georgian language. This approach is further strengthened by the statements of the Minister of Education and Science of Georgia. According to these statements, all non-Georgian schools will move to the bilingual education from 2011 and 30 % of the subjects will be taught in Georgian language. Exception will be non-Georgian schools in Tbilisi where 60 % of the subjects will be taught in Georgian and a year later – 90 % of the subjects (Interview with the Minister of Education and Science, 2010). Despite the fact that the importance of the bilingual education was recognized in the context of teaching the state language, the main purpose and idea of the bilingual education should not be ignored – to develop a balanced bilingualism in each child without any academic problems and to provide the opportunity to receive the education in the native language. Historically bilingual programs are associated with the decreased drop out rates and academic underachievement of the minority students receiving education in the state language (in the language in which their competence is limited). The current vision of the Ministry of Education of Georgia which implies teaching the state language through the bilingual programs will in the best-case scenario lead us to the results because of which the Western countries started to advocate such programs. Therefore it is crucial that the Ministry of Education defines the goal of the bilingual education in Georgia to be the development of the bilingualism along with the overall academic success of each student and plans and implements the corresponding bilingual education programs. The Ministry of Education and Science should also revise its attitudes towards the submersion programs. The Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia is actively popularizing and stimulating submersion (Georgian program submersion) programs.

Revision of the bilingual education policy requires certain legislative changes. First of all, the benchmarks should be determined for the non-Georgian schools – what are these schools expected to achieve in a certain period of time? Secondly, it is very important to develop and adopt such state documents as national curriculum of Azerbaijani and Armenian languages, which are in line with the Georgian educational system. Thirdly, changes have to be made in the allocation of the instructional hours so that they correspond the specific nature and characteristics of the bilingual education. Fourthly, amendment should be made to the maximum class-size in the bilingual programs. Fifthly, it is very important to create a professional standard of a



bilingual education and to plan and implement both pre-service and in-service professional development programs according to this document. Finally, it will be necessary to create incentive system for the teachers in order to ensure recruitment and retention of the qualified teaching cadre in such schools.

Over the recent years number of programs and initiatives were implemented to solve the problems related to the lack of the qualified teaching and administrative cadre in non-Georgian schools (United Nations Association of Georgia, 2010). Above-mentioned programs have two main limitations: (a) They are not sustainable; (b) They do not contribute to the development of the local capacity of the schools. Most of these programs are aimed at sending out the teachers to the minority regions. This type of program was launched in 1998. In 2005 this program was renewed in the form of “Missionary” teacher program. It was followed by the program “Teach Georgian as a Second language” in 2009. The participants of this program were the qualified teachers of Georgian language and literature who was placed in the non-Georgian schools in the minority regions. The new program “Georgian Language for Future Success” was launched in 2011. As part of this program graduates of the BA programs were sent out to teach in the minority schools. None of the above-mentioned programs are long-term, sustainable or aimed at strengthening the local capacity. At the same time none of these programs were implemented in the context of bilingual education. It is important that future programs are the part of the bilingual education policy and at the same time provide more long-term and sustainable support to the non-Georgian schools. The same approach has to be taken towards the strengthening the capacities of the local administrative staff and more sustainable and need-oriented programs have to be implemented.

One of the most important priorities is to ensure the active involvement of the parents and community in the school life. As the findings of this study non-Georgian schools have almost no practice of such involvement. Hence the professional development of the administrators and teachers in the area of parent and community involvement is very important. On the other hand, the non-Georgian schools can benefit a lot by implementing the parent education and awareness raising programs. Non-Georgian schools have got no sufficient financial and human resources for implementing such programs. However, very efficient programs can be implemented by the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia in collaboration with the local and international organizations.

In conclusion, the Georgia education system and the minority integration policy have step by step reached the important point of launching a bilingual education reform. Expectations towards this reform are very high (Ombudsman Office, Meeting with Ethnic Minority Council, March 30, 2008). When expectations are high, chances of dissapointent are also very high. Dissapointment towards the billingual education reform may equal the disappointment to the policy of the integration of ethnic minorities. Therefore, it is crucial for all the parties involved to ensure the effectiveness of the bilingual education reform. The reform will be effective if state priority is given to the “strong” bilingual programs and appropriate policies and activities are implemented.

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Preconditions of Teaching GLL Students

ABSTRACT

Teaching of Georgian, as a State Language and introduction of the advanced Western methodologies of language teaching are viewed as two interrelated phenomena. One of the significant approaches of the Western European methods of the language teaching is the politics of language teaching, which is strictly based on the preliminary in-depth research outcomes;

The language teaching policy is elaborated as a result of the summed up data and their synthesis; The traditional Western approaches of language teaching incorporate the structural, the functional and interactional views of the language; Hence, the methodology is constructed and on the premises of each view (Richards, J.C. y T.S. Rodgers 1987, pp. 14-30).

Against this background, for the progressive teaching of Georgian as a state language it is of absolute urgency to develop critical analysis and modern style of criticism specifically for the Georgian, as well to focus literary norms of the modern Georgian.

The goal of the paper is to analyze the headstart conditions of policy formations for teaching Georgian as a second language. It addresses two urgent problems: critical analysis of language teaching and the role of translated fiction, as part of the national culture in the education of the GLL or bilingual students. Both are considered to be intertwined in the process of the policy formation for teaching GSL. Teaching of Georgian, as a second Language and introduction of the advanced Western methodologies of the second language teaching are viewed as two interrelated phenomena, however, the paper argues, that adoption of the Western experience should be based on the preliminary adaptation analysis. The paper highlights several recommendations for successful implementation of the policies of second language teaching.

The Preconditions of starting new educational programs for the GLL students' segment is classified into (a) dearth of the language/literature/translation criticism; (b) dearth of efficiency and Western experience in teaching the state language to the Georgian language learners whose first language is not Georgian.

The scholars of Georgian have yet to concentrate on the literary norms of the modern Georgia, with the view on one hand of the linguistic changes which Georgian suffered through the Russification regime, and on the other hand, the threats to the language as posed to the globalized world. The linguistic portrait of the Georgian world is the conceptual phenomenon coded with the national essence, that is to be communicated to the non-Georgian citizens of our homeland. The deficiency of criticism is reflected on the outcomes of the research project carried out by the Department of the National Assessment in 2009 which intended to pinpoint the problems of teaching Georgian. Regrettably, Adjara indexed the worst outcomes among the five most vulnerable regions in Georgia (Tsereteli, 2009 www.ganatileba.org). Therefore, it should not come as a surprise, that non-Georgian public schools in the regions which are densely populated with the ethnic minorities do not meet the standards established by the newly issued Law of National Education. Regrettably, unless purified, modern Georgian is contaminated enough to bring about miscommunication of the national concept. We have to gauge the channels which transfer contaminated Georgian through literature, translation, mass media, internet etc.

One of the significant approaches of the Western methods of the language teaching is the politics of language teaching, which is strictly based on the preliminary in-depth research and testing outcomes; Furthermore, analytical approaches to the politics of teaching needs technical analysis (e.g. matrix of assigned teaching hours) as well as critical analysis of the Western experience and development and institutionalization of the language criticism.



Teaching literature: adapted over original? National over translated?

The national program of the Georgian as a SL (see www.cciir.ge/upload/editor/.../qarTuli%2020randarti-1-12%20klasi.do) approves adapted literature for the Georgian Language Learners (GLL) for the 2-9 grade students. The page 91 reads that “a 9th grade student comprehends an adapted text of fiction, which is quite logical, provided all the experience with the adapted literary texts in previous grades. However, the trajectories of the students competency and the student requirement on the very next 92nd page fall apart as the student requirement claims structural and linguistic analysis of a literary text. The same paragraph: ქ.ბ. IX. 8 articulates that a student is supposed to transparently demonstrate his/her skills in stylistic analysis. We have to question here the integrity of the training and the requirement in the National Educational Program (NEP) and to assert that no transparently demonstrated outcomes can logically be expected based on the training component.

Clearly, the affinity between the original and the adapted literary text is the story itself, while the improvised content is a simple with no authentic set of stylistic devices, with no auctorial story-telling, allegory, metaphors, hyperboles, personification etc. Hence, the next requirement to GLL student to be able to compose a fable is deemed an overstatement of the NEP which does not provide for the necessary knowledge criteria for intermediate level training.

The analogy of the National Educational Program deliberated by the National Educational Curriculum and Assessment Center for Georgian and non-Georgian students locates both ignoring fiction in translation. None of the draft programs outline succinctly whether a “literary text” stands as a Georgian literary text or it means a corpus of the translated fiction, as a part of the national corpus or as a part of the national culture. The Annual Yearly Progress in the end of the 12th grade enlists recommended writers, which entirely is composed of the national writers, hence the question: as far as the NEP will measure the student competency in literatures of various periods, does it mean that the literature also mean translated literature from worldwide or not? And why, in case the response is negative? The translated literature is seen to be given a marginalized milieu while it degrades its significant role as a donor of literary canons and genres: „Georgian romantic poetry is widely considered one of the earliest manifestations of Georgia’s modern opening to the West, an indirect consequence of her annexation by and absorption into the Russian Empire“ (Ram, Shatirishvili, 2004, p. 1). In 19th c. translation activity in Georgia invoked multiple literary achievements. Earlier, while still in Russia, Solomon Razmadze translated “Eugeny Onegin” and other verses by Pushkin, „ლხინი“, „დემონი“, „განღვიძება“, „ღიმპანური სიმღერა“ /“მელოდია“. Razmadze intertwines Georgian realias into these first unpretentious experiments, thus making a precedent of free translation. Alexander Chavchavadze translates various verses of Pushkin, Goethe, Aesop, Cornel, Walter, Lafontaine, Hugo, Odovskiy. Dimitri Kipiani started his career as a translator, ending in 1941 with the translation of “Romeo and Juliet”. The versatility of the authors, texts and cultures ushered doors for Georgian romanticism. Recited by his teacher, Farys in Russian translation was one of Baratashvili’s inspirations. Later, he was compared to Byron by the outstanding British scholar: „...the outstanding figure is the young and tragic bard Nikoloz Baratashvili, who met his death in 1845 at the age of 28. No one who has had the privilege of seeing the young Georgian actor Gegechkori in the title-role of the drama Baratashvili on the Tbilisi stage is likely to forget the appeal of this tortured, truly Byronic genius“ (Lang, 1966: 23).

Baratashvili’s “Merani” invites the best of the Russian writers to contest for the best translation of this truly humanistic masterpiece of romanticism, Pasternak, Akhmadulina, Euteshenko, Voznyesensky, Antokolsky, Lozinsky, and currently, Maksim Amelin’s glorious translation indicates the eternal attraction with the poem. However, none of the translators remained unconscious of the magnetism the poem produced, thus reflecting it in their own works, e.g. in Tsvetaeva’s untitled verse: “Пожирающий огонь — мой конь”, Bal’mont’s “Челн томления”, Pasternak’s “Дорога”. Apparently, two phenomena emerge simultaneously: (1) intercultural translation or interpretation of verbal signs in the same language with other signs and (2) intercultural translation.

The 19th c. was not only characterized with the romantic and realistic literary genres. The paradox of that epoch concludes in the incoherence of the prosperous translation practices which enriched the genres of literature, with the deplorable inferiority of Georgian under the colonial regime.

The Russian-educated Georgian elite who also served in Russian military services transformed into culturally translated monolinguals, with Russian as the native language. Georgian language saw degradation un-



der the colonial oppression, what made foundation of the Bank of Nobility by Ilia Chavchavadze and Ivane Machabeli a matter of vital political expediency. It was hard to disregard Georgian language anymore and the end of the century witnessed gradual back translation of the Georgian elite. Literary translation contributed immensely to the development of the new literary traditions, classicism, romanticism, and canons in Georgia, canonization of the new Georgian language, enrichment with neologisms and occasional word-building. Translated literature is viewed as a part of national culture in the West, hence it is respected and integrated in the curricula of the student with English as the first or the second languages (ELL).

Teaching English to ELL Students in the USA

Since the USA has the richest experience of all the states in regards of the bilingualism and biculturalism, the experience it offers is seen valuable at the earlier stage of introduction NEP for the GLL students. The statistics of the US offers impressive figures with 6 million individuals with Spanish as the first language, 1.3 million of them only in the state of California among 1, 56 of English language learners (ELL).

The modern Western practice of the language teaching attests that teaching English is integrated with the teaching of culture, intertwining literatures (both national and translated), composition, world studies for the high school grade students. The students can enroll in the advance placement preparation groups or in general classes. The selection is made on the basis of the preliminary tests, taken prior to enrolment. This option makes both teaching and comprehension processes less strenuous for the ELL with differences of the language skills. The priorities set out in teaching English as the second language are deemed valuable for Georgia as well, as long as it emphasizes on the individual approach to students. The education of students whose dominant language is not English and/or are English language learners, is the responsibility of every school district/charter school in the Commonwealth. Title 22, Chapter 4, Section 4.26 of the Curriculum Regulations requires that the school district/charter school provide a program for every student who is limited English proficient (LEP) or an English language learner (ELL). The regulation states: "Every school district shall provide a program for each student whose dominant language is not English for the purpose of facilitating the student's achievement of English proficiency and the academic standards under § 4.12 (relating to academic standards). Programs under this section shall include appropriate bilingual-bicultural or English as a second language (ESL) instruction."

We use the experience of the high school at Urbana Champagne, Il, to demonstrate the integrity of approach to teaching ESL (English second language) and flexibility of adjustment programs to the ELL levels (<http://www.usd116.org/uhs/guidance/courses.html>)

- 2 semesters of Composition 9 (9th)
- 2 semesters of World Studies –English (10th)
- 2 semesters of American Studies –English (11th)
- 2 semesters of English (12th)

Chart of ELL Placement and Programs

(viz. <http://www.usd116.org/uhs/guidance/CourseGuide10-11.pdf>)

9	10	11	12
<p>*AP Prep Composition 9</p> <p>One year, two credits This course is designed to help students prepare for the demands and rigor of senior Advanced Placement Literature and Composition. The course is designed for highly motivated and exemplary freshmen who read significantly above grade level, and who have</p>	<p>*AP Prep World Studies</p> <p>One year, two credits This course is designed to help students prepare for the demands and rigor of senior Advanced Placement Literature and Composition. This course is designed for more mature and independent sophomores who read and write significantly</p>	<p>*AP Prep American Studies</p> <p>One year, two credits This course is designed to help students prepare for the demands and rigor of senior Advanced Placement Literature and Composition. It provides an advanced and rigorous approach that is taught in coordi-</p>	<p>*AP Literature & Composition</p> <p>One year, two credits This highly rigorous course is appropriate for seniors who read and write significantly above grade level. The text is Literature: An Introduction to Fiction, Poetry, and Drama by X.J. Kennedy, a text used in colleges. Longer works studied include King Lear, Love Medicine, Beloved, The Things They Carried, All the King's Men,</p>



<p>mastered five paragraph expository compositions. This is a writing intensive course that provides advanced instruction in persuasion and exposition while giving the students a foundation in conventions and research skills. The primary text is The Prentice Hall Reader.</p>	<p>above grade level. Students are expected to devote significant time outside of class to meet course requirements and expectations. The course will be taught in coordination with *AP Prep World Studies Social Studies. The primary text is World Literature by Holt, Rinehart, and Winston. Supplemental works include, Things Fall Apart, Almost a Woman, Night, and One Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich. This is a writing intensive course that includes instruction in expository, persuasive, and literary analysis papers in addition to research projects.</p>	<p>nation with *AP Prep American Studies Social Studies. The primary text will be Elements of Literature: Literature of the United States with Literature from the Americans.</p>	<p>White Noise, and Four Plays by Ibsen. Reading and writing assignments are similar to those which can be expected in college English courses, including a required second semester research paper and oral presentation of that research. Taking this class can prepare the student to take the Advanced Placement Exam in May. Scoring well on that exam can result in up to 6 hours of college credit in Rhetoric or English.</p>
<p>Composition 9 One year, two credits This course is required of all 9th grade students not taking *AP Prep Composition 9. It is a writing intensive course that provides specific instruction in a variety of persuasive and expository modes while giving the students a foundation in conventions and research skills. Specific attention will be given to reading strategies and paragraph and essay structure.</p>	<p>World Studies One year, two credits This course is required for all sophomores not taking *AP Prep World Studies English. The course will be taught in coordination with World Studies Social Studies. This is a writing intensive course that will build on the skills developed in Composition 9. Specific instruction will be given in a variety of persuasive and expository modes, grammar, and research skills. The class will also utilize a variety of reading strategies to better understand some of the social issues of various cultures throughout the world.</p>	<p>American Studies One year, two credits This course is required of all juniors not taking *AP Prep American Studies English. The course will be taught in coordination with American Studies Social Studies. The primary text will be Elements of Literature: Literature of the United States with Literature from the Americans.</p>	<p>Literature & Composition One year, two credits This course provides a rigorous thematic approach to longer works through literary analysis. Primary texts include works such as Othello, Hamlet, The Metamorphosis, Unsettling America, Native Son, Their Eyes Were Watching God, Catch 22, Siddhartha, The Poisonwood Bible, and One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest. The focus of composition is impromptu, exposition, and persuasion incorporating critical secondary sources. British Literature One year, two credits This survey course will provide students with a background in British Literature from Old English through the twentieth century. Its assessment focus is on the development of student exposition and analysis and on preparing students for college level coursework. An array of larger works may be used in the course including Hamlet, Macbeth, Heart of</p>



		<p>Darkness, and Things Fall Apart. Writers' Workshop One year, two credits This course is based on the workshop model of study. It is specifically designed to provide concentrated and individualized instruction in written composition to prepare students for success in work or in continued academic study. In addition, the use of technology is integrated to enhance student skills for work or continued education. Assignments include the basics of narrative, expository, and persuasive writing. A secondary focus of the course is individual reading of fiction and nonfiction works of literature in order to encourage life long learning.</p>
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In elementary and middle schools, it is quite common to have a wide variety of English language proficiencies in bilingual and ESL classes. In the high schools, ESL classes are usually organized by levels of instruction: beginning, intermediate, advanced, and transitional. The majority of high schools follow this model although variations exist. Regardless of class organization models, there is a recognition at all grade levels that second language acquisition is a process and that students progress through various acquisition stages at their own pace. Teachers of ESL select specific methods and use specialized instructional materials to meet their students' needs.

In conclusions, the practice of the US schools highlights that (1) the schools have the hourly schedule adjusted to the ELL students, (2) the classes are streamed in accordance to bilingual and ELL students, (3) both bilingual and ELL students study world literature in translation. This approach is based on the long-term success and proven outcomes of the methods.

Thereby, bicultural education comes as an integral part of teaching of Georgian to the GLL or bilingual students, while it involves national literature as well as the world literatures in translation, as part of the national culture.

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სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
პრობლემები და გამოწვევები
Issues of State Language Teaching;
Problems and Challenges



URLs:

<http://www.lingua.ge/kanoni.html>

<http://www.lingua.ge/normalizacia.html>

www.ganatileba.org

www.cciir.ge/upload/editor/.../qarTuli%20,%20srandarti-1-12%20klasi.do

<http://www.sde.ct.gov/sde/site/default.asp>

<http://www.usd116.org/uhs>

[http://www.portal.state.pa.us/portal/server.pt/community/english_as_a_second_language/7529;](http://www.portal.state.pa.us/portal/server.pt/community/english_as_a_second_language/7529)

<http://www.policyalmanac.org/education/archive/bilingual.pdf> - Patricia Osorio-O'Dea Bilingual Education: An Overview CRS Report for Congress Received through the CRS Web Bilingual Education: An Overview Updated June 7, 2001 Analyst in Social Legislation; Domestic Social Policy Division Congressional Research Service. The Library of Congress



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State Language and Integration Problems

ABSTRACT

In the second language teaching and bilingual education, it is greatly important to determine the language learner's approach – whether it is instrumental or integration oriented. During second language study instrumental reasons generally prevail in learners, although those who prefer integration approach are more motivated and successful as well.

At present the motivation to study Georgian as state language is more instrumental in nature. Our research shows that in terms of everyday need Georgian and Russian (55.1 %) are by all means advantageous (74.2 %), followed by native languages; Both in terms of education and professional activities the most significant languages are Georgian (68.8 %) and Russian (40.7 %). The need for English language has increased and an interest in Turkish language has occurred. The learners consider the knowledge of English and other European languages more important than Georgian for the future.

During second language teaching the incorporation of the literature works and information on the history and culture of the people speaking the language to be studied is not enough. The second language learners should have the opportunity to see that their native culture is accepted and appreciated. It is especially important during the transitional age, when identity is formed and ethnical and civil awareness established.

I. When we speak of the second language teaching and bilingual education, it is greatly important to determine the language learner's approach – whether it is instrumental or integration oriented. In these terms social-educational models of second language learning by Lambert and Cleman are especially noteworthy.

Lambert (1979, 1981) thinks that the key factor of second language learning is motivation, which greatly influences the development of the identity of the individual. For instrumentally oriented individuals second language represents only a tool for achieving something. Integration oriented learner desires and intends to become part of the society; during second language study instrumental reasons generally prevail in learners, although those who prefer integration approach are more motivated and successful as well.

Cleman focuses on socio-cultural context. He outlines the significance of fear of losing own culture and language, assimilation during second language learning. The relation between the fear of assimilation and motivation of integration determines the motivation for second language learning and effectiveness of such learning.

II. How can an integration oriented motivation be developed? As any language teaching is connected with the culture of the country, which speaks the language, school teaching could be considered as phenomenon of poly-cultural education. During teaching process the focus should be made on the fact that the child is not only the subject of teaching, but the subject of inter-cultural relationships. The individual perception of the world by the pupil, his/her motives, socio-cultural development, emotions and moods, actual interests and demands are widened and diversified through study of the second language and acquaintance with different culture.

Teaching a language means teaching the culture of the people who speaks this language. It is necessary to develop the skill of comparison of “own” and “other” cultural heritage, become aware of what links the cultures and what is different and why. It forms the “cognitive basis” for second language learning. During second language teaching (in textbooks, methods and curriculum) the incorporation of the literature works and information on the history and culture of the people speaking the language to be studied is not enough. The second language learners should have the opportunity to see that the masterpieces in their native language are also known and valued, their native folklore and culture is accepted and appreciated. It is especially important during the transitional age, when identity is formed and ethnical and civil awareness established.



III. Second language is learnt either in relatively informal situation through imitation of implementation of specific communication acts, or through formal teaching in educational system. According to specialists, learning in informal situation is faster, deeper and achieved results are more stable over time than the knowledge of second language acquired at school through curriculum subject or special teaching situations.

With the support of Rustaveli Fund the project of “Georgian, as Second Language Curriculum for Elementary School Pupils, in Non-Teaching Conditions” was implemented in D. Uznadze Psychological Institute in 2008-2009. We became interested in studying the attitude of the representatives of the language minorities (language mood) towards state (Georgia) and other languages.

With the aim to research the language situation a questionnaire was developed, which comprised two main parts.

The first part consists of ten questions with the purpose to receive general information: which languages are preferred by respondents in everyday life; knowledge of which language is necessary in professional activity or education; in which language they have to communicate with the state agencies. In addition, we thought it important to identify the knowledge of which language is considered necessary by respondents in the future; learning which languages they wish for their children; which language they want to use in relationships with various nationalities in the community; if they consider the knowledge of state (Georgian) language by all citizens of Georgia mandatory.

For the purpose of identification of attitude not only towards different languages, but towards various people and cultures, we used projection method – respondent should imagine themselves in the center and align listed languages (Georgian, Russian, Armenian, Azeri, Turkish, Greek, English, French, German, Chinese) in concentric circles. The same should be repeated for different people and cultures.

Through questions in the second part we desired to determine the attitude of the respondent towards learning Georgian: whether school teaching is sufficient for mastering the language; to what extent the quality of textbooks is satisfactory along with teacher qualification and number of teaching hours; except for school, where it is possible to learn Georgian and which learning methods are preferred by the respondents (traditional methods, trainings, special programs, private teachers, etc.). We also tried to identify situation in terms of Georgian language knowledge. We asked the respondents to answer the following questions: how fluent they are in Georgian at present (know well; know insufficiently; know at elementary level; do not know at all); if family members know Georgian (all, some, one member, none); in their opinion, representatives of which generation know Georgian better (elderly, middle or young).

We selected target groups from teachers, parents and pupils in Tbilisi public schools (Armenian and Azeri), Akhalkalaki and Marneuli public schools. In addition, teachers of Georgian sector were questioned along with employees of state agencies in Marneuli (local administration, notary, hospital, kindergarten).

To sum up the total of 463 respondents were interviewed (163 teachers, 108 parents, 192 pupils).

The analysis of data shows the prominent significance and value of Georgian language to non-Georgian speaking population both in everyday life and professional activities or business relationships with state agencies in Tbilisi and regions compactly populated by ethnical minorities (Kvemo (Lower) Kartli, Javakheti), namely:

- In addition to Georgian Russian is being still used for inter-nationality relationships (the necessity of Russian is especially conspicuous in Akhalkalaki). Mother tongues are on the third place (in our case – Armenian and Azeri);
- English earns more and more solid positions. It is not an inter-nationality relationship language yet in everyday life or in state agencies (although such possibility was mentioned by respondents), but 13.5 % of the interviewed indicated the importance of English language knowledge for career;
- Georgian is the most important language for education and career (68.8 %). It is followed by Russian (40.7 %) and mother tongues. It should be mentioned that the necessity of English language knowledge has increased four times (13.4 %) and interest towards Turkish has activated, although at minimal level and only in parents (1 %);
- For the future the runner up to Georgian language is English and not Russian. On the question which language their children should study in the future one third of the pupils (30 %) named English and other European languages. We should mention with regret that the pupils consider the knowledge



of English (28.25) and other European languages more important than Georgian for their children (i.e. more distant future than their lifespan). However, it is a fact that only 27 % of respondents name Georgian language;

- Respondents are sure that citizens of Georgia should fluently master state language (in our case - Georgian) or at least know it at elementary level. According to the opinion of the respondents, young generation knows Georgian better than representatives of the middle and elderly generations. However, the readiness and desire to study Georgian is conspicuous in all categories of the respondents (50.7 % plans to study Georgian; 23.9 % wants to, but does not know how they will manage to study);

- As regards the issues of Georgian language teaching in non-Georgian speaking schools (Armenian and Azeri sectors), the situation is as follows:

- One third of the interviewed thinks that school teaching is sufficient for Georgian language study; however, 41 % of the pupils have opposite opinion and 43.1 % of parents are partially satisfied with school teaching (especially, teachers of Armenian schools);

- As regards textbooks, assessment of Georgian language teachers and number of hours for Georgian language study, the opinion of respondents is undoubtedly positive;

- It is prominent that the politics implemented by the state in the recent period has been effective and the interest towards learning Georgian language has increased. Respondents see the opportunities to study Georgian language outside schools through Georgian media, acquaintance with Georgian literature and relationships with friends or colleagues.

The research shows that at present the motivation to study Georgian as state language is more instrumental in nature (especially among the parents). State politics aim at the above too, although Georgian educational system and existing resources do not facilitate the children speaking minority languages with the opportunity of full development of their potential yet. It could result in decrease of instrumental motivation towards Georgian and shift of interest on other languages (i.e. English, German, Turkish, Greek and/or Chinese), the knowledge of which would offer more opportunities in employment and welfare of the non-Georgian speaking population. Such threat is fairly real and our interviews distinctly showed it. We think more attention should be paid to the development of integration oriented motivation (and not only among the representatives of language minorities).

The motif of integration into a culture or society occurs when a person is convinced that he/she is accepted into the society as he/she is with his/her language, appearance, history, traditions and values. The second language becomes the means not only to become acquainted with the people speaking the language and their culture, but the opportunity to share own experience and native culture. The curriculums of Georgian schools should more intensively reflect the role and share in the development of state of ethnical groups living in our country – integration is a bi-lateral process, after all.

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Modelling of Language Situations by Means of Manipulating with Terms and Notions

ABSTRACT

The paper analyzes the vast empirical data, including the features characteristic to the Soviet period discourse, contained in the works by numerous authors, dealing with the issue of the so called second native language; notwithstanding some minor exceptions, the said coinage seems bizarre to none of the Russophone authors. It is not only the political underpinning (apology of Russification), but a cognitive factor which, against their will, unveils the true essence of those statements. When writing about the so called *second native language*, Russophone authors try to present the notion, rendered by means of this 'term,' as an axiomatic entity, that is, they model the language situation by way of manipulating with terms and notions.

The paper highlights the fact that language situations may become a subject to modelling not only by way of certain legislative and administrative activities, but also by means of giving way to a discourse of appropriate content, irrespective of the fact how adequate its product is going to be with the existing reality.

In order to veil the assimilationist policy, conducted in the Soviet Union, Russian-language publications in the period of the Communist rule proposed the term второй родной язык 'the second native language,' referring to Russian for all non-Russians living in that state. It is noteworthy that, notwithstanding some minor exceptions, the said coinage seems bizarre to none of the Russian-language authors. The present paper discusses statements by some Russophone authors concerning the issue in point. What is salient here, is not only the political underpinning (apology of Russification), but a cognitive factor which, against their will, unmasks the true essence of those statements. When writing about the so called *second native language*, Russian-language authors try to present the notion, rendered by means of this *term*, as an axiomatic entity, that is, they model the language situation by way of manipulating with terms and notions.

In order to achieve the set goal, the best means is to refer to the said authors' quotes which are so unambiguous with their aspirations that sometimes even no comment is needed: "The notion 'second native language' was introduced in the party and political literature. Recently, it gained circulation in scholarly literature as well" (Agayev, 1968: 136). To tell the truth, we are not going to refer to this and some other authors' statements as scholarly relevant opinions. For us, they are the illustrative data in order to observe the process in question. The fact that they are not worth discussing in a scholarly way is clear based on the following passage: "The possibility of the use of the notion 'second native language' is unarguable. First of all, in such specific cases when a people, living in a foreign-language milieu, learn it so fluently that individuals of various categories of the population use it so widely as their national-native language. For instance, presently Megrelians and Laz [?! -- Z. K & I. C.] use Georgian" (ibid.: 137). The author is surprised that the notion appeared unacceptable for some scholars as far as "in it, they view the masked policy of transferring peoples to a language of another nation" (ibid.). It would be reasonable to echo A. Agayev with another quote: "Frequently, this process leads to the point Russian becomes a native language for a considerable part of a non-Russian people. As a result, as it is seen based on the 1959 census of the population of the USSR, more than 10 million representatives of the non-Russian population of the USSR recognized Russian their native language" (Desheriev & Protchenko, 1968: 122). This is what we wrote about the critical outcomes of such 'nativization': "Vods (a smaller ethnic group) inhabit Kingisepp District of Leningrad Oblast. Their native language used to



be Vodic; presently, their overwhelming majority speak Russian... The nation has not been included in the post-war censuses. The language disappeared and the nation did too. The same happened with Livs (Latvia), Oroks (Sakhalin), Iaghnobis, Talysh (Azerbaijan) and many others" (Kikvidze, 1990: 187).

M. Rilski says that "Kazakh poet Mukhtar Ayezov accurately named Russian 'the second native language' of all educated non-Russians of the Soviet Union" (Rilski, 1962: 102). However, there is different information: "When N. S. Khrushchov was ascending the stairs in Minsk State University, he turned back to the followers and declared: "The sooner we begin to speak Russian, the sooner we will build communism." Following that, T. Usumbaliev, the first secretary of the Communist Party of Kyrgyzstan, declared Russian the second native language for the Kyrgyz people" (Kikvidze, 1990: 187). It is noteworthy that, in that period, it was a step forward for the Kyrgyz as far as their language was given the status of 'the first' at least formally.

While writing about the so called 'second native language,' Russophone authors do their best to present the concept, designated by the 'term,' as granted, that is to somehow indoctrinate it (see, for instance, Beloded, 1969; Kostomarov, 1963, Desheriev et al., 1965; Baziyeu & Isayev, 1975; Khanazarov, 1973; Garšva, 1989). In order to illustrate the above said, we will discuss statements by some of the authors. "The second native language can be in the direct sense applied to a language which is spoken by individuals since their first years together with their mother tongue, which is observed in mixed families in which two (or more) languages are simultaneously spoken. Besides, the second native language can refer to a language of the population who lost or loses their 'first native language'" (Garšva, 1989: 31). The following comments are to be made here: (1) the author puts „первый родной язык“ (first native language) in the quotation marks while второй родной язык (second native language) is without them; (2) from a scholarly standpoint, K. Garšva's opinion is queer (otherwise, her statement, as either a political or propagandistic discourse, is quite definable): she takes второй родной язык, as a term, for granted; following that, she tries to find some definition to it or provide with an empirical foundation.

When V. Avrorin speaks about the difficulties, associated with the definition of the term *bilingualism*, he states that those, who do not consider it necessary to somehow strictly define the phenomenon in point, regard people's huge masses without discriminating them, more or less speaking two languages, refer to them as bilinguals, and, only after that, select such a definition for *bilingualism* as not let no single entity of that mass separated from it, thus maintaining its mass character, comprising millions. "This is what I mean when I speak about a reverse order of judgment: not from an essence toward a nomination, but from a nomination toward an essence. This is how it is done in the case of 'second native language'" (Avrorin, 1975: 142). It must be pointed out that Avrorin is one of the few exceptions among the Russophone scholars who try to analyse the problem in a scholarly way.

We should deal with the approach of another author: "Second native language means that the language of intra-ethnic relations, the language of the leading and the most developed nation, became a source of the spiritual development of all degraded and suppressed nationalities, and, in this sense, it became intimate and native for them. A language of intra-ethnic relations becomes a second native language for a given nation not because the whole nation has acquired it equally well as their native tongue but because the language of intra-ethnic relations, together with the national one, is necessary for its development in the multi-national socialist state" (Khanazarov 1963: 200). We will reply to this agitation passage with V. Avrorin's comment as far as it emphasizes not only the groundlessness of the approach, set forward in the above-presented quote, but also provides a noteworthy niche in terms of the vulture-specific nature of conceptual metaphors: "Again, there is a discrepancy. In the beginning it provides an axiom that Russian became the second native language for all non-Russian peoples in the Soviet Union, while it is known that very few non-Russians speak it like a native tongue. This is the intelligentsia and not all of them; such ones more rarely occur among workers and peasants. We might have found a way out if we went the paved way by means of ultimately widening the notion "second native language." This is how disclaimers of any kind of *strictness* in scholarship behave. They suffice the fact that the second one is the language of intra-ethnic relations, playing the significant role in and being greatly respected among the peoples of the Soviet Union, and refer to it as a native (second native) language. Hence, the metaphor occupies a place of a scientific term, being quite reasonable in the language of poetry and journalism, in any text, written in the elevated celebrative style, however, it is not compatible with the accurateness of the prosaic language of scholarship" (Avrorin, 1975: 143). It is noteworthy that what is acceptable at least as a metaphor, if not a term, "in the language of poetry and journalism, in any text, written



in the elevated celebrative style," is not at all compatible for the conceptual system of Georgian. To set aside political reasons, the cause should, of course, be sought in the fact that a conceptual metaphor like *mother tongue* does not occur in Russian. As a matter of fact, when speaking about mother tongue problems, E. Polivanov was obliged to behave in the following way: "It is not in vain that the scholarly tradition widely applies the term *Muttersprache* (and not *Vatersprache*)" (Polivanov, 1969: 89).

The literal Georgian translation of *второй родной язык* is *'meore mšobliuri ena' (second native language) paradigmatically yields in *'meore dedaena' (second mother tongue), while, in Georgian, **dedaena** 'mother tongue' refers to a principal, basic, national language. This pattern can in no way accord with the above-presented conceptual system. Georgian **dedaena** (mother tongue), both as a fact and as a conceptual metaphor, occurred in another interesting situation, acting as a positive factor.

Based on the above said, it can be inferred that language situations can be a subject to modelling both by way of realizing various legislative and/or administrative measures and by giving way to a discourse of appropriate content, notwithstanding the fact how realistic the received picture will be. Such things may happen in any period of time; to prove this, we will refer to M. Beridze's words: "The cultural contour, 'drawn' by the three Kartvelian languages, makes the model and unique Kartvelian unity far firmer and more solid, and any kind of politicization, a sham preventive 'fabrication' of the facts associated with these issues, is useless and unjustifiable" (Beridze, 2010: 1).

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The problems of adjusting linguistic competences to the levels of the European Framework of Reference

ABSTRACT

The article is dedicated to the consideration of the united European Framework of Reference, concerning the learning, teaching and assessing language learning of the Framework that is the most important document and instrument of standardizing text-books (manuals) and examinations. A differentiated system of a six-stage scale and descriptors is described briefly part of the scholars consider it to be transparent and relevant, other think that it is imperfect. A wish of improving it is expressed in order that I should be possible to exactly adjust the linguistic competence of the examined person to one of the levels of the Framework of Reference. Another point that is criticized is that Framework of Reference does not present any special instructions for drawing up the examination test and does not envision all the factors, conditioning the complexity of the test. The difficulties, connected with the understanding of the oral speech are also accentuated in the article. On the basis of analyzing these problems it becomes possible to work out recommendations both for developing the skill of understanding the oral speech and drawing up the test to check up the competence of listening, adjusted to the standard of the Framework of Reference. Taking into consideration the following factors and difficulties is recommended: the homogeneous/heterogeneous character of the group of language learners, interference peculiarities, the level of phonetic-phonological and lexico-grammatical competence, the ability of recognizing the importance features of spontaneous authentic speech and tempo. We should not choose texts with polyvalent contents with complicated reference and local relativity and background noise for the persons who do not know the foreign language well. The accompanying assignments should be given before listening to the text, the style of listening of the audiotext should be mainly global or selective. It is preferable to include the visual channel for testing and choosing the roles of the addressee and the auditor for the listener. The assessment system of “the Institute of German as a Foreign Language” (the 2010-2011 version) is given as a specimen of the objective description and assessment of the competence of listening. According to this system it is necessary first to characterize the text of the test (its authentic character, the type of discourse, its subtype, volume, how difficult its vocabulary and grammar is, the tempo of speech, how distinct the articulation is, the accent, etc.) and adjust it to the respective level of the Framework of Reference (to make it more exact B2+, B1+, A2+ levels are added to the competence scale of understanding of what has been heard), and then to assess the competence of the listener numerically (according how correctly he/she will do the assignments, accompanying the text he/she has listened to). The above-mentioned system is objective and transparent. It can be successfully introduced into the educational sphere of Georgia to learn, teach and assess audition in a foreign language.

Common European Framework of reference of the languages learning, teaching and assessment was created in 2001 according to the European Council instruction. It serves pursuing language policy and implementation of political activities in Europe: “In multicultural Europe hereditary diversity of languages must become the ground of mutual understanding and close cooperation of Europeans.”(...) “The knowledge of modern languages will ease communication and interaction between the Europeans, will make it possible to increase their mobility in Europe and will facilitate the respect of identities, maintenance of the cultural heredity and development” (GI, 2001, P. 15).

Common European Framework of reference of the languages learning, teaching and assessment (hereafter briefly: the framework of reference) is used as the basis for formation of educational standard, reformation



of foreign language learning, development of curriculum etc.¹ It represents an important instrument on an international scale for unification and certification of the exams. That is why the framework of reference obtained striking resonance and recognition since its publication. Twenty-three specialists in didactics (from Germany and Austria) of German, as a foreign language, according to their research field, have given the highest assessment to the **framework of reference as “the most important document of the language policy”** in the area of common European education (Raupach, 2003, P. 156). With the aim of further specification and development of the framework of reference, many empirical researches have taken place, base documents have been drawn up, the foreign languages portfolio (ESP) of which we should name, projects: “ALTE” and “DIALANG”, German-speaking Swiss cantons project “IEF” etc. (GI, 2001, P. 218, 232, Appendix: B, C, Europarat: *European Language Portfolio*)

Unlike early normative documents, the framework of reference embraces all those newly determined parameters thronged in the uniform system that is necessary for language learning, teaching and assessment. The most major concepts of recommendation frameworks are: a) The change of paradigm in the field of the foreign language lesson, its aims and content and b) Differentiated system² of six-level scale, which describes the levels of communicative activities and language competencies.

This system contains the knowledge and skills, by which the language learners **must be able to** implement language activities in social, professional and private field. The phased system of levels has vertical and horizontal dimensions. The vertical dimension represents the language competence level (A – elementary usage of the language, B – independent usage of the language, C – competent usage of the language) and content of the levels that are illustrated by a global scale. The global scale represents one of the most important scales of the framework of reference, on which all the rest of the scales are oriented on the global scale. The competence level of a language learner with defined descriptors for each level is characterized not in negative, by listing deficits of their knowledge, but in a positive way: what skills they own, to be able to gain their competence level. Feasibility and adequacy (validity) of the suggested descriptors are empirically researched in the Swiss project by B. Nort, G. Schneider and other scientists and are based on the experience of teachers working in different education sectors, who regard these descriptors as transparent, feasible and relevant. Each descriptor is examined by hundreds of experiments in three languages (English, German, French), as for the scales, they are composed based on the statistical data (see Schneider, 2000; GI, 2001, Chapter III, Appendix A, B regarding Swiss project). Despite this, the description of the levels descriptors is suggested in the form of recommendation that “must incite us to thinking, discussing and further improvement of descriptors, on the ground of an objective description of the gained experience and facts in this field (GI, 2001, Chapter III; Quetz, 2001, 559). The authors of the framework of reference offer the users critical assessment of the scaling system and descriptors that really represent a topical issue up to date. Such famous specialists as: K.R. Bausch, H. Christ, F.G König and H. I. Krumm primarily initiated **criticism of the framework of reference** in the field of the language test. Test authors, who must utilize the framework of reference descriptors, remark that the recommendation framework does not provide clear instructions for composing an examination test (Rausch, 2003, P.145-155; Quetz, 2003, P.553-563). It does not take into account the control of all those factors that condition the complexity of a test task. Some critics remark that the framework of reference is too normative, “McDonaldized”. It does not offer us the advice, related to the education aims and lesson methods. Above all, in the framework of reference such important skills scales, as: translation, intercultural skills, non-verbal communication, strategy of studies etc. are not given. The reason for criticizing the six-level scale and descriptors is due to the fact, that it is not always possible to correspond to the given language competencies precisely to any levels of the framework of reference within the framework of general language competence and competence profiles. The framework of reference user “during the language competence level” or “by the time of describing a special problematic sphere, needs the formulation of a more precise subcategory, until it is contained by the classification of the framework of reference”. Though, the scales descriptors are necessary

¹ The teachers’ poll, which took place in 2007 by the European Council, certifies that they regard the framework of reference necessary and helpful: 90% - for curriculum; 87% - for assessment of the teaching level/compiling of the tests; 78% - for the qualification of teachers (TestDaF Institut, 2010).

² We can view the six-level-scale elements in the curriculum "Threshold Level" (<http://www.linguee.de/englisch-deutsch/uebersetzung/threshold+level.html>) created by the European Council in the 70’s.



for planning the process of assessment and studies, but “they remind us of old behaviouristic explanations and they implement the function of that stick, over which a trained poodle must jump.” If the poodle manages it, then the goal of studying has been reached (see the criticism of levels and descriptors (Quetz, 2001, P. 561). Several critical remarks have been stated concerning the “superficial description” of the concept. First of all, it is related with the phrase: “Can... understand”. “Competence descriptions determine learning aims, checking of which is possible, but checking of “understanding of the listening” process is impossible and it is not discussed in the framework of reference. Neither the concept “understand” is explained within the framework of reference, nor – the concept of “understanding” and how the process of understanding is in progress despite the fact that the psycholinguistic concept of “understanding” is rather relevant for didactics, especially for C1 and C2 levels. “Gaining multilingual competence” is postulated in the introductory part of the framework of reference, but the competence of the “understanding of listened to material” is related neither with the knowledge of any other languages, nor with the cognition of internationalisms. In many cases, it is impossible to correspond the listening competence to the levels of the framework of reference. The taxonomic system of the framework of reference still needs perfection (Christ, 2003, P. 57-66; Raupach, 2003, P.156-163; Tranter, 2003, P. 3-6).

As it is known, the scales of separate activities and parameters of the language competence are given on the horizontal dimension of the European framework of reference. The description of the **qualification of listening and understanding of oral speech** and its different activities, aims and examples are rather important for a language learner. Without the perception-understanding of the oral speech and phonetic-phonological competence that is related to it, they will not be able to deal with the communication of the elementary level within the world of foreign languages. According to H. I. Krumm, “the receptive perception of the language represents the major precondition of language learning” (Krumm, 2001, P. 1086). In scientific literature it is remarked that “listening” plays the key role in everyday usage of a language – 42%. It is followed by speech – 32%, reading – 15% and writing - 11%. The fact that “the receptive perception and understanding skills of the oral speech represent a precondition of successful participation in communication”, should be taken into account at the lesson of a foreign language, as “perception represents the ground for production”(Neuner/Hunfeld, 1993, P.37; Keltz, 1992: 23). That is why, first of all we must take care of the formation of listening skills at the lesson of a foreign language, by means of using audio and computer engineering and the latest methodology – didactics. “Foreign language learning should take place in the classroom”. On the other hand, we should take into account **difficulties related with understanding oral speech**, on the analysis basis of which it will be possible, on the one hand, to take into account the aims and abilities of language learners, proper selection of the teaching material and its usage during the teaching and learning process, on the other hand – compiling an examination test and its assessment according to the framework of reference standard. Though, in the scientific literature it is remarked that in frequent cases it is impossible to correspond the listening competence with the levels of the framework of reference, but at the same time, it is necessary to find an optimal resolution of these problems. Thus, the following factors and difficulties should be taken into account during the process of learning, teaching and assessment of the competence of listening:

1. It is impossible to carry out direct observation of a candidate’s perception-understanding. This fact fundamentally differentiates listening from speech and writing skills, on which observation is possible. During testing of the listening skills, our observation on a candidate consists in controlling his reaction only, for example, if he will circle the correct answer³ from several alternatives given in the accompanying task of the listened text, or not.

2. Different learners of the language may understand the listened text in different ways. Understanding of the listened texts is active and subjective process, which depends on numerous interindividual and personal factors, such as: the distance between the native land and foreign country, and background knowledge of the culture of these countries, motivation for studying the foreign language, metacognitive knowledge of the text types and superstructures, understanding competence of the in mother tongue, general language and strategic competencies of the foreign language, ability to memorize etc. (See the list of these problems: Zolmecke, 1993, P. 34-38; Eggers, 1996 P. 21). In the scientific literature, it is remarked that 65% of language learners have a poor ability for understanding and memorizing during the process of listening and mental processing of the foreign language speech, rather than of the mother tongue. The higher lexical and grammatical competence a foreign language learner has the more ability to memorize he has during the process of content-based



text processing and vice versa, restricted vocabulary represents the main reason of inadequate understanding of the heard text. If a foreign language learner does not have a well-developed perceptual ability for perception-understanding of the sound flow even identification of words will be quite difficult for him during listening (Grotjahn, 1998). The Foreign language learner, on the basis of different pragmatic goals, may want global, selective understanding of the oral speech or to put emphasis on its detailed information. Each goal of listening determines a specific style of listening, the type of understanding of the listened text and quality (Zolmecke, 1993, P. 4-26; Grotjan, 1998, P. 35-83).

3. Unlike the process of reading, the listening process occurs in a “factual” limited time and that is why the auditory impression is much more rapid and momentary. Very slow or fast authentic pace of the background noise, accompanying the audiotext, presents special difficulties for a foreign language learner during the process of listening. If a listener could not understand a certain part well, it will be difficult for him to understand the following part of the text adequately. The specificities of the audio channel specify limited possibilities of memorizing the listened to text. Memorized information represents the basis of understanding the following part of the text. If we take into consideration the fact that listening to the text is accompanied by the tasks, memorizing of which is necessary for listening to the text for a certain purpose and the implementation of these tasks, it becomes evident that this may congest the cognitive memory of a candidate a lot. If the tasks are given after listening to the text, in this case we do not check the listening skill, but – the ability to memorize (Buck, 2001).

4. Specific peculiarities of oral, everyday speech considerably complicate the adequate understanding of the listened to text by language learners. Oral, everyday speech is characterized with spontaneity. The following is distinguished according to the increase of the spontaneity degree: unspontaneous everyday speech, prepared everyday speech and spontaneous everyday speech.³ Everyday speech is characterized by parataxis, ellipses, revisions, zehitational pauses, non-final position of the verb after subordinative conjunctions (weil, obwohl), particles, dialectic expressions, vulgarisms, coarticulation, reduction etc. (Glaboniat, 1998, P. 86). The more spontaneous the speech, the more distinguished it is by these features. This fact should be taken into account as the factor of potential difficulty while selecting authentic audiotexts.

5. A foreign language learner, on the basis of different pragmatic goals, may want global, selective understanding of oral speech or to put emphasis on its detailed information. Each goal of listening determines a specific style of listening, the type of understanding of the listened to text and quality (Zolmecke, 1993, P. 4-26).

6. Two basic forms of the information processing are distinguished during the process of listening in the scientific literature: “from the top down” and “from the bottom up” that are in close interconnection with each other; Which form is more dominant during the process of listening - is a matter of dispute. According to the empiric researches, “from the top down” process is dominant among the listeners, who do not speak a foreign language well, during this process the global understanding of the listened to text, making logical conclusions and hence the compensation of the “bottom up” process is easy for them. The second part of the scholars remark that during the process of processing “bottom up” of the listened to information, cognition of the words occur more rapidly and correctly. In the heterogenic group this phenomenon should also be taken into consideration during the compilation of the text (Grotjan, 2005, P. 117-118; Wolff, 2003, P. 11-16).

7. The level of a candidate’s phonetic competence affects the understanding of the oral text. Unlike the written text, which represents the system composed from discrete units (letters, words etc.), the oral text is a realized acoustic signal within the limited time, sound flow, in which word boundaries are not often marked out well. The listener has to discern separate words, break up the foreign audiotext into words and sentences by means of short or long pauses that also complicates the perception-understanding process of the listened. Understanding of what has been listened to is more difficult when there are many phonetic phenomena in the oral text, those are: coarticulation, regressive and progressive assimilation, reduction, tendencies of a vowel reduction, etc. (Goh, 2000, P. 56-79).

³ texts for listening belong to the category of unspontaneous everyday speech that is formulated in writing and then read word by word or orally stated (for example transcription of the texts). Lecture, as well as political comment on the radio or television is the example of prepared everyday speech. We can hear spontaneous everyday speech in the street, restaurant, within the circle of friends etc.



8. The role of a candidate, as of a listener, should be taken into account during the text compilation and assessment. A candidate can perform the following roles during the listening process: a) The conversation participant, who can listen and talk; b) addressee, whom the speaker directly addresses, but the addressee does not have enough ability to respond (for example, a listener at the traditional lecture); c) An auditor, who cannot respond at all and he is not even expected to answer (for example, the listener of the radio broadcast). This process is also known as “listening during one-sided communication”; d) The co-listener is not an addressee, he is a casual listener, who is not expected to respond. A candidate will appear before cognitive requirements of different levels according to the role, which he performs. For example, if he plays an active role of the conversation participant, he can recheck the meaning of the heard words by the reaction of other participants of the conversation. But at the same time, during the process of speaking, he must think of his own speech. This hampers him to understand the speech of an interlocutor. The role of the co-listener is problematic with regard to testing, as during listening to the conversation of the strangers, the co-listener does not have the knowledge of the situation and consituation, that may make it impossible to understand the conversation (Grotjan, 2000, P. 120; Brown, 1995, P.59; Paschke, 2001, P.151-165).

9. The specificities of the audiotext and the character of instructions of the tasks condition the difficulty of the tasks, accompanied by the listened text. For example, we should not select “polyvalent by content” “conceptually difficult” texts (Grotjan, 2000, P. 47) in order to check the listening skills. Other characteristic features of cognitive-conceptual difficulty of texts for listening are mentioned in the scientific literature and it is remarked that the texts are comparatively easy to understand for a candidate if:

- There is a small amount of the referents (individuals, objectives) given in these texts;
- The referents are clearly separated from each other;
- Local directions are less complex;
- The sequence of factual narration corresponds to the sequence of the events;
- It is not necessary to understand the listened as a result of complicated logical conclusions;
- The content of the text is coherent and clearly formulated (Brown, 1995).

Due to the above-mentioned difficulties the learners of foreign languages develop specific fear of understanding the speech in a foreign language which blocks the process of understanding.

Proceeding from the above said, a number of conclusions can be made to develop the skills of listening and draw up such tests in which the origin of the group of learners will be considered (from the point of view interference peculiarities), its homogeneous and heterogeneous character, the general language competence, lexico-grammatical and phonetic-phonological (in the first place, on the level of perception perceiving the sounds and words discriminating and indentifying them, developing the skill of recognizing and perceiving such phonetical phenomena as the stress melody, assimilation, reduction, etc., to be able to segment the oral text in a foreign language); also the skill of recognizing everyday authentic oral speech, its tempo and other important peculiarities. For the listeners who do not know the foreign language well we should choose a less spontaneous audiotext. Its less difficult accompanying assignments should be given beforehand. In the text that will be given for listening the elements of everyday speech must be presented with less frequency. We should not select, “conceptually difficult” texts, the style of listening must be mainly global and selective, with little background noise. As for the roles of the listeners for testing the role of an addressee or especially that of an auditor are preferable.

In a real communication situation the listener uses both the acoustic and visual channels. Therefore, proceeding from the situation (the place of communication, the people, taking part in the communication, their gestures and mimicry) he/she can understand the intention of the speaker better, and accordingly, perceive and remember, the received information better. If there is no visual component, it is considerably more difficult for the foreign language learner to understand what he hears. It is true, “that, the General European Framework of Reference pays attention to the relevance of the development of the audiovisual reception (with regard to films and television), in the tests, checking the understanding of what was listened to, the visual component remains beyond attention. Evidently, including the video material into the test is hampered due to technical organizational reasons, though, of course, including the visual component into the test, e.g. commercials, a segment of a film, etc. would make the test more objective (Ginther, 2002, P. 165-167). Part of the scholars think it expedient to use a dictation to check the skill of understanding of what one has listened to, and its integration into such assignments as the transfer of information, multiple choice, circling correct/wrong



answers, etc. (Buck, 2001, P. 73).

The question how many times a candidate should listen to the text has different answers in scholarly literature. We usually listen to the texts once in the process of real communication, but listening to the text once is not enough for the foreign language learner, especially at the initial stage of learning the language, for it is easier to understand speech in a real situation than to understand, the video tape. Therefore, the majority of scholars, think that a candidate should listen to the text twice while taking a test in “listening”; first globally, and a second time after, he/she has read the accompanying assignments, selectively or in detail (Bolton, 1996, P. 47). The workers of “the Institute of the Test of German as a foreign language” (later TestDaF) characterize the text of the test beforehand to make the description and assessment of the listening competence, objective. (according to its authentic character, the type of discourse, the subtype, volume, the lexicogrammatical complexity, the speech tempo, the distinctness of articulation and accent). They adjust the text, characterized in this way to some level of the reference framework. But adjusting both of the text of the test and the listening competence of the candidate to the levels of the reference framework cannot always be managed. On the one hand, it is impossible to observe the process of understanding the text that is being listened to, on the other, the concepts, given in the reference framework and describers (e.g. “the well-known themes,” “the text difficult by its content and language”, “distinctly articulated”, “to understand much by a slight effort”, “having difficulties”, “phonetical distinctness”, “a distinct character of oral expressions, etc.) do not properly describe the candidates competence or the text to be listened to.

While testing the candidate is offered to listen to three texts of increasing complexity. Before listening to them he/she must read the assignments, accompanying each text (all the three texts have 25 assignments.) the candidate listens to the first and second text only once. (answers the questions, put to the text, defines the correct and wrong variants). The candidate listens to the third text, which is more difficult twice. While listening for the first time or after listening, he/she answers the questions to the text briefly. Having listened to the text a second time he/she transfers the points of the assignments he/she has done to a special form.

While assessing the candidates performance, first the number of correct answers is counted, then with the assistance of the complex statistic method adjust the “listening skill of the candidate to one of the three levels of TestDaF. According to the 2004 version (TesDaF Institute 2004; Der TestDaF- Beschreibung der Niveaustufen) these levels are as follows:

1. (The candidate can understand oral texts, connected with the sphere of his/her everyday studies, both their meaning and their important details; the candidate can understand the text of interdiscipline scientific themes).
2. (The candidate can understand oral texts, connected with the sphere of his/her everyday studies, and also with interdiscipline scientific themes whose structure is oriented to the universal language.
3. (The candidate) can understand both the whole idea and the meaning of separate parts of the oral text, connected with the sphere of everyday studies and also with interdiscipline scientific themes, structured semantically and according to contents (Grotjan, 2005, P. 135-136).

Test DaF levels envision the hierarchy the type of texts, connected with the sphere of everyday studies, according to increasing complexity; 2. The texts of interdiscipline themes whose structure is oriented to the universal language and 3. the texts of interdiscipline scientific themes, having linguistic and complex content structure. Apart from that the levels differ from one another by the aim of listening as well.

The assessment of candidates according to the TesDaF levels is based on rather complicated closely connected processes. At the beginning the construct that does not submit to observations is given. It can be defined as the ability of understanding of what has been listened to in the academic context. This construct is characterized numerically, according to the quality of the text assignments, done by the candidate (this is already possible to observe). Finally, it becomes necessary to coordinate the numerical assessment of “the understanding of “what has been listened to” with scaled component according to its complexity. Thus, the objective assessment is related to both the numerical assessment of the ability of listening and the so called (candidate) “can” with the expression and its dimensions that have no connection with the test.

The assessment of “the understanding of what has been listened to” with the help of levels, compared with the numerical assessment of the ability of listening, is superior because real (veistandech) information about the quality of the test is given to the people who have conducted it. The question whether the assessment of the test is objective or not after discussing these complicated process still expects its answer from the re-



sults of future investigations.

Depending on the data of 2010 the Test Institute of German as a foreign language considers it expedient to add levels in the scales of the reference framework. The scale of understanding of what has been listened to consists of four vertical dimensions:

1. Understanding of what has been listened to in general;
2. To understand the speech of native speakers;
3. To understand the conversation when being a listener or a spectator;
4. To understand radio and video programs (GI, 2001, P. 71-73) the A 2+, B1+, B2+ levels are added

to the levels of competence of the horizontal dimensions, corresponding to these vertical dimensions (<<http://www.testdaf.de>>):

	Understanding the heard texts in general (The reference framework, P. 71)	To understand, the speech of a native speaker (The reference framework, P. 72)	Understanding the foreign speech, while being a listener, spectator (The reference framework, P. 72)	Understanding radio, video programs (The reference framework, P. 73)
A2+, can understand distinct slow speech to satisfy concrete demands			
B1+	In case he/she hears distinctly articulated speech with a familiar accent, he/she can understand business information that is easy to understand and that is connected with everyday or professional topics. Herewith he/she can perceive their separate information.		He/she can understand a report on his/her specialty if it is not delivered in a complicated form, and its theme is familiar.	He/she can understand the audi-recordings and radio broadcasts and the larger part of informational programs if the announcer speaks distinctly in a standard language.
B2+	He/she can understand the standard language during direct contacts or heard on the radio or television, if the conversation is about the topic he/she knows, concerning personal, social professional life or the sphere of education. The understanding is hampered by the use of idioms and the improper structures of discourse.	He/she can join the heated conversation of native speakers.		He/she can understand the standard, language from audio recordings the topics that are usual, in everyday life in professional life or in the sphere of educational. He/she can understand the ideas and positions of speakers.

Proceeding from the above-mentioned it can be said that the problems of understanding of what has been listened to are not fully revealed yet. Though the existing information can be used for the purposeful training to understand what is listened to at the lesson of a foreign language.

The reference framework is oriented to the study of several foreign languages. The learners should master these languages. The learners should master these languages on different competence levels. If the learned foreign language was considered to be a hampering factor in the process of mastering a new foreign language before, now on the contrary “teachers must use the language, learned before as the basis for a transfer”. Accordingly educational institutions should broaden the spectrum of the foreign languages to be learned and pay more attention to the description, learning and assessment of separate profiles of the language competence.



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ROLE AND FUNCTION OF META COMMUNICATION CONCEPT as NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION FOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

ABSTRACT

This paper examines and focuses on some issues and questions related to effective use of meta communication concept as nonverbal communication for teaching language as a foreign language by giving some language tips on how to teach meta-communicative items in the foreign language class. As is well-known, communicative language ability includes linguistic, pragmatic, discourse and strategic competences and a communicatively competent language learner is required to have these abilities to communicate in the target language.

“Meta Communication” is the process between message designers when they are talking about the learning process, as distinguished from their articulation of the “substantive” learning, itself. The hope is to increase the focus on the substantive knowledge and understanding being developed, by providing a separate channel for the support communication, and to do it in an easy, focused, and context aware manner (McLean, R. S. (2005). Verbal communication is supported by a raft of non-verbal signs and cues that reinforce what we are saying or clear up any ambiguities. For example, we may cross our arms when we feel threatened by what somebody else is saying, or we nod our heads when we agree with what s/he is saying. Nonverbal behaviors, whether they involve the hands, the eyes, or the muscle tone of the body, usually occur in packages or clusters in which the various verbal and non-verbal behaviors reinforce each other. Like verbal communication, nonverbal communication exists in a context, and that context determines to a large extent the meanings of any nonverbal behaviors. The same nonverbal behavior may have a totally different meaning when it occurs in another context. It is also important to mention culture in teaching meta-communication as the nonverbal behaviors are generally culture specific. Although nonverbal communication gives clues to what speakers are thinking about or enhances what they are saying, cultural differences may also interfere with understanding a message (e.g., Pennycook, 1985).

Thus, there can be misunderstandings in communication. It is essential to remember that the meta-communication which accompanies any message is very powerful. The receiver will use these clues to help them to interpret what you mean, but more importantly they will often take the meaning from the meta-communication rather than from the words themselves, particularly when what you are saying conflicts with what you are doing. Hence, understanding or interpreting nonverbal messages accurately is especially important for second/foreign language (L2) learners whose comprehension skill is more limited. Since meta-communication is creating meanings to solve relationships of body language (Demiray, 2009), listening and speaking teachers may also concentrate on exposing students to the samples of body language, gesture, facial expressions, posture, eye-gaze and interpersonal distance by showing authentic videos of real life use.

INTRODUCTION

Communication not only lies at the heart of the teaching process, but it also emerges as the most basic requirement of a liveliness and existence. In fact, “living is to communicate” in a sense. The humankind, since



his/her species began to live as a social being, has used communication for maintaining his/her liveliness, for sharing what they have produced, for transferring some of his/her values, settled opinions, knowledge to the coming generations. Its history begins with the history of humankind. We live in a kind of message web at every moment in our everyday lives except for the sleep, ringing of the alarm clock, the sound of the azan coming from loudspeaker, shouting of the salespersons in the street, billboards, while greeting each other, in schools, on the street, while turning the heads, maintaining attitudes and so on. It would be a great mistake to describe communication as being static; it should rather be defined as a process. The transferring of knowledge, emotion, opinion, attitude or beliefs with behaviors, from one person to another (between the source and the receiver), by using some channels that aims at change, occurs as a process rather than having a static and fixed form and quality.

In other words, communication is a process of transferring information from one entity to another. Communication processes are sign-mediated interactions between at least two agents, which share a repertoire of signs, and semiotic rules. Communication is commonly defined as "the imparting or interchange of thoughts, opinions, or information by speech, writing, or signs". Although there is such a thing as one-way communication, communication can be perceived better as a two-way process in which there is an exchange and progression of thoughts, feelings or ideas (energy) towards a mutually accepted goal or direction -information- (Schwartz and et. al., 2008, p. 129). Since the process indicates dynamism all the time from moment to moment with the framework of its own rules and communication structures as a process, it entirely has a dynamic structure by the cause of its existence. Therefore, what must be understood from the suggestion? It should be understood that, communication is circular process for the better quality of communication.

FORMS OF COMMUNICATION:

NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION versus VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Communication is a process whereby information is enclosed in a package and is channeled and imparted by a sender to a receiver via some medium. The receiver then decodes the message and gives to the sender as a feedback. All forms of communication require a sender, a message, and a receiver. Communication requires that all parties have a space of communicative commonality. There are auditory means, such as speech, song, and tone of voice, and there are nonverbal means, such as body language, sign language, paralanguage, touch, eye contact, as well as writing.

Communication is thus a process by which meaning is assigned and conveyed in an attempt to create a shared understanding. This process requires a vast repertoire of skills in intrapersonal and interpersonal processing, listening, observing, speaking, questioning, analyzing, and evaluating. It is through communication that collaboration and cooperation occurs (available from and retrieved on 06.07.2011 <http://www.k12.wa.us/CurriculumInstruct/Communications/default.aspx>).

Over time, technology has progressed and has created new forms and ideas about communication. These technological advances revolutionized the processes of communication. Researchers determine that communication was transformed in three revolutionary stages that are:

1. The 1st Information Communication Revolution, in which the first written communication began, with pictographs.
2. The 2nd Information Communication Revolution, in which writing began to appear on paper, papyrus, clay, wax, etc. Common alphabets were introduced, allowing the uniformity of language across large distances.
3. The 3rd Information Communication Revolution, in which information can be transferred via controlled waves and electronic signals.

The complicated nature of communication results from its relatedness to human nature. Essentially, communication skills are particularly important when communicating or contacting with people who are very sensitive to verbal and nonverbal nuances due to their emotional distress. Communication always develops in a given situation or context. If the subject, the speaker talks about and the situation he/she is in is not known pre-



cisely or the context in which a message is transferred is not understood, the meanings may not be clearly conceived and may be analyzed wrongly. It is possible to categorize communication depending upon various criteria such as the number of participants, materials and medium that is used. Communication can be categorized structurally into two according to the codes used in it:

- Verbal Communication which contains oral-audial and written items and
- Nonverbal Communication

Verbal Communication

The basis of communication is the interaction between people. Verbal communication is the most well known way for people to communicate face-to-face. Some of the key components of verbal communication are sound, words, speaking, and language (available from http://www.cobweb2.louisville.edu/faculty/regbruce/bruce//mgmtwebs/commun_f98/Verbal.htm retrieved on 06.07.2011).

While the term "verbal communication" seems almost self-explanatory, it is indeed far more complex in its appearance. By definition, verbal communication includes not only oral discussions, but also written messages and mediated communications. The most apparent type of verbal communication is oral, and a number of examples of oral communication are readily available. Speeches, presentations and announcements are all forms of verbal communication, as well as casual conversations between friends.

In addition to standard verbal communication, most communication models also include verbal feedback from the receiver, which may be in the form of questions or comments, but also in shorter forms such as "Yes" or even a nondescript "Uh-huh."

While specific examples of oral verbal communication are virtually unlimited, any conversation involving at least a receiver and a sender that are using spoken words can be considered an example of verbal communication. While it may seem counterintuitive, written communication is deemed as a form of verbal communication, under most commonly accepted definitions of the term. For this reason, a plethora of seemingly nonverbal communication forms can be used as examples of verbal communication, including written letters, memos, newsletters, newspapers, journals and even personal notes. Textbooks, novels and other literature also serve as examples of verbal communication, because they use words as the medium through which a message is conveyed. Even though the field of mediated communication is a separate branch of communication study, it contains examples of both verbal and nonverbal communications. Most World Wide Web content consists of either typed text or videos, both of which rely heavily on verbal communication to convey their messages.

Likewise, webcasts and other online interactive media use verbal communication, as do emails, telnet sessions and newsgroup postings. Mediated communication does not stop with the Internet, of course; television broadcasts use a combination of verbal and nonverbal communication, and radio broadcasts rely on verbal communication (Evans, 2010).

Crucial components of verbal communication include language, sound, words and speaking. The emphasis in verbal communication is the act of speaking. Words alone are not enough to put across the gravity of the message or the real meaning. The uttering part makes verbal communication a distinct type. Basically intent or purpose of verbal communication is to provide the necessary information and direction.

When a person employs verbal communication, he delivers information. Speaking about something means clarifying or stating how things are. Thus, there is the direction part. Through verbal communication, it's possible to direct perception into certain thoughts and meaning and people have the ability to manipulate things using words (available from and retrieved on 05.07.2011 http://www.ehow.com/about_6763748_difference-between-verbal-nonverbal-communication.htm).

Nonverbal Communication

A person may use his/her body language effectively in everyday life intentionally or unintentionally and mostly unconsciously. Beyond that, a person can not control his/her body as he/she controls the words. Our body gives much more spontaneous reactions against events or situations. It is possible to hide our actual feelings and thoughts behind the words; however it is most of the time not possible to conceal our body language.



A good listener perceives not only the words of the person with whom he/she communicates, but also the things he/she has performed by his/her face, hand, arm and body. Because, communication is possible by using nonverbal messages such as facial expressions, hand and arm movements, posture of the body, tone of the voice. In fact in such forms of communication, only a little part of the message interaction is made up of verbal messages.

At this point, the question of how to define nonverbal communication should be touched upon. It is possible to make various definitions with different perspectives. It is possible to come across some approaches that define a communicational form beyond verbal, and enacts not by words or voice, but any other thing such as body language, facial expression, way of dressing and environmental factors while communicating. This form of communication consists of the codes which occur naturally such as intonation, facial expressions, mimics, gestures, body movements, colours, accessories. In other words, it consists of the communication codes made up of nonverbal signs, involves also the voices other than words. A given situation or context, is a dynamic process in which, nonverbal behaviors are performed individually or as a group together with verbal behaviours during the exchange, interpretation or analysis of meanings.

Nonverbal behaviours, experiences and communication occurs all day long on TV, in cinema, radio, newspapers, magazines, during speeches that take place in front of a community, private meetings, classrooms, in short in every field and at every moment of life and they are effective. They are enacted to identify definite behaviours or codes of nonverbal communication and help people to improve their communication skills.

There are five major characteristics of nonverbal communication: it is present in most interpersonal communication; it often conveys more information than verbal communication; it is usually believed to be more effective than verbal communication; it is a primary means of communicating emotions and finally, it is meta communication.

Nonverbal communication engages in most of our senses, therefore we experience many different forms. Nonverbal communication involves **facial** -displays, identity, attraction, emotion-, **eye behaviors** -eye contact and pupil size-, **movement and gestures** -emblems, illustrators, affect display, regulators, adaptors-, **touch behaviors** -affection, care giving, power and control, aggression, ritual-, **vocal behaviors** -pitch, inflection, volume, rate, filler words, accent, silence, etc., **the use of smell** -memories and sexual attraction-, **the use of space** -four distances-intimate, personal, social, and public-, **physical appearance**-attractiveness=positive qualities-, **the use of time** -send messages of value and power **the use of artifacts** -selection and **placement of objects, use of light**, as well as **use of color**.

Nonverbal communication intends to put more meaning into verbal communication. In some cases, the use of words or manipulation is not enough to emphasize the emotions or thoughts behind the message. The use of other objects, facial expressions and hand gestures provides a different kind of clarity. Nonverbal communication provides clues and hints to the real meaning behind the words used (http://www.ehow.com/about_6763748_difference-between-verbal-nonverbal_communication.htm available and retrieved on 06.07.2011).

Nonverbal vs. Verbal Communication

It is widely debated which form of communication is more persuasive and the underlying reasons by scholars. It seems that verbal communication is seen as a more persuasive form in general and that nonverbal communication exists just to supplement verbal communication. But also, some are wondering whether if these two forms are equally effective on their own ways. Verbal communication is about the content, and can be persuasive depending on how it articulates, proof, logic and emotional appeal. Whether or not verbal communication is persuasive depends largely on the bias and receptiveness of the listener. Non verbal communication is separate from content, and communicates vocally through pitch, tone, cadence and motion, like posture, physical appearance, gesture, and facial expression.

Unlike verbal communication, perceptions based on non verbal communication tend to be qualitative and descriptive, like honesty, confidence, intelligence, authority, and credibility. However, it is not possible to persuade anyone for anything without verbal communication, because there must always be a message. Despite all these, we may still argue that in the presence of a truly unbiased and receptive listener, nonverbal



communication can be the main tipping point to decide, whether the person across knows what he is talking about or not. Precisely because nonverbal messages are more primitive, uncontrollable, believable, continuous, unstructured, they are more efficiently and widely understandable.

Similarities between verbal and nonverbal messages are symbolic, individually produced and subject to interpretation. While both verbal and nonverbal communication serves as reflections of people's thoughts, ideas and emotions, they vary in the extent of use. For instance, nonverbal communication is imprecise and explains certain things, but maybe not in its entire complexity. Verbal communication can explain complex ideas because the use of words and speaking are the main forms of communication that people use to get any message across. Regardless of how complex the idea is, people can always explain it verbally. Further, nonverbal communication is only possible within a certain distance.

Unless there is some form of video conversation, nonverbal communication cannot be applied over great distance. Verbal communication does not exactly need visuals to be able to convey thoughts. Therefore, verbal communication can transmit factual information whereas, nonverbal cannot (available and retrieved on 06.07.2011 http://www.ehow.com/about_6763748_difference-between-verbal-nonverbal_communication.htm).

In what comes next, we will develop 'meta communication' as a concept to convey the ways in which these two forms of communication may indeed envelop on each other in multiplicity of ways in order to think further on the ways in which this meta communicative strategies could be useful in the teaching process.

META COMMUNICATION as a CONCEPT

The prefix can have various meanings but as used in communication, philosophy and psychology its meaning is best recognized as *about*. Thus, *meta communication* refers to communication about communication; *meta-language* is language about language; *meta-message* is a message about a message. In the same way, you can use language (i.e., meta-language) to talk about language (i.e., object language). And you can talk about your messages with meta-messages.

For example, when you send someone an e-mail with a seemingly sarcastic comment and then put a smiley at the end, the smiley communicates about your communication; it says something like "this message is not to be taken literally; I'm trying to be humorous." The smiley is a meta-message; it's a message about a message. When you say, in preface to some comment, "I'm not sure about this but...." you're communicating a message about a message; you're commenting on the message and asking that it be understood with the qualification that you may be wrong. When you conclude a comment with "I'm only kidding" you're meta-communicating; you're communicating about the communication.

"Every communication has a content and relationship aspect to such an extent that the latter classifies the former and is therefore a meta-communication." Each person responds to the *content* of communication in the *context* of the relationship between the communicators. The word meta communication is used in many different ways, but Watzlawick uses it to refer to the exchange of information about how to interpret other information (http://www.im.ovgu.de/im_media/downloads/lehre/ws1011/l_deckers/Watzlawick+5+Axioms.pdf). Just as the interpretation of the words "What an idiot you are" could be influenced by the following words "Just kidding", it could also be influenced by the relationship between the communicators. In the example given, the word "idiot" might be accepted quite happily from a close friend, but convey an entirely different meaning in other circumstances (Coates, 2009).

De Vito (2000) suggests that for a message to have meaning, both elements, verbal and nonverbal, need to be present. He defines nonverbal communication as communicating without words: "You communicate non-verbally when you gesture, smile or frown, widen your eyes, move your chair closer to someone, wear jewelry, touch someone, raise your vocal volume, or even when you say nothing" (DeVito, 2000, p. 130). According to DeVito, meta communication is "communication that refers to other communications" (2001, p.136). In other words, meta communication is talking about 'talk' or 'communication'.

For example, if two married people sit-down to talk about an argument they just had, they are meta communicating because they are talking about the communication that happened in the argument. Meta communication can be communication about both verbal and nonverbal communication. If a girlfriend is talking to



her boyfriend and she complains that her boyfriend does not seem to be listening to her and judging from his lack of eye contact (nonverbal communication), then the girlfriend is meta-communicating because she is talking about her boyfriend's nonverbal communication.

'Meta communication' is therefore something that occurs 'in addition to the communication' and we must always be aware of its existence. It is essential to remember that the meta communication which accompanies any message is very powerful. The receiver will use these clues to help them to interpret what you mean, but more importantly they will often take the meaning from the meta communication rather than from the verbal words themselves, particularly when what one is saying conflicts with what he/she is doing. If, for example, you are angry but trying to hide your anger, you must be aware of your body posture, the way you use your eyes, gestures and facial expressions, and the tone of your voice, which may well give you away. Similarly, in writing, the 'tone of your voice' may show, show your attitude/character. In addition meta communication is to create meanings by solving relationships of body language (Demiray, 2009).

KNOWLEDGE BUILDING PROCESS WHILE LEARNING AND TEACHING

To understand knowledge building process it is essential to distinguish learning -"the process through which the cultural capital of a society is made available to successive generations" from knowledge building- "the deliberate effort to increase the cultural capital". This, in turn, requires distinguishing knowledge building from a broad range of activities that share its constructivist underpinnings, but not its focus on the creation of new knowledge. These include collaborative learning, guided discovery, project-based learning, and communities of learners, communities of practice, and anchored instruction, distance learning as well as learning a foreign language. Knowledge building teaches students how to develop a repertoire of skills that allow them to become experts in the art of learning, a skill that, once developed, can be used across their academic and working lives. In a knowledge-building environment, structured assignments can assist learning for students, rather than teachers, are invested with the individual and collective responsibility to identify holes in their knowledge, develop plans to close them, and assess progress in attaining their goals.

Learning needs, discovered through structured assignments, which determine the activities students perform in order to master a specific subject. Knowledge building may bridge the chasm between the classroom and the corporation, because it allows students to develop the skills involved in learning, thinking critically and working co-operatively with others (available from and retrieved on 08.07.2011, <http://www.ccl-cca.ca/CCL/Reports/LessonsInLearning/>). The same principles apply to learning a foreign language as well.

DYNAMICS OF KNOWLEDGE BUILDING PROCESS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH META COMMUNICATION

The dynamics of knowledge building process has social aspects such as the creation of public knowledge. In contrast to knowledge situated within the individual mind (the traditional concern of education) and knowledge situated in the practice of groups (the concern of situated cognition and communities of practice), public knowledge has an out-in-the-world character. Public knowledge can itself become an object of inquiry and the basis for further knowledge building. Thus there is the possibility of a knowledge building dynamic that drives the continual creation and advancement of new knowledge. What makes knowledge building a realistic approach to education is the discovery that children as early as grade one can engage in it. Thus there is a clear developmental link running from childhood education on into advanced education and adult knowledge work, in which the same process is carried out at increasingly high levels (available from and retrieved on 03.07.2011, <http://iikit.org/kb.html>)

Like all your communication, your meta communication may be used both effectively and ineffectively. Generally, it's helpful to analyze your talking patterns and the ways in which you and your partner or management and workers, say, relate to each other. This is good; this is the effective use of meta communication and can often lead to significant improvements in your own relationships. But, when you substitute talking about your communication for talking about a problem, you're likely to create more problems than you had originally.



The conversation (and soon-to-be argument) is now between the parents and their view of each other. When this type of talk becomes the sole or main topic of conversation, you're into what is called a *meta communication spiral*, with your talk focusing more and more on the ways you talk and less and less on the problem of the child. So, the lessons to be learned from meta communication are two fold: Use meta communication to improve your interpersonal and relationship communication -to preface important messages or to analyze and ultimately improve relationship communication- for example, and avoid meta communication when it substitutes for addressing an immediate problem (available from and retrieved on 07.07.2011 <http://tcbdevito.blogspot.com>).

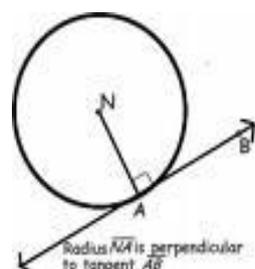
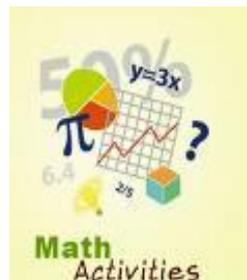
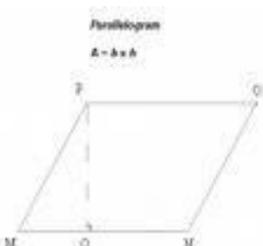
As it is mentioned above the most important phase in building knowledge-is using meta communicational element. We can discuss many examples as meta communicational elements in education materials which are produced for traditional or distance education environments, domestically and universally. But we should discuss the exact universal examples here rather than domestic ones. For example let's look at the traffic education course. Some symbols talk us universally.



For example "DO NOT HORN", means not disturb here, please be careful, there is some sensitive thing around here like school, hospital etc. The meanings of these symbols and their function for our life with correct running of the traffic system talk us from various aspects of possibilities as described by the teachers. Also this would mean to discuss with learners for receiving their critics and thoughts during this traffic education period. Learning of other signs and rules of traffic education are similar on using meta communication process and its function. Since, we have to learn and teach these certain rules and values via signs and symbols by the same

meaning. These meanings do not change in different societies or in between different regions of the same society. In this context maybe life sciences have more advantages than the social ones like history, philosophy, geography or literature. In social sciences terms and concepts appear more abstract and we have to think more in abstract terms. However the terms of life sciences like chemistry, physics or math have more definite signs, symbols and icons for their contents. So that we can use meta communicational elements more often and also functionally while producing educational materials in instruction for these fields.

Other examples are useful to clarify understanding of meta communication concept and its function in life long learning process with our daily life. For example, some signs dealt with disabled person which are conveniently understand each others in same the meaning of parking for disabled person, toilet for disabled person, meal for disabled person, path for disabled person, reserve for disabled person, line for disabled person which we can meet anywhere. The word 'disabled' is unnecessary. We understand meaning of these symbols very briefly and then behave how it is necessary in social perspective.





Let's have look deeper to examples from the math course world. Usually 2×2 is 4 or $2+2=4$ in every corner of the world or to take area of square into consideration can be formulating square of on side length in everywhere (Reynard, 2009).

Another example deals with etiquettes. Etiquettes are practicing in good manners or to know how to behave in given situation and to know how to interact with the people or others. Proper etiquette helps you make a great first impression and stand out in a competitive with others. From point of communication science, etiquettes have meta communicational function in communication process. In this process etiquettes are verbally have a meaning dealt with what you say and how you say it and nonverbally Etiquette has a handshake, posture, eye contact, facial expressions meaning, In other words etiquette is defined as the forms, manners, and ceremonies established by convention as acceptable or required in social relations, in a profession or in official life.

Textbooks make claims about how meta communication betters relationships in various ways; however, research is not cited to uphold such claims. Therefore, since studies in the past have not examined the possible link between meta communication and relationship satisfaction within romantic relationships, a relationship between the two concepts must be addressed and tested (Alexander, 1972). Although online learning offers a more direct mode of communication between the learner and the instructor than in many in-class situations, many students and educators feel that a deeper interaction is needed to feel part of a group dynamic online. However, does this actually help the student learn, feel part of the class, and control the attrition rate? What value does a photograph add to online learning? (Hand, 2000).

The knowledge builder must have the knowledge and experience of various forms of activities such as reviewing Experience, attitude Questions, finding Things Out, finding and using Information, role Play, preparing Written Information and problem solving and planning action: (Rashid, 1998).

Indeed same principles may apply to teaching English as a foreign language, therefore this process could be enhanced by use of meta communicative techniques. In order to develop this argument, first we need to consider the structure and system of 'language' as a social phenomena briefly and show the ways in which 'English' language came to be a commonly learned and spoken language in our global world.

ROLE AND FUNCTION OF META COMMUNICATION CONCEPT FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

Language may refer either to the specifically human capacity for acquiring and using complex systems of communication, or to a specific instance of such a system of complex communication (available from and retrieved on 03.07.2011, <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language>). People have always been interested in learning a language by using linguistic or extra linguistic means of communication. Learning a language involves:

- Paralinguistic and extra linguistic means of communication (i.e. the function of gestures, mime, prosody, etc.).
- Linguistic means of communication (including knowledge about items belonging to the levels of phonology/graphology, morphology, syntax, lexis).
- Pragmatic and discourse knowledge (e.g. knowledge how to express speech acts by linguistic and paralinguistic means, knowledge about the structure of different discourse types, knowledge about co-occurrence restrictions on speech acts (possible adjacency pairs).
- Socio-interactive knowledge, refers to the knowledge on general social rules for interaction in a given society or situation (Faerch & Kasper, 1986).

By metacommunicating we imply the learners' activity in analysing, monitoring and evaluating those knowledge systems implicit within the various text-types confronting him during learning. Such metacommunication occurs within the communicative performance of the classroom as a sociolinguistic activity in its own right. Through this ongoing communication and metacommunication, learners not only



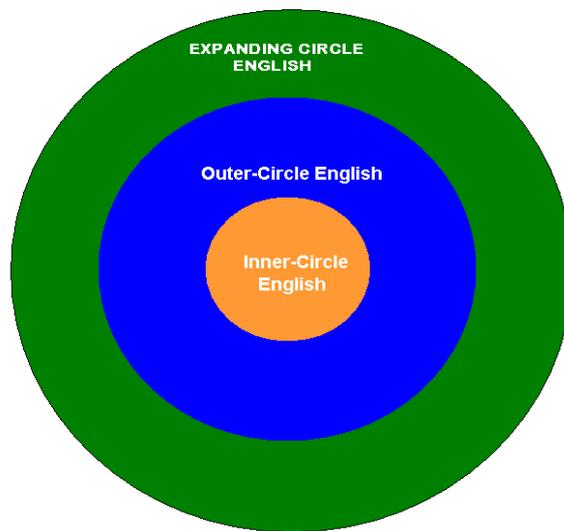
become participants in the procedures and activities, they may also become critically sensitised to the potential and richness of the unified system of knowledge, affects and abilities upon which their communication depends (Breen & Candlin, 1980). Metacommunicative function indicates how the referential meaning of a message is to be interpreted and it relates to the speaker's subjective intentions or the hearer's subjective interpretation thereof when using the code. Nonverbal communication which involves conveying messages to an audience through body movements, head nods, hand-arm gestures, facial expressions, eye gaze, posture, and interpersonal distance can be given as an example of meta communication (Kellerman, 1992). Goldin-Meadow (1999) suggested that "gesture serves as both a tool for communication for listeners, and a tool for thinking for speakers". For speakers, gestures facilitate retrieval of words from memory and reduce cognitive burden. For listeners, they can facilitate comprehension of a spoken message (e.g., Cassell, McNeill, & McCullough, 1999) and convey thoughts not present in speech. Although nonverbal communication gives clues to what speakers are thinking about or enhances what they are saying, cultural differences may interfere with understanding a message (e.g., Pennycook, 1985). Facial expressions in Korean culture are different from those in Western cultures in terms of subtlety.

Perceptiveness in interpreting others' facial expressions and emotions is an important element of non-verbal communication (Yum, 1987). In Japan, gestures and facial expressions sometimes serve social functions such as showing politeness, respect, and formality. Bowing or looking slightly downward shows respect for the interlocutor (Kagawa, 2001). Engaging eye contact is often considered rude in Asia culture.

Various studies with native speakers have shown that the presence of gestures with a verbal message brings a positive outcome to both speakers and listeners. Morrel-Samuels and Krauss (1992) found that a gesture functions as a facilitator to what a speaker intends to say. In narration, gestures are synchronized with speech and are conveyed right before or simultaneously with a lexical item. They facilitate negotiation of meaning and help speakers to recall lexical items faster (Hadar, Wenkert-Olenik, Krauss, & Soroket, 1998). Gestures are particularly effective for listeners when the intelligibility of the speech is reduced, as in noisy conditions. Other studies focusing on gesture use by L2 learners have found that those learning English as an L2 in a naturalistic setting have the benefit of greater exposure to nonverbal communication features such as gestures and tend to acquire more native-like nonverbal behaviors in contrast to learners of English as a foreign language (EFL; McCafferty & Ahmed, 2000). Learners also use more gestures when producing L2 English than their L1s (e.g., Gullberg, 1998).

Learners with higher proficiency, perhaps in conjunction with more L2 exposure and interaction experience (McCafferty & Ahmed, 2000), might have a greater ability to use gestures as one of their communication strategies. Nonverbal cues may play an important role in interactions that promote interlanguage (interlingua) development for L2 learners by facilitating negotiation and comprehension as well as output (Sueyoshi, A. & D. M. Hardison, 2005).

English, as the most commonly spoken language across the world, has become an international language in the course of time. Kachru (1985) classifies the spread of English in three circles. The first one is inner circle which illustrate the conventional essence of English. The United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia are inner circle countries. The other category is the outer circle which refers to the countries where English is taught as a second language because of the official status given to English. People living in these countries such as Nigeria, Hong Kong, Pakistan, Singapore and India have to learn English because they will need it in a state office anyhow. In other words, people have a chance to use English every time and everywhere in these countries. The last category is called expanding circle which involves the areas where English language is not used for official purposes, but rather as an international language and taught in institutions of education. Learners' interaction in English is limited to school environments and they do not have many chances to communicate in English in their daily lives. Some of these countries can be lined up as Turkey, Greece, France, Germany and Japan.



Kachru's "Circles" Theory

A new term has come into existence by the spread of English worldwide. English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) can be described as an international medium of communication which has no native speakers and no proper culture of its own to speak of (Alptekin, 2011). Alptekin says that ELF is everyone's property and lacks idioms, puns, connotations, slang, humour, and culture-specific pragmatic dimensions. As the forms and conventions of ELF transforms and transpositions in speech acts and cultural contexts and interact and influence one another, each variety itself becomes multicultural in the process and gradually fosters a multicultural identity among its speakers (Brutt-Griffler, 2002). Jenkins (2004) claims that learners need to learn not only variety of English, but about Englishes; their similarities and differences; issues involved in intelligibility; the strong links between language and identity rather than conforming to a native standard such as British English.

Today it is possible to mention about Chinese English, Japanese English, Thai English which have different syntactic, lexical and meta communicative characteristics. As Smith (1983) states no one needs to become more like the Americans, the British, the Australians, the Canadians or any other English speaker in order to lay claim on the language.

No matter what kind of English that aimed at teaching, we cannot escape the need to decide on the variety or varieties which students are exposed to and have to learn.

The choice seems to be between adopting one (perhaps native speaker) variety, or, raising students' awareness and 'plucentricity', so that they can adjust their speech 'in order to be intelligible to interlocutors from a wide range of L1 backgrounds, most of whom are not inner circle native speakers' (Harmer, 2007). Harmer further claims that for beginner students, whether from the inner circle or from anywhere else, presenting the language in its variety will be an appropriate pedagogical model. As the students become more advanced, the variety's richness – including metaphors and idioms- should also be offered in order to make them absorb better, unless they are not too culture-specific. Jenkins states that (2004) our students should be made more and more aware of different Englishes as they become more advanced.

The more students are exposed to the varieties of meta communicative elements, the better they can understand and be aware of varieties of English language. Meta communicative abilities may serve students as an effective method to allow the students to systematically examine texts in a critical manner. Here it is inevitable to mention about critical thinking. From a practical perspective, Haskins (2006:2) states that critical thinking is "a process by which we use our knowledge and intelligence to effectively arrive at the most reasonable and justifiable positions on issues, and which endeavors to identify and overcome the numerous hindrances to rational thinking." A critical thinker, according to Birjandi & Bagherkazemi (2010:137), is someone who among other characteristics:



- has a strong inclination to notice the prominence of good thinking;
- describes problems and concentrates on related topics and issues;
- differentiates between logical and illogical inferences;
- postpones judgments and decisions in the absence adequate proof;
- comprehends the difference between logical reasoning and rationalizing;
- knows that one's comprehension is restricted and that there are degrees of belief;
- distinguishes between facts, views and suppositions;
- watches out for authoritarian effects and specious assertions;
- predicts the results of alternative actions.

It should be stated that critical thinkers are also good at understanding meta communicative concepts and use them in communicating in the target language. Good language learners make guesses about the language, use reasoning and they are good at making inferences.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

As is emphasized in the text, meta-communication is a very important, powerful and functional concept during knowledge building for preparation of the course materials in education field. In this meaning, concept is becoming a more carefully designing course for language learners. Good language learners are the ones who can understand and use meta communicative elements in communicating in English. The more students are exposed to meta communicative elements, the better they can understand the dynamics of good communication skills.

The implications of such a method that makes use of critical thinking and meta communication will accompany teachers who inform their students that other nations are also using English as an official language. Some other supportive techniques and strategies may be developed as well. For instance, teachers may bring some videos to the class on which Indians, Africans and other people from different nationalities using English either as a foreign or second language. In this way, students will better understand the internationality and multiplicity of the ways in which English language is performed through different agents across cultures. Most of the students and teachers think that the USA and the UK impose their culture via their language. Teachers may bring reading texts related to the other cultures just to show that English can be used as a tool to learn something that is not related to the USA and the UK culture. Teachers may bring extra reading texts apart from the ones in their course book materials to familiarize students with other cultures and make them competent interculturally (Tomak 2011). By doing so, students will also improve their intercultural competence by acquiring information about other cultures as well.

Teachers can create a holistic environment (by not focusing exclusively on language forms), they can interact naturally with the meaning students want to create. In this experimental curriculum native speakers may be invited to enroll in the class or assist in the lessons.

Teachers may create blogs or carry out online activities as well in order to support and develop students' critical thinking capacities. English textbooks and materials should be written which reflect other cultures and identities so the students can engage in relating the texts books into their own cultural terms and expressing their identity rather than mimicking the others. By gaining awareness of meta communicative aspects of target language, students may communicate with other speakers of English whether they use English as ESL, EFL or ELF.

In conclusion, curriculum developers and material designers may discuss their educational course materials for re-building (at any level such as printed, audio, visual, electronic and verbal) from point of function of meta communication and knowledge building theory perspectives according to recent developments and learners' needs. Lesson materials and course books may be prepared to include instances of meta communication in order to raise students' awareness. Students may be exposed to natural language use by ESL, EFL and ELF learners. They may be helped to be critical thinkers by applying language learning strategies.



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Strategies of language learning and analysis of its actuality in case of Georgian, as the way of improvement the second language learning

ABSTRACT

Learning strategy and their utilization is the constant process that is employed by the student in order to make own language learning process and outcomes more effective. More specifically this is a process which encompasses chain of different actions, sequent steps and techniques being fulfilled consciously and having most significant results while acquiring second language. The learning strategies include but are not limited by focusing on the specific aspects of received information; monitoring and analysis of acquisition process; elaboration and organization of new information during the encoding period; evaluation of fulfilled practice and raising confidence in effectiveness of learning as a tool to allay anxiety.

Exploring and applying of learning strategies has been prominent shift within the field of education over the last years that pursue to transform interrelationship between the teachers and student while putting greater emphasis on learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching methods applying in the classroom. Moreover, according to contemporary researches, the learning strategies and their comprehensive usage may reduce the negative influence of and dependence on quality of textbooks, methodological and supplementary learning materials and teachers for learning of L2 proficiently. There is rather meaningful to consider the correlation between the choosing learning strategy and individual behavior and emotional character of learner to comprehend correct plan for exploiting of effective strategy.

The represented research aims to describe and argue taxonomies by different researchers, study linkages between the individual qualities of different focus groups and choice of Georgian as a L2 learning strategy. At the same time the article analyzes an interrelationship between the strategies employed by the different learners and concept of 'good language learners'. And finally, the article proposes learning strategies which are based on the study results and are appropriate for rational utilization of resources for sophisticated outcomes in the classroom.

Growing interest in research of learning strategies is evident from 70s. One of the main reason that's why scientists became interested in learning strategies are the ways and methods that pupils use in processing, memorizing and retrieving the new information about the foreign language. Scientists are concerned to find out the driving factors that determine the success and the failure of different learners while learning foreign language. This means to determine those factors which make variations among different abilities of language learners. According to Williams and Burden (1997) answers to these questions are becoming rather simpler if we analyze the importance and influence of distinctive learning strategies, from that logically follows that scientists attach a great importance to analyzing the learning strategies in education psychology and in foreign language learning methodologies. Still it is important, how scientists define the learning strategies?

According to Wenden's view "learning strategies are the collection of activities that individuals use to help them understand the functions and importance of language learning." Rigney and Rubin (1978) consider that the learning strategies are the collection of special behaviors, activities and techniques that are aimed at improving the results and the language learning processes itself.

Far more interesting is the Oxford definition (Oxford, 1992/1993, p. 18) as the "Oxford Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, SILL" is one of the significant instrument for analyzing the language learning strategies. It presents detailed structured model that are basis for modern research



methods and techniques. According to Oxford the language learning strategies are aimed activities that make learning simpler, fast and pleasant. Also it adds effectiveness and ability of transformation of knowledge to pupils in different situations. It is interesting to review twelve learning strategies published by Oxford. According to Oxford the main aspects of learning strategies are:

1. Supports achieving the main aim and helps to develop communicational competencies
2. Enables to pupil to manage and control learning process by himself or herself
3. Changes the role of teachers
4. Is focused on problems
5. Consists of special actions, that pupil are using in learning
6. Covers not only the cognitive aspects but other aspects as well
7. Improves learning process by including a direct and an indirect methods
8. In certain cases cannot be monitored or observed
9. In most cases in mind driven
10. It is impossible to cognize them
11. It is distinguishable by the features of flexibility and the simple adaptation mechanism
12. It is multi factorial process

If we analyze the features of learning strategies by Oxford we will to conclude that these strategies are not only directed to develop language competencies but also general cognitive competencies, that results in improving of learning capacities of learning in other academic fields as well. In such situation it naturally raises the interest of studying Georgian as the second language by ethnical minorities. Especially in conditions when active state reforms have taken place accompanied by the developing of positive attitude from ethnical minorities toward Georgian language learning. this trend has been rising in recent years. by the survey of Development Agency in 2011 was revealed that 92 percent from interview people think that all the citizens of Georgia must know the state language. Majority of them expects positive feedback from non Georgian citizens towards learning Georgian language. 82,9 percent from of non ethical Georgians in the region of Georgia Kvemo Kartli and 62,2 percent in the region of Samckhe Javakheti think that learning Georgian is essential for them.

Fundamentals of classification of language learning strategies were created even from the 50-70s of the previous century. This was related to the problems of teaching English as the second language for nonnative speakers. There are a number of models that use the different classifications of language learning strategies but are united under one aim of rising effectiveness in language learning. Let us review some of the important directions of classification:

language learning strategy classification	Researcher, period
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Active task approach 2. Realization of the language as a system 3. Realization of the language as a means for communication and interaction 4. Management of active demands 5. Monitoring of L2 performance 	Naiman et al. 1978
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Strategies that directly affect leaning : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classification/verification • Monitoring • Memorization • Guessing/inductive inferencing • Deductive reasoning • Practice 2. Processes that contribute indirectly to learning: 	Rubin 1981



<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creates opportunities for practice • Production tricks 	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Cognitive strategies 2. Meta cognitive strategies 3. Social-affective strategies 	Brown and Palinscar 1982
<p>Direct strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Memory strategies; • Cognitive strategies; • Compensation strategies <p>Indirect strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meta cognitive strategies • Affective strategies • Social strategies 	Oxford 1990
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Meta cognitive (Self-assessing) 2. Cognitive (Deductive) 3. Social-Affective (Cooperative) 	Cohen and Chi 2002a,

It is unquestionable that every model is interesting and in case of practical application of them yields some positive effects. As Oxford model is the most divers and includes many directions of learning strategies we will review Oxfords model by considering each features of strategic group:

1. **Cognitive:** it is mental strategy that is directed to understand the reasons of learning. Such strategies enable learners to manipulate directly using language materials. Learner reorganizes the materials itself that gives more effective results. At the same time learner trains in constructing sentences and sounds, uses new words and expressions in deduction mining and makes summaries.

2. **Meta cognitive** strategies include pre and post assessments, analysis of activates performed during language learning and evaluation of planned activities for learning. More concretely Meta cognitive strategy covers the assessments of mind concentration, organization of thinking and achieved results.

3. **Memory Strategies** creates such links that enables: to group, analyze, use in appropriate context words that are perceived by using visual and sound means of learning. These activities are reflected ultimately on active parts of memory. Also this strategies include using of some technical facilities or physical activities.

4. **Compensating strategies** enables to pupils the fills the gap of knowledge by using different methods. These strategies are for example connected to guess the meaning of words by their context while reading or listening. It implies different communication techniques of grouping synonyms, guessing of meaning, using gestures and using word derivation.

5. **Affective strategy** is related to the emotional needs of students, such as feelings or fears of failure, speaking about the personal feelings, praising of good performance or self gifting in case of achieving some aimed results. In other words this implies expressing one's own opinion, making conclusions on one's own performance and progress. Analyzing and summarizing of emotional feelings.

6. **Social strategy** helps students to cooperate with others and to take into account the features of language's cultural aspects inherent in the society of mother language. Other features of Social learning strategies are: trying to understand the meaning of words and word combination, active talks with people to whom this language of interest is mother language, exploring the cultural and social norms of native speakers.

It is clear that using of some of these strategies are effected by outer factors. Examples of these factors includes following: teachers, completed activities, features of interaction etc. each of these factors are reflected on the motivation and readiness of students. Also influence horizon includes the definition of the question that determines what knowledge is essential or sufficient.

In discussion the learning strategies it is important to review the notion of "Good Student", which is formulated on earlier steps of language learning and has an objective to find most effective approaches that are used by most of the students. There are number of research that confirms the aims of the strategies used by "Good Student" are the following: 1. interest and attention to forms 2.



Interest and attention to meaning; 3. Self-management of learning processes 4. Understanding of learning process by itself. Notion of “Good Student” is interesting to the point as it is noted by several researchers O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, Green and Oxford, 1995: 262 that such type of learners know why and to achieving what aims are using certain language learning strategies. Moreover such “Good Students” can adjust some of the language learning strategies to the concrete language learning tasks and to choose concentration in the language learning according to their needs. (Wenden, 1991: 13), (Artelt 2003). There are number of researches that state motivated learners achieve better results by effectively using the learning strategies and posing concrete tasks.

If we use this approach in case of Georgia, we can assume that non-Georgian language learners would have different knowledge base about the learning strategies, they will have understanding of the roles and function of these learning strategies and at the same time they would be able to define the scope of their needs in relation of language learning. In these conditions the likelihood of success will be more realistic. Some of the researchers have identified the list of these strategies that are most characteristic of these “Good Students”. But we should note that some strategies that can turn out to be effective to some of the learners may be ineffective to others. Such effects can be explained by those factors that determine used learning strategies. We will discuss these factors below. In this case it is important the aspects of learning environment that has direct influence on the knowledge and use of learning strategies. Within these factors the central role occupies a teacher. The teacher who wants to teach his/ her students how to use learning strategies should know the individual character of its students; also he/she should have information about the motivation, aims and interests of students. Based on this information he/she should identify the most effective learning strategies for his/her students. The teacher who can determine which student needs detailed explanations and which of them only correction at speaking is able to handle learning process effectively which is one of the most important factors in learning process. There are number of methods which enable teachers to include students in the process of choosing learning strategies. Also to determine what is the main motivation of student for learning foreign language. But the most effective method is reckoned to be a specially designed questioner. These questionnaires are on the one side very informative to teachers and on the other hand enable students to concentrate on the personal style of learning, aims and on used strategies. This will guide students to those aspects and mistakes that need more attention. it is clear that different groups of students may have different learning style and strategies and the teacher cannot account for the interests of one group and at the same time use analytical learning methods or only audio motivations. Second, teacher of language courses should know all strategic groups and the wide variety of instruments. Especially important is their use on lessons in context of different exercises and drills. Some researchers support the view that the most popular are those programs that are directly oriented on learning the strategies of language learning. These methods are especially appropriate on the example of learning the second languages that we can call “Learn how to teach Georgian”. This approach will be useful to those students that have enrolled in higher educational institutes within the framework of state support programs on one year long course in Georgian language. As the research has shown ethnical minorities that are learning Georgian language has the most clearly shaped aim on why to study Georgian. We will discuss in more details the results of this research below.

We should discuss those factors that are presented in the research by Oxford (1990), as the analyzed data has showed the factors that determine the features learning strategies are following:

Motivation: as more students motivated more learning strategies he/she uses. Moreover chosen aims related to language learning have influence on chosen strategies of learning.

Gender of student: Girls generally uses learning strategies more intensively than boys. but boys use concrete chosen strategies quiet intensively.



Cultural origins: By Oxford, cultural basis of student has influence on the mode of learning strategies. For example, technical or other types of remembering techniques are more frequently used by the Asian students than by other representative of different regions. Different nations have different remembering techniques.

Attitudes and Beliefs: the affect attitudes and beliefs is especially apparent on choosing the learning strategies. Negative attitude determines relatively shirked variety of used learning techniques or some kind of misbalance among chosen methods and the intensity of their use.

Type of exercises: specific features of exercises help students to determine such strategy that naturally helps students make progress in language learning.

Age and learning fee: students in different ages use diverse strategies. Moreover, learning level determines the direction of strategies. More intensity and diversity of learning strategies are more expected at higher level of learning at more adult age.

Style of learning: attitudes to learning often determine chosen strategy of learning. for example those students that are characterized by analytical thinking use more intensively some techniques such as comparing analysis, learning rules of grammar, dividing of words and expressions in small parts etc. whereas holistic students, in the process of language learning more intensively use context analysis of morphological units, for example guessing, scanning, forecasting etc. and try to speak on that language if they have insufficient reserve of words. (in paraphrasing, mimics and gesticulation).

Loyal attitude towards ambiguity: those students that are not critical to ambiguity in learning foreign language (for example, lexicographical homonyms) use absolutely different strategies compared to those students that have difficulties with coping the problems in similar situations.

It is indisputable that all the named factors determine by its significant part determine the prioritizing of learning strategies and the intensity of their use. But we want to draw attention on the following two factors. These are: motivation and the style of learning. Let us discuss them briefly:

The role of motivation in relation to learning strategies

As we mentioned above, motivation plays significant role in choosing learning strategies, also it determines their intensively and the mode of use. There are several theories on motivation in language learning. Gardner and Lambert (1972) divide motivation in instrumental and in integral parts. Instrumental motivation means desire coming from student that is based on the practical use of this knowledge, for example, for traveling or business purpose. As for integral motivation its main aim is to become part of the society which uses this language. Concentrating on this theory is important as majority of surveyed students describe their aims of language studying for the career advance and for integrating in the local society. Also it is interesting the second theory of motivation, which represents the complex of factors. Oxford and Shearin (1994) by the way of analyzing twelve motivation theory and model that covered the social physiology and social cultural aspects as well, has identified 6 important factors. They have pointed out six important factor on which is based the choosing the strategy of language learning.

- Attitude, which covers the emotions towards the desired language including the society;
- Beliefs about life which includes the views of person on success, on self effectiveness and on failure;
- Aims- clearly formulated and fully perceived aims which are basic of learning process;
- Involvement- active participation of a student in learning process and the level of this participation;
- Supporting environment, the level of support from teachers and from their classmates, experience in studying foreign languages which includes also in class and outclass different factors;
- Personal attitudes (propensities, gender, age, previous experience of language experience).

This model is also interesting for ethnical minorities in Georgia. in this case as research has shown that attitudes and believes are especially dominant in taking decision about learning the state language. Their aim is determined largely by their attitudes about success.



Factor of learning style in relation to learning strategies

As we mentioned above, the learning style is one of the important factors that determine the strategies of language learning. This is the factor which enables us to determine in what way and by what intensity students use learning strategies in foreign or second language studying. First of all we will discuss what learning style means and relationships exist between individual style and prioritized strategies.

Learning style is general approaches such as, for example quantitative or analytical, voice or visual. Exactly these factors determine the style of learning of students. By Cornett (1983 p. 9) definition, style of learning is the main tendencies that determine the directions of learning activities. Only Dunn, R. and Griggs (1983, p. 3) offer the following definition of learning style: “learning style is the collection of biological and development characters that determine the effectiveness of used learning methods.” Correspondingly learning style is chosen in adequately supportive environment by the personal perception, cultural origins, mode of thinking and the different level of studying.

Ehrman and Oxford (1990) examine the main nine directions of learning style. But this does not mean that this is exhaustive list. There number of other factors that determine the diverse styles of learning. These scientists distinguish four learning style that are related to studying processes itself. These are: perception priorities, typical features of individual, qualitative features of abstraction ability and biological differences. The main features of these styles are listed below:

Perception abilities include four directions itself: visual, voice, kinetic (related to motion). According to perception abilities, in class significant effect has use of the visual applications for one kind of learners, whereas to others lecture formats of lessons, dialogues and other voice applications without any additional applications of learning are more acceptable. For those students that are more inclined to kinetic and tactical methods role plays, picture slides and etc make their learning process more comfortable. It is interesting the point view of Reid (1987) that perception abilities of pupil are related cultural similarities and differences. According to assertion of Reid Asian students are more inclined to use visual applications whereas Spaniels are characterized more with voice learning applications. This approach may be interesting to the point that mother language determines the perception features of pupils. To this aspect it is essential to explore the characteristics of Armenian and Azerbaijanis language and associations that students have in relation to their mother language. Unfortunately this aspect of the second language learning is not explored yet.

Typical characteristics, that is important for learning process itself. in the learning process there are extravert and introvert, intuitive and sequential, thinker and perceiver, oriented on final results and assessor and open to new information type learners. These are psycho types that are closely related to language learning that is proved by many researches. In case of counter characteristics of students the main role is attached to teacher that can coordinate effective learning process depending on the rightly chosen strategy. For example, extraverts that take energy with relations to others teacher in case working in class creates time limits for doing some exercises will result positive time management from them. While, in case of introvert student, the opportunity to manage direction and process of discussion will ensure their equal intensity of involvement.

Students with intuitive thinking are distinguished by the abstractive and full imagination. They like creating theories and often pose unexpected ideas. These kinds of learners are satisfied when they can manage the learning process itself. On the other hand those students with sequential type of thinking express more interest to facts than to theories. They need teacher’s directions about the steps and type of done exercises in learning process. Thus teacher can offer to consecutive type of learner’s good organized language forms and word combinations which will be changed with multifunctional exercises and intuitive type of language drills in working with intuitive type learners.

Quantitative features divide students according to those ideas and bread pictures that imply concentration on details and contrasts. Holistic students feel comfort when they can express their views



and when they are involved in communicative activities. As for analytical type of students, they are mainly concentrated on grammar rules and hardly ever express their ideas according to the context of text. They generally need to be fully assured in their knowledge and thinking. Working together with holistic and analytical students is especially important to achieve balanced learning environment.

Biological differences include the vastest variety of factors and have a significant influence on individual priorities of learning. Example of this are: biorhythm, location, style of nutrition etc. biorhythm determines the time period during which time student feels readiness to study or not. Thus biorhythm determines productivity of certain time periods. Location covers factors such as temperature, lightning, noise, the heightens of reading tables etc. it is clear that in classroom it is impossible to account for every individual preferences to create the most comfortable environment but experienced teacher can manage to create less or more comfortable environment with available resources. All this forms positive attitudes toward learning.

As we mentioned above for students it is essential to identify and to know her/his own style of learning. It enables students to develop and make progress in their learning techniques. At the same time such approach will enable student to assess its own learning style with board view. For that purposes a great help is those activities that are offered by teachers in the classroom. At the same time flexibility in these approaches gives possibilities to students to feel comfort even beyond their learning styles. Obviously, such approaches cover communicative and social aspects that are oriented to students.

There are number of research according to that there exists a significant relation between learning styles, motivation and learning strategies. These relations determine academic achievements, attitudes toward learning process and behavior on basic and secondary levels. Wollas and Oxford (1992) consider that this development is especially important in learning the second language.

In Georgia the interest toward Georgian, its teaching and learning yet accounts relatively short period of time for making conclusions on achieved progress. There is not still accumulated enough experience that can be used to draw out conclusions and make general summaries on effectiveness of used learning strategies. Thus those all the questions that we discussed above are not yet researched in Georgia on the example of teaching Georgian as a second language. but if we review the research results of qualified linguistics and education psychologists it is evident that learning strategies, their use in practice and analysis can be intensively used in future in ethnical minorities that wish to learn Georgian language. Below is presented the results of piloted empirical research. This research was aimed to analyze the strategies and the intensity of their use that ethnical minorities apply when studying Georgian as the second language. For achieving aimed results were interviewed 100 Azerbaijanis and Armenian ethnical minorities using special designed questionnaire. Questionnaires respondents were chosen randomly: in non-Georgian schools among the students of 11-12 grades, Georgian language teachers and among students that were enrolled at Tbilisi State University on special one year program. This special one year program implies that students learn during a year only Georgian language and after successful completion of the program they continue studying with ordinary university programs at different faculties with other students. As for Georgian language teachers they teach at schools of Kvemo Kartli and Samtskhe Javakheti and among them were chosen the participants of the training on improving Georgian language teaching techniques with 90 academic hours. This program of teaching Georgian language was initiated by the ministry of education and sciences of Georgia that was implemented by the Center for Civic Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations. Questionnaire was designed according to Oxford Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, SILL and implied different technique of scaling to different strategic groups. Unlike the Questionnaire of Oxford in our research was used not grouped according to six strategic dimensions and thus enables respondents to concentrate only on used technique that to our mind makes quiet simple to answer these questions. As we already mentioned, Questionnaire was designed according to the Ox-



ford Inventory for Language Learning, SILL and accordingly questions used in our survey was quite near to those type of questions. Despite the fact that learning strategies cover many techniques and accordingly it may be considered as a universal instrument in relation to learning the second language. It is presumable that taking into account the features of Georgian language there are such techniques that are effective for learning Georgian. Based on this hypothesis, its possible that an usage of such techniques had a negative influence on the survey in terms of getting full picture of situation.

Questionnaire consisted of fifty questions and included the directions of using strategic techniques from 1 to 5 according to their intensity by the following choices. 1-“I Never or hardly ever use”; 2-“Basically I don’t use”; 3-“I use it occasionally”; 4-“I use in most cases”; and the last choice was assigned maximum 5 score with the choice-“I always or nearly always use it”. Below is presented some examples of included questions in the survey:

31. I notice my Georgian mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking Georgian.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of Georgian.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study Georgian	1	2	3	4	5
35. I look for people I can talk to in Georgian	1	2	3	4	5
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in Georgian	1	2	3	4	5

Survey also was aimed to analyze the objectives of language learning. In the whole we wanted to get the information about the relations that are among studying level (school pupil, graduate student and trained teachers), aims of language learning and between used techniques. more concretely main aims of research were to find out:

- What is the intensity of using learning strategies at Georgian language courses for ethnical minorities;
- Is there any kind of priorities that determine the choice of strategic direction of language studying;
- Are there any differences in the choices of strategies of language studying based on age and experiences in foreign language learning;
- What is the role of motivation in intensity of language strategies use and how many strategies are related to each concrete individual aims of language course participants.

Unfortunately from 100 filled questionnaires only 64 were valuable because remaining questionnaires were partially filled or unfilled. Among 64 defectively filled questionnaires 22 were of pupils, 18 of teachers and 24 of them were of graduate students. After analyzing the research raw data we can point out the following trends:

Use of strategies techniques of language learning is intensive within ethnical minorities. At the same time difference according to diverse directions in learning strategies are not statistically important. See the table, on the table are presented each score to different strategies:

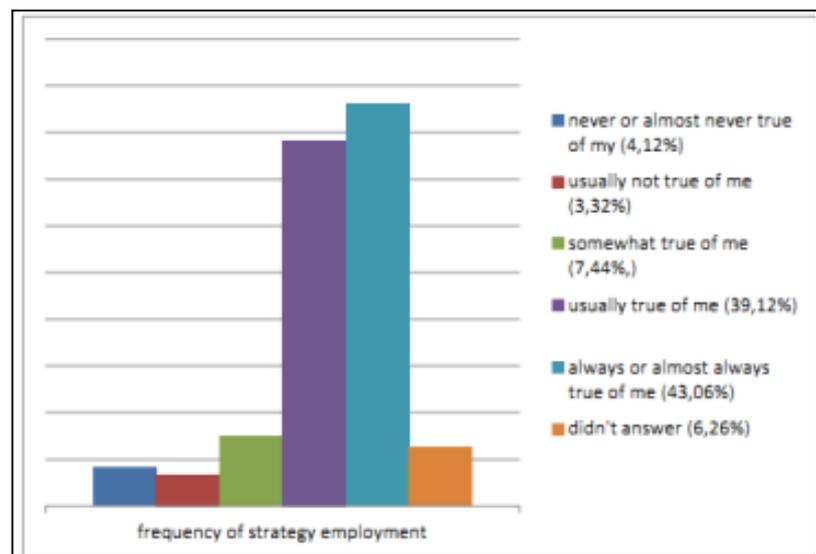
strategy		cognitive	meta-cognitive	memory related	compensatory	affective	social
N	Valid	63	63	63	62	60	62
	Missing	1	1	1	2	4	2
Mean		3,63	3,82	3,70	3,82	3,28	3,78
Median		3,78	4,00	3,67	3,89	3,17	4,00
Mode		4	4	4	4	4	4
Std. Deviation		1,113	1,065	1,000	1,089	1,320	1,119

According to the questionnaire results, affective strategic direction of language learning is relatively hardly ever used. However the age and learning experience have a little effect on chosen language learning strategy and we do not have any significant differences among groups. it is also in-



interesting that instruments included in each learning strategies for surveyed respondents are nearly the same, quiet homogeneous there is no distinguished more or less interest to each of this tools. Such results can be explained by the ideological pressure that is on the ethnical minorities during the education reforms. The latter triggers representatives of ethnical minorities not to be quite open when answering survey questions. In this case they are not oriented to answer the questions based on factual information but on stating “the right” answer.

Below is reviewed the tendencies that are evident after analyzing survey data. 79, 7 percent from surveyed respondents on the question –“Do you have any personal aims in studying Georgian language” answered positively and among them only 14 percent gave negative answer with 6,3 percent with neutral “not sure to answer”. Along the positive answers groups of respondents were following: 49,1 percent were students, 21,1 percent were teachers and 29,8 percent were pupils that answered positively on having personal aims in studying Georgian language. It is also interesting to review the data on the next questions. Next question was about the stating in short what aims they have in learning Georgian. Aims were formulated by 56 respondents from 64. Among them were even those respondents that in previous question answered that they do not have any aims. Overall stated aims were almost the same kind. This trend is especially evident in answers of pupils and language teachers. In most cases aims are not concretely formulated and main attention was paid to the need of studying language itself than on personal aims. For example if we summarize given answers it is evident that most respondents think in terms of studying Georgian language is barely essential as it is a state language. However they do not have clearly outlined personal aims what perspectives can be obtained by studying Georgian. Some of the pupil study Georgian because of the features of this language itself, they think that it is nice and interesting language. The latter means that influence of believe and attitudes are important in studying Georgian language as the second language. This trend is accompanied by ideological influences. More clear answers were given by students that are motivated by the factors such as future perspective career and professional advance. This can be explained by the fact that university environment gives possibilities them to realize more concrete aims and understand the needs of studying Georgian as the second language. At the same time they can more easily express their views. In most cases students have noted that learning Georgian gives them real chance to become lawyer, mathematician, etc. and in other cases the main drivers were to acquire additional professional skills and to work in local community.



As a conclusion from the above discussions that covered observations on possible relations among the learning objectives and age of students, as well as strategies of language learning we can state there no direct link among these factors. The latter tendency once again proves that respondents lack the full understanding why to choose one learning strategy or not. In case of our main research object ethnical minorities’ language strategies are chosen depending on strategies itself and not by the factors that determine the effectiveness of this strategies. Although we have not got a full and exhaustive answers on research questions still the questionnaire results gives possibilities to make a



number of useful observations. The effectiveness of learning depends considerably on projected aims more than on chosen learning strategies. Correspondingly projection of aims should be an integral part of the learning process itself. because the learning strategies is aimed not only to the development of language skills but also for the development of general skills, it is desirable that this approach to become an essential part of studying process based on the specific features that Brawn (2001, p 217) has emphasized in terms of simplicity of language learning strategies. Within this strategy it is significant to be it included in current studying environment. The latter view is supported by many competitive specialists. However they note that there is a serious lack in terms of human and learning resources. For example the following points of views can be used in learning environment:

- It is possible to learn strategies by using the interactive strategies and it is part of learning process;
- Using of compensating techniques that are oriented on self assessment ultimately determines less dependence on current learning environment;
- Implementation of framework of learning strategies and its periodical use enables in learning environment to teachers and pupils better understand the driving factors in learning process and depending on that choose more flexible methods of teaching;
- According to expert's view:
- Learning of strategies should be started with simple techniques and it is desirable that instruction be made on Georgian language that is quite possible in non-Georgian schools
- Teachers should know each learning strategies, they should be able to name and identify each likening strategies, unite and group similar strategies according to their features. That is quite possible in case of effective trainings of teachers.
- Pupils should be given possibilities to choose among diverse techniques, that would be given chance to implement them in adequate environment. This is quite realistic in case of having concrete aims and individual approaches.

Conclusion

By this article we wanted to analyze how it is possible and is it justified to implement the learning strategies in already existed learning programs. Such approach is based on premises of practical effectiveness and to be acceptable to teachers. At the same time we have determined how the learning strategies can become an integral part of lessons that should be mutually beneficial to teachers as well as to pupils and persons.

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Thinking Aloud - The Strategy of Rearing an Effective Reader

ABSTRACT

In the article is considered one of the comprehension strategies – Thinking-Aloud and is shown what results can be achieved by using this method correctly and by directing the learning process rightly.

An effective reading does not mean only reading a text and getting the simple information from it, but comprehending, understanding, thinking and deeply analyzing it. Thinking-aloud method allows students to be deeply engaged in the structure of the text. By using eight main strategies of good reading, they fully comprehend it.

During the process of working on the article, we tested Thinking-Aloud method in the public and private schools on elementary and basic steps (the 2nd, the 4th, the 7th forms). We chose one text for all the age groups in advance (Gianni Rodari's "Trolleybus #75" (adapted version), acquainted teachers with the format of the method in details and described the plan of the lesson.

The research has proved that this method is equally effective for all the above mentioned age groups. It is appeared that constructing of the content of the text in learners' minds mostly depends on the following: the teacher should take into consideration the group's particularity, choose appropriate reading strategies and use them in proper time and way.

One of the major priorities of the educational system is to rear students as good readers. An effective reading does not mean only reading a text and getting the simple information from it, but comprehending, understanding, thinking and deeply analysing it. There are some innovative methods of developing comprehension during the process of reading.

To rear students as effective readers is one of the major components of creating critical thinkers and creative persons. It will be better to start educating students as good readers from the very beginning.

I. A five main aspects of Literacy

Before describing the method we will talk about the main aspects of literacy as a one of the basic competences. The first one is **recognizing and decoding words**. It means that student uses letter-sound knowledge and makes connections between written letter and a sound; he / she understands the principle of alphabet, uses it correctly and can read a word rightly. Improving these competences usually starts from the very beginning period of learning reading and writing.

The important thing for fully comprehending the text is to know the **meaning of words and enriching the stock of words**. The teacher should work on different materials to improve learners' lexical stock. He/she should explain the meaning of unknown words and phrases in different ways: using contextual keys, giving an explanation with other simple words, making sentences using new words, comprehending different parts of the words, using new words and expressions in several situations and etc. [Methodical... 2010, pg. 28].

At the definite period of learning student should **read fluently**. During the reading silently a fluent reader recognizes the words automatically, without decoding them and comprehends the text easily. There is no difficulty for her/him to read aloud, student stops at the punctuation marks and chooses an appropriate intonation [An effective... 2010, pg. 13].



The next stage is **comprehending and interpreting the text**. In contrast to recognizing and decoding the words, the comprehensive reading is a process of deeply analyzing the text, being aware of ideas given in the text and constructing them in learners' mind.

The last stage is **writing**. The writing process is one of the most important aspects of literacy. Students caring of improving writing skills are reading writings of their classmates and other writers more carefully. During the writing process they are using each word and phrase with a great responsibility. They are trying to improve their stock of words, listening and sharing advices to each other and are reared as critical thinkers [Temple C., 2008, pg. 283].

II. How should be a good reader?

A good reader thinks while reading, comprehends the information given in the text, pays attention to all details, connects the read information to his/her own experience, visualizes pictures drawn by author and makes predictions about next parts or the final of the text; tries to understand the author's main purpose and separates the main and secondary information in the text. Good reader controls and observes comprehensive reading process independently.

Some students naturally have skills of good readers, but most of them need to learn these skills and practical ways to be reared as an effective reader.

III. Eight main strategies of reading

An effective reader knows several main features of reading to engage deeply in the text structure. Each of them has its concert and independent role in the comprehending process. Good readers use these strategies sensibly as during the reading process, also before and after reading.

Below are listed main strategies of comprehensive reading and their short description to explain, what is meant under each of them and when and how we can use them.

1. **Visualizing** - A reader visualizes the pictures, characters, places of action, nature drawn by author on his / her mind.
2. **Predicting** – A reader makes predictions how may be developed the story or what will happen in the final scene. It is interesting for readers if their predictions become true.
3. **Asking questions** – A reader asks questions about things he/she is interested in.
4. **Explaining/determining importance** – A reader tries to determine the meaning of unknown places, words and phrases.
5. **Making connections** – A reader tries to make connections between the read text and his/her prior experience, also draws parallels to other famous writings.
6. **Making judgment** – A reader makes his/her own judgment, expresses his/her impression about the read text.
7. **Synthesizing** – A reader synthesizes what is the author's main purpose, which information is major or minor in the text.
8. **Reflection** – A reader makes the last conclusions, forms his/her own position: what was the most important in the text, what was the purpose of author and did he/she achieve it successfully.

IV. Think-Aloud – About the strategy

“Think-Aloud” is a very effective strategy to improve literacy level of students. Exactly, it is useful for teaching reading features to build students' comprehension. Using this method the teacher practically shows his /her learners how they should use eight strategies of reading for being aware of the text. The teacher describes his/her thinking process aloud, talks about text's analyzing techniques in front of children and shows them which practical ways can use an effective reader.



“Think-Aloud strategy” is approved in the West for a long time and still is applying actively. Our purpose is to show how to use “Think-Aloud” (as one of the comprehension strategies) with students during the learning process, what results can be achieved with using this method correctly and directing the learning process rightly.

It is known that children are visual learners. Abstract concepts like thinking are difficult for most of them. More difficult for them is to make judgment and express their impressions about the read text. “Think-Aloud” helps students to improve these skills. Because of above-mentioned reasons “Think-Aloud strategy” is used successfully as in schools on elementary and basic steps, also in high schools and in adults’ learning programs.

The method is universal and adjusts not only for literacy, but for other educational disciplines as well (mathematics, geography, natural sciences and etc.). It works effectively for all types of texts. “Think-aloud” also can be used for modeling writing process. Students working in groups should speak to each other about their thinks and things they want to write. This dialogue helps students to exchange their views to the audience and to master writing skills [Think Aloud Strategy, <http://www.teachervision.fen.com/skill-builder/problem-solving/48546.html?page=1&detoured=1>].

It is not necessary to use “Think-Aloud strategy” during the whole lesson. Teacher should adjust the method to his/her purpose and use it in a short period of time with a one student, with a group or with whole class. The method’s using phases are: before reading the text and during the reading process.

Roger Farr and Jenny Conner suggest three basic versions of using “Think-Aloud strategy” [Farr R., 2004, <http://www.readingrockets.org/article/102/>]:

- I. **Modeling** – The teacher has a leading role, only she/he thinks aloud, describes her/his thinking process and practically shows her/his learners choosing appropriate reading strategies and using them in proper time and way. Students should have a copy of the text in front of them. They are listening to the teacher. This variant of Think-aloud method is mostly using in the first step, before students have no mind about the strategy and they need help of teacher and a shown example. Although, according to our research, we’ll mention here that this variant of the method is uninteresting for children. They are listening teacher’s thoughts but also want to take part in a think-aloud process.
- II. **Coached practice** – In this case teacher’s role becomes less. After students become more or less experienced, the teacher may allow them to participate in the process and he/she encourage them think aloud thought the questions. Learners should write their thoughts and discuss about them later. Using this variant of method frequently makes students more experienced easily.
- III. **Reflection** - At this stage the process of Think-aloud is carried out by experienced students. They choose the strategies of being aware of the text themselves and the teacher controls them.

V. Thinking-aloud – Describing the method

At first the teacher chooses the text. It should be desired if the writing will have a thoughtfully title, beginning, subject developing interesting part and ending.

The teacher presents to learners the text and explains them the think-aloud method and typical of a good reader. Besides, she/he talks them that she/he would think aloud and practically shows the process of comprehending the text. On this way learners would look thought and hear what is happening in teacher’s mind. The very important thing is to making a positive spirit in the classroom.

If there is a possibility in the classroom, it’ll be desired if children sit dawn freely (on puffy, on pillow, on carpet...). If the possibility is limited teacher should decide the problem easily, for example, put chairs on circle to make natural and calm surrounding and on this way sew the chain of intercommunication helping joint thinking process. It’ll be better if teacher sits dawn hard by the students, they’ll fill that she/he is although one participants of this process, she/he is one of them.

During the reading the teacher stops on the spots mentioned beforehand. The number of the spots depends on his/her decision and purpose. Before starting reading the teacher asks children while he/she’ll be thinking



aloud don't continue reading independently, until she/he allows them again. There should be demonstrated one more reading strategies during a one pause.

On the pause the teacher begins thinking aloud about redded information. It'll be desired, if she/he gives attention to the details impossible to understand for the children. It may be unknown word, sentence having a difficult content or the whole paragraph.

The teacher should fantasizing, talk to a text or its author. It'll be better if she/he reads the writing artistically and changes the timbre, tone, intonation, expression, attitude according to a content.

It is necessary to mention that it is not recommended using all reading strategies in a one text, especially in the first stage of using the method. It'll confuse the children and makes much misunderstanding. It should be better if reading strategies will be chosen appropriately for a different type of the text. For the beginning 2 or 3 items would be quite enough. To make a various the long process of rearing students as an effective reader should be realized step by step.

After the ending of reading the teacher should interest helps students her/his thinking aloud to be aware of the text or not.

If the teacher direct the think-aloud method according Roger Farr and Jenny Conner's the second or the third variant, she/he should carry out the lesson like this: while one student is thinking aloud, the second one is listening and writing dawn one's ideas. Then they'll change the roles. So both of them have a chance to think aloud and also observe others thinking process. It will be better if children discuses after reading what they have done well and what have not. On the basis of their records students help and learn each other. [Think Aloud Strategy, <http://www.teachervision.fen.com/skill-builder/problem-solving/48546.html?page=1&detoured=1>].

After the lesson or at the reading process the teacher should interview students to clarify any confusion that might have arisen during the think-aloud. For example, "When you were thinking aloud, you said . . . Can you explain what does it mean... what you meant?" [Think Aloud Strategy, <http://www.teachervision.fen.com/skill-builder/problem-solving/48546.html?page=1&detoured=1>].

The important thing is that during carrying out the method there is no student's right or wrong answers. They should fill that each of their words are very important and interesting for the teacher. This is an activity making students comfortable to express their opinion.

The teacher has a fully independence in direction this method. She/he may plan the lesson creatively, adjusting to her /his interest and purpose.

VI. Why is the think-aloud method necessary?

At first, think-aloud method rears students as an effective reader. It helps teacher determining students' comprehending abilities but students – to pay attention self-development process. The method motivates students to read carefully, pay attention to an important or, in one look, unimportant details. It learns students define major information from the minor, to guess author's purpose. Except this, using the method frequently improves students skills of expressing own points of view and self-estimation.

VII. Think-aloud – testing the method

During the process of working on the article, we tested Thinking-Aloud method in the public and private schools on elementary and basic steps, the 2nd, the 4th, the 7th forms (21th public school, the teacher - Maia Lortkifanidze, St. George's Secular School, the teacher – Magda Abesadze). We chose one text for all the age groups in advance (Gianni Rodari's "Trolleybus #75" (adapted version)), acquainted teachers with the format of the method in details and described the plan of the lesson. We presented the lesson, payed attention its passing and wrote dawn the originalities had arisen during the current lesson. After the lesson we discussed and received feedback from the teachers and students. We shared with teachers the results of our research, synthesized our opinions and gave them some recommendations.

VIII. Results of the research and Recommendations



The research has proved that this method is equally effective for all the above mentioned age groups. The learners activated their background and all of them were easily involved in the discussion (it was stipulated by the format of the method). The students listened carefully to each other and to the thoughts of their teacher. They communicated ideas, expressed their attitude and positive emotions.

It is important that at the first time while students had only theoretical knowledge about the method and had no practical experience, carrying out first variant of think-aloud was less interesting for them. They preferred participating in the process of aloud thinking, choosing appropriate reading strategies, expressing their opinions, arguments and so on. To our opinion, if a teacher direct think-aloud correctly and rightly she/he may passage to the second variant of using method and engages students in the process from the very beginning.

It should be mentioned specially, that we chose the same text for all three age groups deliberately to establish how deeply teacher can analyze the text to comprehend it foresee abilities of all the age groups. The research had proved that more important for the small age groups were explanation of unknown words or phrases; it was difficult for them to find out major purpose of the author. On the contrary it was uninteresting to define some lexical meaning for high age groups, they wanted to fine out the main point, purpose of the author and so on.

Accordingly, the teacher should considerately plan the lesson before carrying out the think-aloud method, foresee abilities of all the age groups and according this choose appropriate reading strategies, also should monitoring time and direct thinking process interestingly so that students do not bother with her/his thoughts.

At last we can say that constructing of the content of the text in learners' minds mostly depends on the following: the teacher should take into consideration the group's particularity, choose appropriate reading strategies and use them in proper time and way.

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Integration of the Cultural Component in The Elearning Language Course

ABSTRACT

Teaching the target culture in second language context is one of the fundamentals of Bilingual Education concept. Culture dictates us “communicative rules”. Culture as a fifth skill means that learner is able to perceive, recognize and value cultural differences. In this paper we have presented some samples of the unsuccessful communication caused with the lack of “cultural knowledge”.

We, also, have discussed learning activities for the bilingual class students. It must be admitted that cultural education is too important for the students with different cultural background and experience. While teaching target culture teachers have different options : (literature, human as a cultural source, “culture capsules,” Role Play etc.) one of the main tasks of educators is to provide the opportunity for the learners to transfer gained knowledge in practice.

Practical examples and recommendations are based on the Georgian reality and will help Curriculum developers, Language textbook authors and language teachers in their practical works.

In the article we have emphasized that growing the cultural competence supports learner’s ability to get familiar with etiquette, cultural norms and behavior standards that are characteristic for target culture, which is the prerequisite for the full and successful integration in the multicultural society.

The dialectical connection between language and culture has always been a concern of foreign language teachers and educators. Teaching target culture in the Second Language contexts is one of the basic tasks of the people involved in the language teaching process as “ culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds, it also helps to determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted... Culture...is the foundation of communication” (Samovar, 1981). Culture is complex matrix as it involves many ingredients, such a religion, gender, social customs, and so on. Culture covers almost all aspects of human life, including the things, people learn to do. Culture defines our thoughts, behavior, values and etc. Culture can be separated into two general categories: (Big culture _ “Big C” and Little culture _ Little C”). They are extremely valuable in language teaching process. We all learned some “Big C” in our language classes: Who are the great writers, artists, musicians, politicians, scientist of the target culture? What are the lasting, famous works of art, music and literature? What ate great moments in this culture’s history? The analysis of foreign and familiar cultures. (Nada Salem Abisamra) What about Small culture (beliefs, features of daily life, standards of behavior, morality commonly, we have the lack of knowledge. Second language teachers and curriculum developers should realize that knowing of everyday life’s elements is a prerequisite for acquiring “Big Culture”. Generally, art is based and involves, universal knowledge and values, on the one hand and Ethnic, local values and experiences, on the other hand. Thus, Second Language Curriculum authors should take into consideration the fact to provide students with the information about both, Big and Little cultures . Properly chosen teaching materials and learning activities support students to receive ,tolerate and value different cultures, no matter how big is difference between students native and target cultures. Culture and language are deeply related in that language can be used to reflect the culture of a particular society or the language can reflect the culture and its world view. Language is used to express and sustain culture and cultural associations that exist



in a given society. Different ideas result from the use of different languages within a culture. World view is a structure consisting of ideas and beliefs through which a person interprets the world around him and also the world view determines how the person interacts with it. World view can be shaped by the culture and language that is common in a particular society. This is because people in a society use their language to express their culture thus expressing the world view in that society. In general, culture as the fifth skill emphasizes the learner's ability to perceive, to understand, and ultimately, to accept cultural relativity. Language teachers often refer to culture as the "fifth skill." But what does that mean? While it may generally be accepted in the language-teaching community that culture is an integral part of language instruction, there is little consensus on what, much less how, we should teach it. Unlike vocabulary and grammar, which are concrete in their content, culture is quite fluid and amorphous and therefore difficult to define. Culture as a fifth skill refers to a set of the abilities listed below:

- The ability to perceive and recognize cultural differences. ("So, you are supposed to make toasts in Georgia!" "That is how you are supposed to drink a lot of tea in Azerbaijan");
- The ability to accept cultural differences. ("From now on, I must remember to make toasts in Georgia." "So, never forget, you have to drink tea when you are in Azeri society to express your respect toward them.")
- The ability to appreciate and value cultural differences. ("Toss is interesting part of Georgian life. "Teadrinking is a interesting form of socialization in Azerbaijan!")
- To achieve touched goals teachers should:
- To help students to develop an understanding of the fact that all people exhibit culturally-conditioned behaviors.
- To help students to develop an understanding that social variables such as age, sex, social class, and place of residence influence the ways in which people speak and behave.
- To help students to become more aware of conventional behavior in common situations in the target culture.
- To help students to increase their awareness of the cultural connotations of words and phrases in the target language.
- To help students to develop the ability to evaluate and refine generalizations about the target culture, in terms of supporting evidence.
- To help students to develop the necessary skills to locate and organize information about the target culture.
- To stimulate students' intellectual curiosity about the target culture, and to encourage empathy towards its people. (Dimitrios Thanasoulas) No language can exist in a cultural vacuum. No two cultures are exactly identical. Sometimes, cultural differences put quite high obstacles for students to overcome and even more, lead them to the cultural confrontation. One cannot say that language can be isolated from sicioculture, as cultural factors are always reflected in our daily (and all kind) communication. For instance, in countries where Christianity is traditionally prevalent, the expressions, such as "Oh my God", "My lord" can be frequently. In some cases such way of expressing emotions and feelings can be culturally unacceptable for Orientals, just like "Inhales" and "Machala" for Westerners, but still, teachers must instruct their students on the cultural background of phrase (language) usage. Many Christian writers have absorbed a large amount of nutrients from the Bible. To understand deeply the western culture, it is absolutely necessary to get familiar with Christianity, history and role of the religion in western civilization. There are many cases, when people are good in foreign language's grammatical structure, have rich vocabulary, have good listening and reading skills but still, have communicative problems. Specialists think that lack of cultural awareness causes this kind of communicative problems. Everyday language is "tinged" with cultural bits and pieces—a fact most people seem to ignore. By the very act of talking, we assume social and cultural roles, which are so deeply entrenched in our thought processes as to go unnoticed. Shortly culture as an "integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communications, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding genera-



tions” (Elizabeth Peterson, 2000). This means that language is not only part of how we define culture, it also reflects culture. Thus, the culture associated with a language cannot be learned in a few lessons about celebrations, folk songs, or costumes of the area in which the language is spoken. Culture is a much broader concept that is inherently tied to many of the linguistic concepts taught in second language classes. We should make it a priority to incorporate the study of culture into their classroom curricula. Cultural knowledge is one of the basic goals of language learners. Through the study of other languages, students gain a knowledge and understanding of the cultures that use that language; in fact, students cannot truly master the language until they have also mastered the cultural contexts in which the language occurs (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1996). Language is too much loaded with cultural background. The clear example is “Boarding school” and “школа-интернат” in English and Russian languages (also, in the languages of post-soviet countries). These lexical units have the equal meanings, but compare them we’ll find that there is a significant difference between them. Both of them express the meaning “School, where students live and study”. In the post-soviet space the students of школа-интернат are the children from the families with low leaving conditions who need financial support. Their expenses are paid by government (in last decades by charity as well). On the other hand, in British (western) countries tuition fee is very high. Attending this kind of schools (Westminster public school, Manchester grammar school, Winchester school) is a privilege for the students from the wealthy families. In UK people with low English language skills got confused with the advertisement “For Rent. 30 Pounds”. For non-native culture representatives it was the monthly fee. Actually, there was written weekly fee. The tradition goes back to the English sociocultural future – Workers and all people from low social classes in UK for long while were paid once in the week. So, they paid their landlords once in a week too. Figures of speech, metaphors are rich and colorful, but they are loaded with different meanings for people with different culture. For example, “cow” when used metaphorically in most cultures has negative connotation, while for Indian culture it “cow” is considered as a holy being. We have really very interesting case in Georgia that clearly demonstrates how tough is connection between culture and language. The word “French” in Georgian means ethnical Georgians whose confession is Roman Catholicism. There is the clear connection to the fact, that French missionaries converted the ancestors of the “French’s” to the Catholicism.

After general overview we will discuss how incorporate culture into second language teaching and recommend strategies for infusing cultural issues in classroom instruction. Cultural activities and objectives should be carefully organized and incorporated into lesson plans to enrich and inform the teaching content. Some useful ideas for presenting culture in the classroom are described in this section. Some of ideas are taken from the Elisabeth Peterson’s recommendation (Elizabeth Peterson, 2000) and have filled with our original ones. Linguists and anthropologists have long recognized that the forms and uses of a given language reflect the cultural values of the society in which the language is spoken. Linguistic competence alone is not enough for learners of a language to be competent in that language (Krasner, 1999).

Authentic Materials

To supply students with authentic materials allows them to get familiar with new culture. Movies, TV programs, TV shows, websites, pictures, magazines and newspapers, restaurants menus, touristic brochures and other printed materials are considered to be good sources for language learners. The task of educator/teacher is to choose accurately learning materials. She/he have to take into consideration learner’s language knowledge level, age, goal and so on. For example, for the beginners it is highly important to underline such important cultural action, as greeting. Even on the very beginning level we can offer audio or audiovisual materials. We can put them in the different segments of the elearning course. One should not only compare, but contrast the cultural differences in language usage. Visualizing and understanding the differences between the two will enable the student to correctly judge the appropriate uses and causation of language idiosyncrasies. For Georgian students it is not familiar to ask strangers “how are you doing?” or say “hello” every time you meet you colleagues or classmates during a day. It is difficult for them to realize that expression actually is meaningless and serves as a cultural norm. But integrated materials from advertisings, movies, cartoons make them clear how common it is for Americans.



The next task for the teachers is translation the text students have seen/heard, preparation diagrams and tables for the learning purposes (student will fill them with the information they have got from audio/video materials). If students age allows, please, discuss cultural similarities and differences, what was for the students most interesting. (use chat, Facebook, videoconferences and other social networks, you as a teacher have much more possibilities than in face to face classroom). Alongside linguistic knowledge, students should also familiarize themselves with various forms of non-verbal communication, such as gesture and facial expressions, typical in the target culture. Cultural phenomena, like body-language, visual contact, societal roles, and how people in different social roles relate to each other) physical distance between speakers highly recommended to teach. (Video-audio not artificial parts from movies, “street shoots”, advertisings integrated in course).

Proverbs and Idioms

Discussion of common proverbs in the target language could focus on how the proverbs are different from or similar to proverbs in the students’ native language and how differences might underscore historical and cultural background. Using proverbs as a way to explore culture also provides a way to analyze the stereotypes about and misperceptions of the culture, as well as a way for students to explore the values that are often represented in the proverbs of their native culture. From our point of view, it is especially important to offer learners proverbs expressing target culture’s moral, ethical, religious values. Besides, proverbs serve as language clashes, formulas remaining in learners cognitive base and help them to overcome some communicative difficulties. Also, proverbs are very helpful for “reconstruction” cultural events. For example, Georgian proverb “Cat could not reach the sausage, because today is Friday” shows direct refer to the Friday’s fast. Like proverbs,, it is very important for language (culture) learners to learn authentic idioms (including formulas of pray, greeting, swear, address, congratulations, comforting words etc.) . Commonly in the texts presenting in language textbooks contain Idioms. The role of teacher is to help students find analogies in his/her native culture, synonyms and antonyms, to get them familiar how to choose proper phraseologies in certain communicative environment. It is not good idea to give the students list of idioms to memorize them. Learning in contexts _ is the best way for any learning objective. Good elearning course should have own web dictionary explaining the words and phrases and links to other dictionaries as well. To integrate video materials presented idioms and proverbs by native speakers makes sense also. And finally, chat on the topics _ these kind of activity stimulates practical use of the leaned materials.

Role Play

In role plays, students can act out a miscommunication that is based on cultural differences. For example, after learning about ways of addressing different groups of people in the target culture, such as people of the same age and older people, students could role play a situation in which an inappropriate greeting is used. Other students observe the role play and try to identify the reason for the miscommunication. They then role play the same situation using a culturally appropriate form of address. For example, while teaching subject pronouns and verbal inflections in French, a teacher could help students understand when in French it is appropriate to use an informal form of address (tu) rather than a formal form of address (vous)—a distinction that English does not have. An English as a second language teacher could help students understand socially appropriate communication, such as making requests that show respect; for example, “Hey you, come here” may be a linguistically correct request, but it is not a culturally appropriate way for a student to address a teacher. Students will master a language only when they learn both its linguistic and cultural norms. Georgian language has so called “Polite Plural” and strict rule in which communicative situation we are supposed to use singular (with mates, friends, family members) and when _ “polite plural” _ with older people, with people with different (higher) social status, strangers, teachers, even with the acquaintances and mates in the formal environment etc. At the same time, pronouns “Chven” (we) does not have the plural meanings in some cases (mostly in official and scientific language styles). We should emphasize this cultural norm while teaching Georgian. Elearning course authors can use on-line discussions, chat, online “TV-bridges” and different activities to achieve a result. Possibility of using discussions and chat, Skype and other social networks are effective ways to succeed.



Students as Cultural Resources

Modern societies are culturally and ethnically more diverse than they have ever been. To invite target language and culture representative in the classroom and engage him/her in the class and extracurricular activities is very effective for raising language and cultural competencies. Presented with the native informal environment, like family-life, everyday customs, informal language are especially valuable. These students can share authentic insights into the home and cultural life of native speakers of the language. Moreover, teachers can also invite guest speakers, who will talk about their experiences of the foreign country. As we already mentioned, language learners need to be aware, for example, of the culturally appropriate ways to address people, express gratitude, make requests, and agree or disagree with someone. They should know that behaviors and intonation patterns that are appropriate in their own speech community may be perceived differently by members of the target language speech community. They have to understand that, in order for communication to be successful, language use must be associated with other culturally appropriate behavior. Knowledge getting from the first hand is very helpful. We are able to offer prepared video materials, use blogs, videoconference, chat and etc. integrated in to the course.

Literature

Literary texts are often replete with cultural information and evoke memorable reactions for readers. Texts that are carefully selected for a given group of students and with specific goals in mind can be very helpful in allowing students to acquire insight into a culture. One study compared the level and quality of recollection when two different groups of students learned about Côte D'Ivoire. One group studied a fact sheet and a second studied a poem about colonialism in Côte D'Ivoire. The researchers found that group that studied the fact sheet retained very little information about the Côte D'Ivoire culture, whereas the group that read the poem showed a capacity to empathize with the personal history of the Côte D'Ivoire people. First of all, literary texts are an untapped resource of authentic language that learners can avail themselves of. Exposure to literary works can help them to expand their language awareness and develop their language competence. Moreover, trying to interpret and account for the values, assumptions, and beliefs infusing the literary texts of the target culture is instrumental in defining and redefining those obtaining in the home culture. Of course, literature can extend to cover the use of film and television in the FL classroom, for they 'have the capacity...to present language and situation simultaneously, that is, language in fully contextualized form' (Corder, 1968). Using links to the authentic WebPages and internet libraries, discussions and chats make the elearning language courses alive and interesting. It is very effective to combine screen versions with the literature texts in course.

Film/TV

Integrated in the language course film and television segments offer students an opportunity to witness behaviors that are not obvious in texts. Film is often one of the more current and comprehensive ways to encapsulate the look, feel, and rhythm of a culture. Film also connects students with language and cultural issues simultaneously such as depicting conversational timing or turn-taking in conversation. For our personal teaching experience, students achieved significant gains in overall cultural knowledge after watching videos from the target culture in the classroom. Culture is not a static phenomena. In movies and TV programs all contemporary customs, behavior, way of expressing feelings (verbally and non-verbally) are illustrated. Elearning language courses have advantage to integrate pieces (or even full versions) of movies and TV programs for their purposes. As we know, language changes reflect in written sources at least 20-30 years later. As for movies and TV, they react immediately on language changes. It makes clear importance of movies and TV programs in language learning process. Elearning language course developers should take these advantage and integrate movies and parts of TV programs in their courses.



Conclusion

Culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language learning. How should we evaluate our student's successes? The evaluation e-tools include self-tests, surveys, and quizzes with a variety of question types, giving instructors unlimited flexibility in how they choose to incorporate assessments into their courses.

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Methodological Analysis of Contemporary Textbooks of Georgian as Second Language

ABSTRACT

In the article are examined several contemporary textbooks for teaching Georgian, as second language, relying on the “Stockholm Criteria Catalog” for the following aspects: structure of the textbook, contents, forms of providing lexical and grammatical material, types and kinds of exercises, visual aspect, teacher’s indications. There are examined the typical main common problems, as the issue of authenticity of the types of texts and tasks, problem of the authentic audio and video materials, sequence of lexical and grammatical material, apportionment of exercises, developing speech skills, exercises for listening and their compliance with the contemporary methodological requirements.

The present work is a methodological review of the new textbooks, created for teaching Georgian as a second language.

The textbooks of the new generation is the first attempt of accomplishing of purposes of national educational plan, in particular, creation of result- and student-oriented material of lesson, though for realizing this conception hard work and correction of mistakes are still necessary.

From the existing textbooks here are examined the set of textbooks “Tavtavi” (Ear) and “Shevistsavlot Kartuli Ena” (Let’s Learn Georgian Language), based on the modern conception. The examination relies on the “List of the Stockholm Criteria” (Kast/ Neuner, 1998, p. 107) by the following components: structure of the textbook, contents, forms of providing lexical and grammatical material, types and kinds of exercises, visual aspect, teacher’s indications.

The analysis concerns only the main common problems of the textbooks and is not a detailed analysis of particular aspects.

Structure of the textbooks

The modern textbooks of foreign/second language together with student’s book, work-book and teacher’s book necessarily contains authentic audio (-video) materials, that corresponding Georgian manuals do not have or they have non-authentic textbooks. Actually, for the moment, didactic authentic audio material in the domain of teaching Georgian as the second language does not exist, that is one of the main problems of teaching and learning, as the most of the teachers themselves are not native Georgian speakers. One of the components of additional resources shall be the audio and video recordings of natural situations and conversations of native speaker people. The more, the target-groups are spoken-language oriented because of their agrarian social and cultural environment (agrarian population in Samtskhe-Javakheti, Marneuli) and presentation of audiovisual material, rich with visual examples will be the most effective way for increasing of learning quality of the material. For this computer programs give the best possibilities, as the students are most of all interested in them.

The textbook may have also mini-dictionary and grammatical appendix. This is made only in one part of given textbooks in the work-book, as a fragment “my vocabulary”, where the student has to write him/herself new words with according translation (“Tavtavi” II, Workbook, 2006, pp, 3, 33). From this and several other examples we can see that there is not connection between the books of different levels of the textbook set. The skills that the student acquires from one book are not repeated in the books of another level and the student can not use the obtained knowledge any more.



Contents of the textbooks

Choice of the issues almost in most parts of the new textbooks corresponds with modern requirements, but proposed texts and given communication situations often are not authentic; they have dry, academic form, are far from reality and do not correspond with the interests of the target group, their everyday life. E.g. in “Birthday” topic the main place occupies lexical field of drinks and food, and the gifts and presents are completely disregarded (“Tavtavi” 1, 2005, pp. 48-51, “Let’s learn Georgian”, 2008, pp. 65-67), when in “Birthday” topic for the students more interesting is exactly the issue of gifts. Also in the topic “Visiting the Capital” (“Tavtavi” 1, 2005, pp. 40) the first text is made around the lexical field of the relatives, but there is not told anything about the real capital in this part, apart from determining locations of several buildings, what can be similar in any other city.

In the given textbooks mainly is proposed standard language as continuous texts and dialogues. Though we can meet quite many continuous texts and dialogues, connected with everyday life, showing that the purpose of the textbooks is to teach real language, but achieving this purpose is hindered by the fact that the absolute majority of the given texts are synthetic, artificial, is written with standard language and is far from the natural colloquial language. Most of the texts and dialogues are artificially made around the grammatical material and there is not used in the speech of the target group generation.

From the point of view of authenticity only some texts make the exception. Accordingly, it is necessary to pay attention to the use of different colloquial speech registers (literary language, press language, everyday conversation speech, partially slang elements, teens’ language). Diversifying text types is indispensable for acquainting with different register languages, so that the students were able to distinguish and use themselves the speech of according registers (official and informal language, standard and colloquial language, press language).

Part of country studies in several textbooks are given in a very small amount or separately. Here also, like in visual aspect (photos, maps, etc.) more authenticity is desirable. In several cases we can even find real mistakes (e.g. metropolitan in Batumi (“TavTavi” 2, 2006, p. 28), passengers going to the Sports Palace on the trolley bus no 6, “TavTavi” 1, 2005, p. 46).

Lexical Material, Given in the textbooks

In the textbook a small part of new vocabulary is given by visual way, other is given directly in the texts. Often visually proposed new vocabulary has not enough emotional background. The given visual material often has form of abstract drawings and is artificial (e.g. “TavTavi” 1, 2005, p.32, “TavTavi” 2, 2006, p.3, „TavTavi“ 3, 2007, p.3; “Let’s learn Georgian”, 2008, p.52).. It is desirable to introduce photos from the real life of students, e.g. the photos of a pen, bag, desk or other things, which they use in Georgia, - this aspect reinforces the emotional plane and contributes to better learning of the vocabulary. Also, in visualized lexical fields, which have to simplify understanding of new material/text as a rule, and to contain mostly key/active vocabulary, are given such words too, which we don’t meet in the texts and which don’t pass into the active vocabulary, accordingly, the students never use them in reality. For example, in the first page of the “transport” topic in the visualized vocabulary are given the terms “air, land and sea transport” („TavTavi“ 2, 2006, p.13),, which we do not meet at all in the given texts. From the Teacher’s book it is evident that for learning the vocabulary the method of translation is also used (“in extremis”), but there is neither list of the words, not the mini-vocabulary and the student has to make a list of unknown words him/herself. As for repetition of the new words, part of the words is repeated in the following lessons too, but in disorder, part is not repeated at all and is forgotten, though sometimes there are appropriate topics on these subjects. The principle of cyclic repetition actually is not respected or is applied very weakly. In consequence of survey of students it became clear that the contents of the parts of the books of “Tavtavi” do not correspond very well to each other, that, on one hand, does not make possible to repeat the knowledge, obtained from the earlier parts, and, on the other hand, complicates learning of new material for the students. The problem of coherence between the levels less concerns the textbook “Vistsavlot Kartuli Ena”, but here also it is necessary to provide the vocabu-



lary with context: though the lexical units are visualized, but they often need to be connected with the central text.

Grammatical Material, Given in the Textbooks

It is appreciated that in the textbooks to be examined, the grammar rules are not given verbally and the textbooks are not overcharged with grammatical terminology (different levels are slightly different from this point of view). In the textbook grammar material is given systematically in grammatical framework, mostly as paradigms of conjugation of verb forms, though in this moment maybe it is not necessary in reality (e.g., „TavTavi“ 1, 2005, p. 17, „TavTavi“ 2, 2006, p. 37, „TavTavi“ 3, 2007, p. 49). As for the structure of grammatical frameworks, the frames are not built proportionally. In some cases the grammar box is overloaded with different information, but in some boxes there is given paradigm of only one verb.

In the textbook grammar rules are not introduced so that the student could easily determine/discover a grammar rule (that is one of the main principles of communicative approach¹). We can meet the example of use of this principle only in several cases. Though the rules are proposed in non-verbal, schematic shape, with their function they are more deductive-theoretical than inductive-empirical. We often meet paradigms of verb conjugation, that pushes student and teacher to teach and learn by rote.

Though the learned grammatical material is repeated in the following parts of the textbook, this seems to have more a function of recalling and fixing of the past material, than that of cyclic repetition, where on the basis of easy past material more complicated superstructures are introduced.

Types and Kinds of Exercises

In the textbooks of different levels of the “Tavtavi” set the exercises are distributed according to different principles. This contradicts with the principle of coherence and makes difficulties to the students from the point of view of use of obtained skills. In particular, together with increase of the level of the textbook, decreases the amount of the exercises in the students’ books. If in the first level student’s book there are many exercises, there are few in the second level student’s book. In the third “Tavtavi” absolutely all the exercises are only in the workbook.

The indications of the exercises, given in the textbook in the most cases are to be specified and concretized. E.g., in the Student’s book of the first level of “Tavtavi” in one of the indication („Tavtavi“2, 2006, p. 51) “Make similar congratulation card” – it is to be concretized: to whom, from where, etc. ... Moreover, in the indication are used grammatical terms and vocabulary, which are not given in the student’s book at all, so the student will not understand what to do and will not make the exercise independently. E.g., the term “pronoun” is not introduced in the student’s book, so, we have to make the student understand which word he/she has to put in in this given exercise using the example. („Tavtavi” 1, Workbook, p.9, № 21). Quite a big amount of the exercises have not such examples, and because of this the tasks and conditions of the workbook exercises are not clear for students and it is desirable to facilitate them. The exercises for developing four skills of the speech (listening, reading, speaking and writing) are distributed without proportion. There are not any listening exercises in reality: listening is identified with reading, as the exercises of “listening” are introduced in printed form and it is the teacher, who has to read them, or they are recorded on the discs (Let’s Learn Georgian Language), that is in contradiction with the format of the listening exercises.

The text of a listening exercise is to be introduced in audio form indeed. If we have the same text in printed version in the same exercise, it cannot be considered as an audio text/exercise, as it does not develop listening skill if read in parallel regime, or even as a text, read by a teacher, and moreover, if the teacher is not a Georgian language speaker. And also, authentic recordings are accompanied with many extra elements (in particular, intonation, mood of the speakers, noises of the situation, etc.) that facilitates understanding of the contents during listening, and that cannot be completed by the text and dialogue, reproduced by the teacher.

The reading exercises, given in the textbook do not contribute much to development of reading skill, as the questions at the end of the text, connected with the contents serve for checking of understanding of the contents of the read material, and not developing of the reading skills. For this purpose it is necessary to make exercises for developing global, selective and detailed reading skills and teaching of reading strategies). It is



necessary to perfect the ability of independent use of the language according to the fields, and at the last stage of the studies special attention is to be paid to making of the exercises, created on the basis of simulation of the real situations.

It is good that in the Student's Book there are speech developing exercises in the form of interviews with classmates, characterization of each other, plays and work in pairs. Though the situations in the textbook are not the simulation of the natural circumstances. Written exercises are not similarly proposed in student's book and workbook. In the student's book they are very few, we can meet them once or twice during a topic as a graph, designed for a play, on the contrary, there are very many of them in the workbook.. The contents of the exercises are very limited with the given material; free writing, improvisation are less provided. Mainly exercises and questions are in the part of reading material, giving possibility to the students to speak and express their opinion about events and topics in the target language.

The exercises of the workbook exactly follow the issues and grammar of the student's book Though this does not concern the textbooks of all levels. It is also possible to diversify visually the workbook with

In the Tavitavi of the third level we meet also creative exercises, e.g. making of a advertising leaflet ("Tavitavi" III, Workbook, 2007, p. 61). Also it is worthy to note that here is used authentic material in the form of work in a website.

Most of the exercises strictly follow the program, are built on repetition of given material and give the students less possibility of variation or development of skills of independent work. During learning of dialogs we can observe repetition of examples Pattern Drill – as elements of audio-linguistic method (Bausch/Krumm, 2003, p. 229). We can observe: there are often used exercises of 'Listen and repeat' type; 'Listen and read type, and also elements of use of grammatical-translation method, e. g. tasks like " Make sentences using the words".

Repetition of material is not systematic and tasks are not made so that at the end of the topic the vocabulary and grammatical material of the issue were many times repeated in different ways, and, accordingly well acquired even without learning by heart.

In the set of textbooks "Tavitavi" there are also technical inexactitudes; in particular, in the student's book is indicated the exercise , to be made by the student, though in the workbook there is not given the appropriate exercise.

Visual Aspect

Unlike old textbooks the new textbooks are made on high level of printing and they are richly illustrated, that makes them visually attractive for the students.

It is good that every topic has its own color frame along the page sides. On one hand, one topic visually becomes connected too, on the other hand, it is very important from the psychological point of view that the stages of progress can be seen and this makes the students feel that they go forward, and also monotony is avoided.

Introduction of illustrations is very good itself, but in given form they mostly cannot create emotional background, as they are the images of exemplary things and do not reflect the real life of the students. E.g., if a student will see a bag, a pencil or a class like she/he her/himself has, will be more interested than seeing drawings without context; instead of foreign hamburger it's better to show Georgian reality. For the students this will be more close and natural and we will provide the target group with the real social and cultural information.

Indications of Teacher

Teacher's indications often need to be précised and concretized. During the work with the text, given in the student's book, it's better the questions to be nearer, so that the reader have them before her/his eyes during reading of the text – this will facilitate the process of purposeful finding of specific information.

In the teacher's book are given additional indications, but they first of all shall be in the student's book. Teacher's book shall propose only help and not obligatory program: role playing shall be in the student's book as a task, so that the teacher understand that this is obligatory exercise and not extra exercise, depending on his/her enthusiasm.



სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
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In one of the levels of teacher's books of "Tavtavi" is given a sketch of five exemplary lessons, assessment system and criteria, methodological guidance for different issues. Taking into consideration the existing contingent of teachers, it is desirable to describe in more details process of several exemplary lessons, formulating educational goal of every component element and each part in the textbooks of each levels.

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Comparative Grammar in the Discourse of Bilingual Teaching (on the example of Georgian and Ossetian languages)

ABSTRACT

Ossetian language Indo-European language family belongs to the particular, the Iranian group, in the Georgian-Caucasian. Bilingual training time necessary to consider these languages, the structural and linguistic features. Necessary phonetic, morphological and syntactic reveal details of their consideration, and comparative analysis.

It is known that the Georgian verb can have a variety of expression, a coordinating role in the proposal to charge him. Non-verb in trouble all the nuances of the transmission, which is a Georgian verb (person ragvarobis promotion, Contact, etc..).

Bilingual training time, first of all, consider the verb proper transmission characteristics. In particular, the rotational transition, matching the subject of the issue. Ossetian turnover of equally named in the subject of the verb stands in transition I, II and III series with the verb. Georgian contrast, where such a subject I named the series with the verb to represent the flow, II series with the verb in the story, and the Series III-verb with the given. This leads to errors such order.

It should also take into account the characteristics of which are common to the Ossetian language, particularly in the Ossetian language verb can not express in origin - the relationship between purposes other parts of speech daukhmareblad.

The Ossetian language, the verb form of behavior can not. Prepiks - Suffix permit, or the verb form of the transmission is not possible. Any form of conduct is necessary to Enable the verb names or pronouns. In order to express the verb, it is necessary to try our nouns, part of speech or other appropriate form. This is particularly obvious with regard to Georgia, where the verb form of this verb in most cases, expressed in the appropriate signs. O from the Georgian-Ossetian language translation of the required forms such appropriate form of behavior (and not the house avishene avishene house for me).

Ossetian language belongs to Indo-European language family, namely, the Iranian branch and Georgian language belongs to Caucasian group of languages. Structural and linguistic peculiarities of these two languages must be taken into account during bilingual teaching. It is necessary to display phonetic, morphological and syntactic nuances, take them into account and make a comparative analysis. Georgian verb is known to have rather diverse expressive means and it has coordinating role in a sentence. In some other languages it is difficult for a verb to render all those nuances which Georgian verb has (display of person marking; an issue of the relationship of subjective and objective persons; Contact; grammatical category known as “version”, etc.).

During bilingual teaching first of all the peculiarities of verbs are to be rendered in a proper way, namely, the question of declension of the subject corresponding to the transitive. The subject of a transitive verb with the verb of I, II and III Series in Georgian is found in three declensions; with the verb in Series I it is in the **Nominative case**, with the verb in Series II it is in the **Narrative case** and with verb in Series III it is in the



Dative case. Unlike Georgian in Ossetian language the **Narrative case is absent** and the subject takes only the Nominative case (rarely in the Genitive). The subject is in the Nominative case with the verb of Series I as well as with the verbs of Series II and III. In Ossetic it sounds natural: **lëg xudy kaci icinis** (a man is laughing), **lëg baxudty kaci gaicina** (instead of *kacma gaicina*). Proceeding from the construction of the Ossetian language, it is natural to say: *mamali yivis, mamali iyivla, mamali uyivlia* (the cock is crowing).

In Georgian language Contact is that form of the verb which shows that subjective person acts directly on the object immediately or by means of other person. According to this, Contact is direct and indirect.

Direct contact has its derivatives: **in, ev, evin, ebin.**

In Ossetic for expression of direct contact the base form of the verb is used which is attached to the auxiliary verb: **këny – apazyn ëi yn këny – aketebinebs** (make somebody do), **amëlyn ëi yn këny – akvlevinebs** (the killing of animals).

If the verb is auxiliary, for expression of direct contact in some instances the auxiliary verb is attached once more to the base form.

xëryn këny – achmevs (feeds), **nyv yn këny – uxatavs** (has somebody drawn).

In such case the subject of a transitive verb (he) makes act the indirect object, a real doer of the action (him).

In Georgian language the verb also expresses possession and destination. An object is not anybody's possession, nor intended for somebody; the object belongs to the doer of the action, subject; one object belongs to another or it is intended for him. According to this, we have three subjective versions (Geo. *kceva*): *saarviso* – “for no one” (I am building), *sataviso* – “for oneself” (I am building for myself) and *sasxviso* – “for someone else” (I am building for him) or as that is the same, three versions: neutral, for subject and for object (A. Shanidze). Different forms of the version in Georgian are rendered by prefixes (**a**-ketebbs, **i**-shenebs, **u**-cers), sometimes only by form (*cers*).

How are the various forms of version rendered in Ossetian?

In Ossetian the verb form cannot render the version. Its rendering with any verb form by attaching prefixes and suffixes, is impossible. For rendering any form of the version relevant nouns or pronouns must be attached. “Man saxli aashena – Uyi xëdzar **samadta** (*saarviso* version (for no one) – nikaion arxaid), “He has built a douse for himself” – Uyi xëdzar **samadta** iëxicen (*sataviso* version – xion arxaid), “He has built a house for him” – Uyi këmënder xëdzar **samadta** (*sasxviso* version – iskaion arxaid). In the first, second and third cases the verb “aashena” – samadta (has built) is rendered by one and the same form. For rendering of possession-destination relation in Ossetian language the verb does not change the form. The noun or relevantly used pronoun changes the form.

Negative particles **ar** and **ver** in Georgian express difference of nuances of action. Their addition acquires negative context to the action denoted by the verb but different from each other. Namely, the negative particle **ar** together with the verb denotes such action when the subject does not wish to fulfill an action and acts on one's own volition: *Ar davcer! Ar davxatav! Ar shevcham!* The nuance of such categoricity to such statements is attached by the particle **ar**. The particle **ver** “cannot” which also expresses negative content is not so categorical. It denotes an action which in spite of volition of the subject is not possible: *ver davcer, ver davxatav, ver shevcham*. In Ossetian the negative particle **në** expresses both nuances of categoricity and proceeding from abilities.

në nyfyston ar davcere – cat. nuance;

në nyfyston ar damiceria – neutr. nuance;

në nyfyston ver davcere – ability. In such case in Ossetian language the speaker adds words (*ar shemezlo*) through which he explains he failed to write (due to various reasons).

Prepositions (**pazëvërdte, razdzyrdtë**) and postpositions (**fësvëvërdtëe, fësdzyrdtë**) are both attested in Ossetian. Both preposition and postposition represent preposition attached to this or that case form of the nouns in order to indicate the state, direction, destination or other relation to the mentioned subject” (A. Shanidze).

Ossetic uses mostly postpositions, although several prepositions exist in the language, namely:

ëd – tan, -ian -ad postpositions (in modern Georgian preposition in place of prefix is rarity. In specialist literature postposition is usually called preposition).

ëd-gërtë – “iaragianad” (with armory); **ëd-dzauma** – “niftebianad” (with things).



Preposition –**əd** is only attached to the nouns and just in Nominative case. The inclusion of other word between it and noun is inadmissible (2.296).

Preposition **əd** in Ossetian is known as non-productive preposition and **ənĕ** – as productive (5.48).

It must be noted that the suffixes – **ian, osan, ovan, ier** which indicate possession in Georgian, in Osetian correspond to the suffix –**djyn**; cf.,: dur-djyn – **qviani** (stony); fyd-djyn – **xorciani** (with meat).

ənĕ – u – o; **ənĕ-zĕnĕg –u-svil-o** (childless); **ənĕ-mat – u-dard-o** (light-hearted).

Preposition **ənĕ** with nouns takes Nominative case (this preposition by its meaning is close to separately standing Georgian preposition – *gareshe* (without):

Unlike **əd** preposition, between preposition **ənĕ** and a word accompanying it sometimes a modifier can stand, including pronoun too (3.296).

Here it should be noted that in Ossetic preposition **ənĕ** is sometimes substituted with its shortened variant **ĕ** that is used with the same meaning (denotes lack of something) (3.678). **ĕ -dzar – u- saxlkar-o** (homeless); **ĕ -dix – u-gon-o** (feable).

Besides this, some researchers into Ossetian language single out the third preposition **fĕinĕ**, which expresses semantics of quantity [7.235]. The preposition **fĕinĕ** (by its meaning approximates to – **tito an erti... (erti xuti, erti oci, erti sami vashli momca)** mostly takes Nominative case, although it is also found in other cases.

One syllable prepositions –**vit, -tan, -ze, -shi, -tvis-gan (dan)** in Georgian merge with noun. Such kind of prepositions are absent in Ossetian language. The function of these prepositions in Ossetic is fulfilled by certain case markers (and not prepositions).

Cf.: **zadzĕrau –saxlivit** (as house); **xadzĕrĕi – saxlidan** (from house).

-gan prepositional (Gen. **amxanagisa-gan** “from the friend”) and -dan/idan prepositional (Instr. **cyaro-dan** “from the spring”; **sopli-dan** “from the village”) nouns in Georgian have questions different from each other: From whom? Where from?

Both of these varieties in Ossetian are rendered with one form of Genitive case. There are also cases when one preposition in Georgian has two equivalents in Ossetic.

E.g.: another form of **sopelshi** **cavedi – x’autam** acydtan (has gone to the country) is **sopelshi var – x’ĕuty dĕn** (I am in the country); preposition-**shi** is used in Georgian during static and dynamic. In Ossetian these forms are rendered with different case forms ; **x’autam – sopelshi mivdivar**; **x’ĕuty – sopelshi var**.

In Russian: **v shkole (naxoditsya)** “is at school”

v shkolu (xodit) “goes to school”.

Presumably, in Ossetian at an early stage of its evolution compared to the present day more prepositions must have been. This supposition is attested by some forms preserved in Digor dialect of the Ossetian language a part of which has been established in literary language too. The example of this seems to be:

Raz-darĕn “cinsapari” (an apron); **dĕl-bazyr** “frtebs kvesh” (under wings); **dĕl-barad** “damokidebuleba” (dependence); **uĕl-arv** “zeca” (the sky).

As is seen the function of some prepositions in Georgian is fulfilled by preposition and postposition in Ossetian. In some cases Georgian prepositional form is rendered in Ossetian with case marker. It should be also taken into account that in Ossetian the verb cannot express possession-designation relationship without help of other parts of speech. This is especially evident in relation to Georgian, where the verb in the majority of cases renders these forms with certain markers. During translation from Ossetic into Georgian it is necessary to render these forms by relevant version form (*saxli avishene* “I have built the house” and not *saxli avishene chemtvis* “I have built the house for myself”).

Thus, during bilingual teaching it is necessary to study the course of comparative grammar of target languages, familiarization with phonetic, morphological, syntactical or other peculiarities of target languages that will be of great assistance to the listeners and persons interested in learning these languages to master them successfully.



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Assisting Second Language Learners to Comprehend Informational Texts

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the presented article is to emphasize the relevance, specificity and instruments for working on informational texts in bilingual schools.

We will touch on and discuss issues such as: the importance of informational text and its frequent application in learning, how are informational texts different from other types of texts, what are the characteristics of the informational text and what makes it difficult? How can teachers and schools contribute to assist students' learning?

Importance of an Informational text and its application

In the modern technological era, many think that pertinence of a book has been significantly diminished due to accessibility to other, more comfortable sources for not only obtaining new information, but also exploring new paths for personal development. However, in fact, contrary to the dominant assumptions, nowadays the importance of texts in general has increased. We are exposed to the different texts in expanded scopes. Today we are readers of both printed and electronic books. Deciphering versatile information and practical instructions has become an integral part of our everyday life.

Schools and school teachers play a vital role in the developing learners' reading and writing skills. A teacher is expected to equip a student with those skills that are essential in achieving further success.

When we talk about the importance of developing reading skills, we should also mention that it increases when dealing with informational texts. We can assume that the informational text contains all essential aspects of daily life and work orientation. These aspects make informational texts more crucial in terms of equipping students with relevant skills to read and understand the content.

Due to those functions mentioned above, acquiring relevant skills for reading an informational text is of utmost importance for those people in particular, who use second language in everyday life orientation, as well as adjusting to a variety of educational and business objectives. Daily, within the school and family settings, the second language student deals with various texts, which are different in terms of types, content and difficulty. Bilingual schools are gradually expanding quantity and size of Georgian texts year by year. Different subjects are taught to second language students through Georgian texts and consequently, they learn new concepts/terms and try to connect facts and opinions with each other.

If we look at the types of texts that students work with, we could easily discover that the significant part of these reading texts are informational in nature, which means that they are aimed to describe, as well as indicating, connecting, listing and comparing facts and events. School textbooks for all subjects, as well as other learning materials, include informational texts along with literary texts.

How does informational text differ from other types of texts, what is its specific feature and what makes it difficult to understand?

It is not easy to understand an informational text. Notwithstanding the fact that at the beginning of the learning process students encounter, process and develop exclusively informational texts, the research reveals that students around the globe struggle to understand informational, rather than literary texts. This is not a



random phenomenon. Informational text has its specific characteristics, which make it difficult to understand, and negatively influence the reader's motivation.

In this regard, the second language learner is faced with the task even more difficult. Lack of vocabulary resources is added to the linguistic and structural aspects that make informational texts incomprehensible to the majority of second language learners. The most crucial of the factors that impede processing of informational texts are: Legibility, vocabulary, background knowledge, concepts and terminology, and syntax.

Low Level of Legibility

One of the most important and striking aspects that impede comprehension of the informational text is related to its legibility. A second language learner has difficulty to understand and comprehend texts if they are printed in very low font, are overcrowded with typos and include irrelevant elements.

Unknown Words

Affluence of unknown words within the text makes informational texts also difficult to read and comprehend. Below is given an example, which shows that even the simple instruction, which contains unknown words, may lack clarity for a second language learner:

Draw a Venn diagram and compare to each other the protagonist and his/her friend.

Lack of Background Subject Matter knowledge

An informational text is difficult to comprehend when a student lacks background knowledge. For example, if students do not have a basic knowledge of genetics, presumably, giving thorough explanation of concepts cannot be a big help in understanding the text below.

Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is a biopolymer and its monomeric units are called nucleotides. DNA is the main constituent of chromosomes, which make the genetic material of living. The main functions of DNA are to store information and transmit it hereditarily.

Monomers and nucleotides of DNA contain saccharine deoxyribose, remainder of the phosphoric acid and a Nitrogen-based molecule: Adenine (A), Guanine (G), Cytosine (C) or Thymine (T) (Source: Wikipedia).

Complex Concepts / Terms

Complex concepts/terms make informational texts difficult to understand. The example given above could serve as a vivid evidence to illustrate this fact.

Complex Syntax

In general, a long, compound sentences are more difficult to understand than concise, simple ones. Complex sentences with multiple independent and dependent clauses, of course, increase the complexity of the text.

For example:

Proselytism is the intention of converting others to one's own religion, which may include any kind of direct or indirect interference in an individual's religious belief in order to undermine person's beliefs through any kind of temptation, moral or material assistance, fraudulent means, or inexperience, trust, need, low intellect or naivety.

This is an example of a single sentence, which is perceived as difficult to understand, due to the complex construction. If we decompose the same sentence into several simple sentences, problem with its understanding would be easily solved.

How to help students to understand texts in the textbook?

Most of the materials for students come from textbooks. Also, the number of available materials accessible through internet is increasing day by day. If a teacher assumes that informational texts available are very complex and majority of students are frustrated, something must be done. Teacher may generally reject to use the text. On the other hand, it is possible to adapt the same text.



There are three levels of text difficulty:

1. Frustration level (Students are not able to read and understand text independently. Even in case of applying auxiliary means, students demonstrate negative emotion and their motivation goes down).
2. Learning level (this is a medium, moderate difficulty level. In case of adequate assistance, students will be able to read and understand the text.)
3. Independent reading level (students will be able to read and understand the text without external assistance. In this case, the reading task is so simple that it may possibly even decrease student's reading motivation.)

It is important that teachers and students are exposed to a large variety of texts of learning and independent reading level.

If a teacher decides to use the text, it is desirable to use well-proven strategies that will definitely contribute to the understanding and comprehension process. Some of these strategies are: "Semantic Map", "Concept categories", "SQ3R", "I know – I am interested" etc. The most important features of these strategies are the following:

- The student understands what the purpose of reading the text is and realizes what to do after reading it. When student reads and clearly understands the goals, he/she focuses on the acquired information, which may be used later.
- The student activates the pre-knowledge, which is very important in the process of reading the text (especially large text).
- The text allows students to familiarize with the topic of the text in advance and discuss this topic at home, in their native language.
- The text provides opportunities for students to express assumptions regarding the topic.
- The text provides opportunities for students to answer the questions, which will be later explored and responded throughout the process of reading
- The text allows students to familiarize themselves with key lexical units, which they will further find in the text.
- The text reminds to the students how important it is to pay attention to subtitles, diagrams and illustrations.
- The text offers students to highlight incomprehensible parts, so that they explore them later.
- It is important that students gradually gain relevant skills to use the mentioned strategies independently when working on different texts in various contexts.

At the end of the article are listed basic orientation objectives, which significantly speed up the process of understanding an informational text and complement to achieve academic success in all subjects.

]How can education system and schools contribute to the process?

- Inclusion of the goal of developing student skills of reading and writing informational text at the primary level of the National Curriculum;
- Provision of schools with a variety of informational texts (both printed and electronic) with different topics and increasing complexity;
- Equipping teachers with relevant teaching strategies through training and special professional literature.

How teachers can contribute the process?

- Try to apply the most effective strategies to work on informational texts;
- Understand and differentiate main concepts and characteristics of informational text;
- Enhance relevant professional development;
- Constant application of reading strategies in teaching
- Feedback and evaluation.



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Issue of Georgian-English False friends in Second Language Acquisition

ABSTRACT

False friends are a real problem for language learners. Even so, little research has been done on the identification of the difficulties learners have when it comes to the use of Georgian-English FFs. The aim of this paper is to analyze the problem of false friends and their role in the process of English language acquisition for Georgian learners of English. Research result data allowed us to identify the extent of the problem. This study provides new insights into the linguistic and the communication problems derived from a misuse of these lexical items.

The present paper focuses on the issue of “false friends” and its role in English language acquisition of Georgian learners; it also determines the difficulties the units under question may produce, from two different viewpoints: from the learners standpoint, that is to say, the linguistic problems students should face to achieve a complete command of the English lexicon and from the point of view of the recipients, that is, the communication problems that may arise from the misuse of false friends. From the point of view of language teaching, the misuse of “false friends” has two types of “side effects”. On the one hand, it reveals the students incomplete lexical competence and, on the other hand, it leads to the communication of unintentional meanings. These reasons clearly justify the need for discussing and identifying these problems in order to alleviate them.

False friends have been extensively studied in different languages. Many interesting studies are dedicated to French- English, (O’Neill, M., & Casanovas, C., 1994) Spanish-English, (Chacon, 2005; Holmes and Guerra Ramos, 1993) German-English, (C. Gutknecht. 2004) Russian- English (R. Budagov 1975) false friends however, there is considerable lack of studies in the sphere of Georgian-English false friends though this issue is of pivotal importance for Georgian learners of English language.

Deceptive cognates or so called “false friends” are the words which are similar in form but different or only partly similar in meaning. They may have the same etymology but it is not always so. As Lado describes them they are “sure-fire traps” of interpreters (Lado, 1967:84). Rufus, Prinsloo and De Shryver 2004:73) classified false friends according to their semantic continuity into absolute and partial false friends. Absolute false friends tend to cause less problems, as, though similar at first sight, their meaning is completely different. Consequently, they are never found in the same context, e.g. English “Talon” and Georgian „ტალონი“; [*taloni*] - that means coupon; English “order” and Georgian „ორდერი“ [*orderi*] – writ/warrant; “Fabric”- “ფაბრიკა“ [*fabrika*]-factory/mill. However, they may be problematic for Georgian learners on the starting stage of second language acquisition. As it is known, Learners of foreign language may draw on their previous knowledge (the meaning of the words in their own language) and may fall in the “trap” of false friends because of the reliance on their primary vocabulary, especially if the learner is not well aware of the semantic structure of the second language.

Partial False friends, in differences with the total ones which occur in the early stage of the second language learning and are results of indiscriminate use of the dictionary, are especially problematic for upper intermediate and advance learners of English language. Partial false friends are not only similar in their morphological structure but have the same meaning in some contexts. In such cases the overlapping meanings may occur due to their partial correspondence. For example, the English adjective “accurate” corresponds to Georgian „აკურატული“ [*akuratuli*]. However, in translation of the Georgian collocation “აკურატული



ადამიანი”[*akuratuli adamiani*] it would be better to substitute the word “accurate” with “tidy” or “orderly”. English “delicate” and Georgian “დელიკატური” [*delikaturi*] correspond to each other only in one meaning “ticklish/sensitive” and may be used only in the following collocation - “delicate issue” ,“delicate person”. In all other cases, this word should be substituted with Georgian “დახვეწილი, ნატიფი, ნაზი“ etc. English “dramatic” corresponds to Georgian “დრამატული” but in collocation “dramatic view”

(e .g: dramatic view of the Alps) it would be inappropriate to use the word “დრამატული” as in Georgian it corresponds to “acute tension”.

False friends are subdivided according to the degree of meaning overlap into three groups (O’Neill 1994:109): a) **Segregation**: this category refers to the situation in which none of the meanings of the words coincide in either of the languages b) **Intersection** this group covers the words that share some meaning but not all. c) **Inclusion** occurs when the meaning of one word absorbs those of the other, that is, all the acceptations of one word coincide with the other and moreover, other meaning may be added. As the examples above suggest most of the Georgian- English false friends belong to the partial false group and are included in the second subgroup-intersection as of the stated words share some meaning but not all. However some of the Georgian- English partial false friends belong to a segregation subgroup. Emergence of such pairs of false friends is the result of borrowings. Both of the languages may borrow the word from one and the same source language (in most cases Latin or French) but in each of the languages borrowed words have their own history of further semantic, conceptual development. For example, comparison of English “pathetic” and Georgian “პათეტიკური” [*patetikuri*] reveals vivid semantic divergence as Georgian “პათეტიკური” stands for, “passionate, exciting” while English “pathetic” means “pitiful, heart-rending”. Both of the languages (Georgian and English) borrowed the word from one and the same source – Greek “*pathetikos*” conveying meaning of “sensitive, capable of emotion” in English the word underwent the process of semantic shift and in the result the present meaning of the word “arousing pity, pitiful” was first recorded in 1737. (Concise Dictionary of English Etymology.) In Georgian, however, the meaning of the word “pathetic” preserved its original meaning. The study revealed other cases and reasons of emergence of partial false friends. One of the reasons of emergence of Georgian-English False friends is borrowing from different source languages. During different periods of their development, both of the languages borrowed lexical units from different sources. For example, English “extravagant” was first borrowed from the Latin “*extravagantem*” with the meaning of “wander outside or beyond.” Due to semantic widening of the concept the meaning was changed drastically as present day meaning of the word corresponds to “wasteful, lavish”. Whereas Georgian “ექსტრავაგანტული” [*ekstravagantuli*] which was borrowed from French conveys meanings similar to those of the French word: “eccentric, odd”.

It goes without saying that the problem of English-Georgian false friend is of pivotal significance for students on different levels of second language acquisition. In order to pinpoint the common mistakes made by the Georgian learners of the English as a second language due to inaccurate approach to the conceptual differences between Georgian and English cognates it was deemed reasonable to compile tests containing most common English-Georgian false friends. The aim of this study is to answer the following questions: Do students have real difficulties with false friends? What type of problems can be identified from the data in the learner corpora? Are there any possible solutions to these problems? Investigation of the issues comprised the following stages:

- Compiling of tests containing Georgian –English false friends(item-selection)
- Determining target group
- Data collecting and analyzing

As a starting point, I made a selection of Georgian-English FFs of high frequency which were worthy of attention, to limit the number of items under investigation. As the target group comprised English language students of two different levels – pre-intermediate and intermediate (first and second year students) I have compiled two types of tests. The first test that was given to 20 students of pre-intermediate level, aimed at detecting the main mistakes made by students in translation of sentences containing 17 items under investigation. The task of the test was to provide English words that were given in bold in the sentences with the appropriate Georgian equivalents.(fig.1)

Provide Georgian translation for the words in bold:

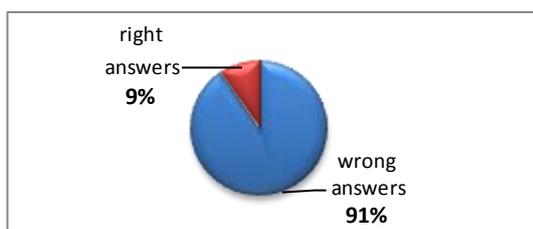


1. He provided us with **actual** (-----) facts.
2. He used to retell us about this **anecdote** (-----) in my childhood.
3. She felt a sudden pain, it seemed that it was **angina**(-----)
4. The only valuable thing left in the house ,was his china **cabinet**(-----)
5. Usually **compositor** (-----) arranges type for printing.
6. He holds several **concurrent** (-----) exhibitions.
7. He held **curious**(-----) inquiry
8. His **novels**(-----) will survive over **decades**(-----)
9. Silk **fabric** (-----) is my favorite one.
10. He is the most **genial** (-----) boy I have ever met.
11. He is an **intelligent** (-----) boy.
12. It was obvious, that the picture he presented, was an accurate **replica**(-----)
13. He could not manage to take falcon out of eagles **talon**(-----)
14. Nothing makes person so **virtuous** (-----) as charity. /
15. She offered me tea with **biscuits** (-----) and **marmalade** (-----)

Test results revealed the following:

- none of the students(0%) provided the right Georgian equivalent for the words actual; “angina”; “cabinet”; “concurrent”; “replica”; “talon” as due to L1 interference all students provided Georgian meaning of the words specifically: ანგინა[angina] - “tonsillitis” for “angina”; კაბინეტი [kabineti] - “study /office” for “cabinet”; კონკურენტი [konkurenti] that is “competitor” for “concurrent”; რეპლიკა [replica] “remark” for “replica”; ტალონი[taloni] “coupon” for “talon”.
- Just 5% of students provided the right translations for the words: “compositor”; “genial”; “virtuous”; “ambitious”; and “marmalade” as in majority of the cases these words were translated as კომპოზიტორი [kompozitori]– composer for „compositor“; გენიალური [genialuri]-genius for genial; ვირტუოზული [virtuozuli]-masterly for virtuous; მარმელადი [marmeladi]-fruit jelly for marmalade;
- 10% of students provided right translation for the word ”anecdote” as in 90% of cases it was translated as ანეკდოტი [anekdoti] – joke;
- 14% of students provided the right translation for the word “curious” as 85% translated it as [kuriozi] კურიოზი-amusing incident;
- 20% of students provide right Georgian equivalent for words ”decade” and “novel” as 80 % of students translated them as დეკადა [dekada] –10 days period and ნოველა [novela]- short story;
- 27% of students provided right translation for the word “fabric” still 73% of students translated it as a ფაბრიკა [fabrika] - factory;
- 36% of students appropriately translated the word “intelligent” but 64% provided wrong translation for the word and translated it as ინტელიგენტი [inteligenti]-intellectual;
- In conclusion we can state that in 340 sentences (as stated above 20 students were requested to translate 15 sentences containing 17 Georgian-English FFs) there were 32 cases (9%) of appropriate translation.(fig.2)

Figure 2.



სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
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The second test was distributed among 20 students of intermediate level. The test was compiled in Georgian language and contained 8 items of FFs belonging to segregation subgroup of Georgian-English FFs. The task of the test was to provide appropriate English equivalent for Georgian words in bold. (fig.2.)

Circle most appropriate English equivalent for Georgian words in bold (fig.3)

1. ის საკმაოდ **ექსტრავაგანტული** ადამიანია.

a. eccentric
b. extravagant
c. odd

2. ყველა მოიხიბლა მისი **პათეტიკური** გამოსვლით.

a. passionate
b. Pathetic
c. enthusiastic

3. იმ სადამოს გამორჩეულად **გალანტური** იყო.

a. courteous
b. gallant
C. refined

4. ნელი **აკურატული** ადამიანია.

a. punctual
b. accurate
c. diligent

5. ბაბუა თავის **ამუნციას** კარადაში ინახავს.

a. serviceman outfit
b. ammunition
c. armament

6. ვფიქრობ, გამეფებული **რუტინა** პროგრესს აფერხებს.

a. stagnation
b. routine
c. monotony

7. მისი სისუსტე **ინტოქსიკაციის** შედეგია.

a. poisoning
b. intoxication
c. sickness

8. ის ღირსეული **პედაგოგია**.

a. teacher
b. pedagogue
c. trainer

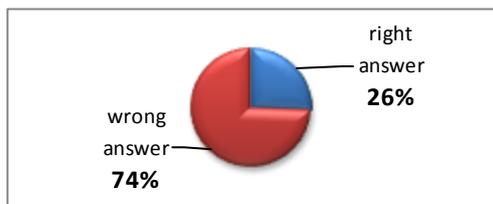
Test results revealed the following:

- None of the 20 students (0%) were able to choose right answer out of three supported options for the word "ექსტრავაგანტული" [ekstravagantuli] all of them chose English "extravagant" instead of



- “eccentric” as the appropriate translation for the word;
- 35% of students supported right English equivalents for the words “პათეტიკური”[*patetikuri*] and “ინტოქსიკაცია”[*intoksikatsia*] but remaining 65% considered the word “pathetic”, instead of “passionate”, being the proper English equivalent for the word. The word “ინტოქსიკაცია” was wrongly translated as “intoxication” which in Georgian, in difference with English, doesn’t mean “in-briation” but “poisoning”.
 - 38% of students translated the words “გალანტური”[*galanturi*] and “პედაგოგი”[*pedagogi*] in a proper way. All others (62%) provided the word “gallant” instead of appropriate Georgian equivalent “courteous” for English “gallant” and the word “pedagogue” for the word “პედაგოგი”[*pedagogi*], that in Georgian language, in difference with English language, isn’t used with derogative meaning (pedant, strict teacher) and is respectful way of denoting a person whose occupation is teaching.
 - More than half (55%) of the students choose the right equivalent for Georgian “რუტინა” [rutina] but 45% gave the wrong answer considering “routine” instead of “stagnation” as the proper translation for the word in the given context;
 - Summarizing the test results we can state that in 160 sentences (as stated above 20 students were requested to translate 8 sentences containing 8 Georgian-English FFs) there were 41 cases (26%) of appropriate translation.(fig.4)

Figure 4.



On the basis of the data, we can give an answer to the initial research questions presented above: Do students have real difficulties with false friends? Are there any possible solutions to these problems? The problem of false friends is evident from the learner data considered. Linguistically speaking, language learners face not only the problem of semantic transfer but problems of usage. Concerning semantic transfer, Georgian students use English terms as translation equivalents for some Georgian items as in “extravagant”, “actual”, “intoxication”, “accurate”, “pathetic”, etc. The influence of the L1 is, therefore, perceived and it could be highly reduced if teachers present false friends by emphasizing meaning differences between the L1 and the L2 to raise students awareness of the semantic properties of these lexical items. Pragmatically speaking, the misuse of these words can easily cause serious communication problems. Especially with the words that have different semantic evaluation and emotive charge. For example as stated above Georgian “პედაგოგი” [pedagogi] does not correspond to English “pedagogue” as the latter has negative evaluation; English “pathetic” in contrast to Georgian “პათეტიკური”[*patetikuri*] “passionate” has derogative meaning; Georgian „ფამილიარული”,[*familiaruli*] “ამბიციური”[*ambitsiuri*] are derogative in contrast to their cognates “familiar”, “ambitious”. As semantic divergence between partial FFs is especially vivid in collocation it is advisable to present these pairs in appropriate context in collocations. All stated problems should be mitigated by the teachers’ action in the classroom. The use of audiovisual materials (pictures, videos, cartoons) in the classroom might be useful and could promote students’ reflection on the potential misunderstandings caused by those problematic words in naturally occurring situations.

To summarize, this study shows that there is room for teachers’ action concerning false Friends. EFL learners have serious problems when using these lexical items and teachers should deal with this issue so that learners lexical competence expands and potential misunderstandings can be avoided.



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From the practical experience of teaching Georgian, as a secondary language

ABSTRACT

Study issues of official language for states which are populated with uniform ethnos are quite different from such kind of states educational policy where we are met different ethnic groups next to the main population, which have own language, culture and traditions. It was not problem for Georgian historically during centuries, rather than XIX century, when in the independence lost country by means of “language policy” of Empire became mandatory dominant of the third language (Russian language) at first on institutional and then on necessary educational level. Afterward for Georgian which was part of Soviet Union this problem became very acute what caused as for Georgian people as different ethnic minority living in our country implementation of Russian assimilationist educational policy.

From 1990-1991 years by means of state policy of independent Georgia was created Georgian language circle with Gori Musical Institution for non Georgian language population, which existed for a year and gave us interesting results and practical experience.

The first scientific conference of 2008 year (learning issues of the official language in educational space of Georgia) the further active activities received face of struggle for implementation of theoretical and practical principles of bilingual education in Georgia with active supply of the “Center for Civil Integration and Inter-ethnic Relations”, TSU humanitarian science faculty and Ministry of Education of Georgia.

Since academic year 2010-2011, we have been involved in studying process of Georgian, as a secondary language, and tried to present its practical moments in this work.

Study issues of official language for states which are populated with uniform ethnos are quite different from such kind of states educational policy where we are met different ethnic groups next to the main population, which have own language, culture and traditions. This problem was actually for Georgia during centuries. Georgia often was depend on influence-supremacy or partiality of the neighbor countries and was loyal towards ethnic groups, separate families or people residence on its territory. For example, Persian or Turkish settled on the territory of Georgia and could simply communicate (often for lifelong) by means of several words or distorted phrases, expressions and professional or other vocabulary which was necessary only for communication. Dominant of Georgia as official language was connected to its religion, as far as worship in Georgian churches was conducted in Georgian language: “Kartli is considered as strong country, where worship is conducted in Georgian language and “Kvirieleison” is told in Greek language.” (Merchule, 1999, 62). At that time Georgian themselves mainly knew several languages beside Georgian language rather than XIX century (for example: poet, General Aleksandre Chavchavadze knew Turkish, Persian, Russian and French languages). So usage of Georgian language as official language had not been problem in our country until XIX century when we lost independence and when due to assimilationist “language policy” of Empire, country with its representatives of ethnical minority had to recognize dominant of the third language (Russian language) at first on institutional and then on educational level.

This process got more difficult in so called “Soviet epoch”, when for any citizen of all ethnical groups or nationalities learning Georgian language meant trilingual (besides Native and Russian). There also was continuing reiteration-reinforcement of made mistakes. Non Georgian language persons were settled, began working, got married, multiplied and exactly by the means of “barrier of language” they were getting near the Georgian universe, Georgian existence and culture. Not uncommon this process was also become aggressive. Non Georgian language population mainly expressed anger, indignation, joy, in Russian language what on their opinion was understandable for Georgian people known this language. This process itself, parallel to alienation with Georgian universe, caused alienation with own Native language and culture, any simple text (poster, statement) in Georgian language was strange and unclear for them.



In “Soviet epoch” studying of Georgian language and literature in Russian language schools was going unilaterally, spontaneously, mainly in submission of language, parallel to relatively sequence of language study. The selection of texts and particularly fiction texts was not purposefully, it was often unsystematically with artificial parallelization of native literature programs in Georgian general education school. Beyond learning Georgian text was staying its fiction and ideological values (or vice versa underlined only ideological one) also traditions of language, nation.

The mentioned process becomes relatively systematically in non Georgian language schools of independent Georgia, especially in the last years, in period of school reforms. But there it also gets more often by “means” of Russian language and literature to different nationality people without tradition of Georgia and non Georgian language nationalities living there, cognition of ethnical reality what is especially difficult secondary education different nation people’s normal living, employment or simply integration. Exactly in 90s (1990-1991) years of XX century, with initiative of governor of that time Omar Chubinidze by agreement with the director of Gori Musical Institution Sandro Kacharava was decided to create Georgian language learning circle. Then, due to state policy, it had already been clear and necessary for persons living in Georgia and had to work in Russian language in different institutions to receive knowledge of writing and reading in Georgian language. That’s why the statement was made and according to it we were inviting for study all ages and professions persons interested in learning Georgian language twice in a week. Gathered about twenty different age and profession people among them several were members of one family (mother, child, and grandchild) who began the learning process with great interest. Parallel to study of writing and reading there also was going conversations about Georgian culture, important episodes of Georgian history, Georgian literature. After studying writing and reading we began working on the descriptive and narrative texts. Especially effective was descriptive type of texts and proverbs-aphorisms. Then the listeners at first time saw wisdom of nation, dependence towards beauty and work which was quite strange for them during years. The same courses were opened and being functioned during two years in Gori Cotton Industrial Unification which was known with multinational collective at that time. Two years later working of the courses was stopped because of the current political events in the country.

During years thinking, discussing, learning-sharing of foreign experience about the mentioned problems, especially bilingualism and generally on the issues of education policy was followed by the first science conference organized by TSU humanitarian faculty and “Center for Civil Integration and Inter-ethnic Relations” on December of 2008 in which materials national language teaching issues in educational sphere of Georgia determined distinctly. “The lingual politic is an important issue of State politic. In many cases the State lingual politic is directly connected to State economy politic. Even in Georgia reality the lingual politic is one of the important for strategic development of country and, correspondingly requires complex and unite approach“, _ is said in the introduction of one of the report (materials of conference, 2008. p. 3). In these materials distinctly appeared the necessary three-part context for the beginning of multi-lingual education (which became the component part of Georgia educational reform): 1. Political, 2. Legislative, 3. Theoretical. The main features of multi-lingual education politic were determined (accommodation and demographic situation, Soviet heritage and the collapse of Soviet Union, educational reform). Here with emphasize mentioned that to settle the problem of Georgian language, as a second language “it should be done more strategic measures for giving equal education rights to the students of ethnic minority in accordance of majority” (p.5). In this case the main issue became the multi-lingual education or teaching several subjects by means of Georgian Language in this situation it will become the optimal way of problem settlement.

Due to legislative context “ Georgian legislative emphasizes the importance of national language in State administer spheres and herewith, creates the guarantees for the protection of the rights of ethnic minorities among the right of getting education at national language (p.6).

On the mentioned conference was expressed the importance from the ways of improving the entering liabilities in highest institutions for the ethnic minorities: “for the system creation based on the Merit of Georgian and foreign language test will be advantage to enter the entrants in the higher institutions only the base of ability tests” (Tabatadze, 2008, p. 19) after that the realization of national language teaching as a second language.

Naturally, here the great importance is given to use the standards and recommendations created in EU council, which main project is “European Lingual Portfolio”. With the announcement of this project coordina-



tor, Marika Odzeli, from 2001 was begun the second stage of mentioned project in Post Soviet sphere. With lingual passport are determined criterions: audit, read, dialog, monolog, writing and levels. Prepared and published ten important documents of EU council. In materials of conference determined theoretical aspects of second language teaching. From 2010 it was followed by the publication of trainings and readers of the project – “Georgian, as a second language teaching”.

We understand that the second language must become the instrument, which gives the opportunity to the student to know other culture, to determine its typical marks and assimilated the type of behavior, typically for the represents of this culture. Only this way is possible to become a student valuable member of intercultural dialog. It is clear that someone learns language easily, but someone – difficultly. In teaching process the teacher is searching the ways, which becomes the teaching effective and useful. “You can’t teach the love towards the language, you only can begin the love, but for this, it is necessary to know the methods of beginning the love towards the language” (Shchukin, 1990, p.7)

The main methods of language teaching conditionally unite in two groups – it is an intuitive learning in the process of communicative (communicative methods), or the realize learning of existed rules in language, grammatical and vocabulary rules (traditional method). Is there existed the universal method? The universal method does not exist. We should consider that none method has a direct result. The usage of any method causes the stimulation of learning action and after that we receive the knowledge as its result. The main point of teaching Georgian, as a second language is a student, as a subject of learning process (action) and intercultural dialog, with its individual view, motives, emotions, interest and demands.

From academic year of 2010-2011 we receive the first Armenian lingual student. As we had to work with one student, the methods of group working and role playing particularly were except from the beginning. That’s why we tried to use the elements of interactive-communicative methodology paralleling traditional methodology (from easy to difficult, from easy understandable to difficult understandable) which is represent by formal academic feature of teaching. Naturally, on the first stage of study it was happened the development of basic communicative abilities with the non-tradition instruction. It was very difficult as student did not know almost any language (besides less communicative vocabulary) besides his/her native language, although knew the alphabet. Here we helped importantly our university’s social science, business and law faculty’s student, who entered in Gori University two years ago and independently could learn Georgian language and to whom is leaving our newly entered student. Conditionally we called X to newly entered Armenian lingual student and Y to independently learner student. Both students were from different regions - one was from Ninotsminda and second from Akhalkalaki. Besides, the working with them meant to work with the student from less communicative basis (supposedly A) to enough (supposedly B) level basis students, which on one side aimed the helping for X and on the other hand the development new vocabulary, phraseology and communicative abilities for Y. In personal interviews were expressed the main tasks and goals for Y connecting to Georgian language learning as a second language. After entering university he/she passed monthly preparing course in TSU, after that he/she was in foreign lingual environment and due to his/her abilities, he/she had begun the learning-understanding of foreign language. It was clear for him/her that if not to learn state language, like his/her neighbors and friends, he/she would leave in Armenia Republic to get higher education and after returning from there it will be difficult the integration and finding a job in the borders of Georgian statehood. At the same time he/she will not be able to learn in other state due to family finance situation. Exactly that determined his/her aspiration to learn Georgian language that he/she will be able to get not only the profession, also the right integration in his residence or in necessary cases in any part of Georgia.

The same problems were existed for X, only less hardworking and lingual defects prevented in learning of language. Working with him/her was very difficult, as we, teachers did not know his/her national language and naturally, at the beginner stage the explanation of even the level of easy communication or reader for him/her was so difficult. In listening teaching process our student received vocabulary and the usage of easy communication means in foreign environment. During teaching was used the elements of “scaffolding” and such strategies as to ask a question, remind, illustration and such visual resource as visualization, gestures, the control on idea understanding, paraphrasing. That provided the involving of student actively and continuingly in learning processes. Also, was used the complete physical reaction methods (mainly “contribution”, the period of “silence”, to relay on relevant content, instead of the concentration on grammar and etc.). As a result of the mentioned work X had developed the abilities of listening and speaking, reading and writing. On this side



he/she has given an opportunity of integration in non Armenian sphere. According to the results of final exams the student has supposedly A2 level knowledge in Georgian, as in second language. But for the improving of next teaching appears problems, which mainly is about the transformation from easy syntax constructions to difficult phraseology texts, which requires appropriate methodology conducting.

What about the syllabus and books, it should mentioned that due to the meeting materials of Batumi in 2010, the materials and readers of Kakha Gabunia, Giuli Shabashvili, Nino Sharashenidze, Nana Shavtvaladze and other's works were adopted as the books. We pay attention on the syllabus and readers of several subjects. The first semester of learning process is responsible as for teacher as the student. That's way the subjects chose in this stage – writing-reading, listening-speaking are for learning the abilities of beginning barrier with orthoepic and orthographic accuracy. We chose the listening for analysis. Due to syllabus, the mentioned course was aimed the practical usage of Georgian language for oral, the abilities of speaking, different kinds texts creation in Georgian language, expresses, analysis, interpretation and reproduction. It should be developed the cognitizm, social, systemic, communicative abilities. All this would be included the borders of three hours weekly, the five credits. From this one hour would be theoretical, although the total hours were presented as a form of theoretical-practical. In our opinion this form gave better result. Each issue was explained in practical aspects and the student has opportunity to learn it in all its aspects, timely and intelligently during three hours. The poems, short stories, dialogs which contained the learnt vocabulary were the best chosen; to know the characters by means of voice and intonation. Here the mobile communication completed its role. From the first contact student knew the voice of teacher and almost understood the content of conversation from the slower rate conversation. Not often we used the further acceleration of the rate of conversation with phone communication. Short and simple massages step by step moved to perception of difficult phrases. At the first mid-term evaluation the emphasis was made on the dialogues (in the market, in the hairdresser, in the street, on the phone); at the second interim evaluation has been used to listen and understand of the audio text record (informational involvement), perception and understanding of extract of TV program and, finally, understanding of the heard text, record from a computer monitor - with response text.

Selected texts for examination aimed expression of practical skills of materials studied by students, oriented on action. Further texts of manual-reader has been getting difficult, here remember of necessary phrasemes was relatively hardly for “basic stock” of student, but we believe it more or less contributes to the transition from simple to complex, from easily understandable perception of complex and brought opinion around the listening. We believe that the mentioned reader in the subject of “listening” was succeeded its purpose.

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Linguistic Mixing and Some Aspects of Teaching Georgian Language

ABSTRACT

Georgian alphabet drawing from the ancient times, formed and evolved. As we know, he passed the development stage three (asomtavruli, the nuskha-khutsuri and mkhedruli). Original Georgian alphabet, the other alphabets absolutely outstanding and different. It is difficult to compare the Georgian alphabet or a mix of other language / languages in the alphabet, but the Latin font associated with the use of some of the world trend of poetic experimentation in the form of advertising if we enashi also crops up. In this regard it is very interesting poetic experiments. David (Defi) Gogibedashvili verse subject Georgian and Latin word play and equally itevs. "Siakh LOVE".

David (Defi) Gogibedashvili belong to the same experimental subject is another text: "siakhLOVE - sish HORE".

Similar experiment in the subject offer other authors: George Lortkipanidze **idea-fix**; Koka Artshvadze "COM. Isia" and others.

Formulated in the texts, first of all, it attracts the reader the variety of graphic / user attention. Such texts datserilobis interesting diversity of its Georgian alphabet / language as well.

I think it is possible to mix the language, the language used for experiments during the Georgian language teaching some form of illustrations.

Bilingual teaching is based on grammatical, phonetic, lexical and graphical aspects of one language and uses the aspects of the target language according to abilities while learning another language. Of particular importance are general characteristics, language universals and typological similarities that in the process of teaching might become an auxiliary material, and, in some cases, the basis for the study certain language nuances.

According to one of the theoreticians of teaching the second language Skinner while studying the language an important role is played by a context, i.e. as to what environment, experience and context study of a language occurs. "According to this theory man's verbal behavior is controlled by other people and much attention is paid to functional analysis. Based on the functional analysis Skinner created "three-term contingency" pattern in relation to language actions (precondition – action – response to the action). Skinner considered that verbal behavior of an individual is conditioned by the contact with natural environment, past actions and genetic history" (Tabatadze, Shubitidze 2010, 2).

Hence, graphical experiments during bilingual teaching can be useful as an illustrative example at an earlier stage of language study. The experts mention that during study of the second language reading and writing competence develops much more slowly than oral speech, although in spite of this, a majority of the second language learners have to percept graphical representation of foreign language in the form of advertising texts at an early age. It is noted that "in a class teaching foreign/second language of special importance is the environment enriched with diverse printed/written texts for providing the resources necessary in learning to read. The availability of the texts in the classroom to a certain degree, compensates for the experience unavailable or insufficient beforehand" (Krouford, Papava 2010, p.18).

The graphics of Georgian alphabet has been formed and developed since ancient times. As is known it had gone through three stages of development: Asomtavruli, Nuskhuri-Khutsuri and Mkhedruli. Georgian alphabet is original, completely different and distinct from all other alphabets. It is difficult to compare or mix-up Georgian alphabet with the alphabet of other language/languages, although a tendency in the modern world for universal use of Latin characters in the form of certain poetic or advertising experiments manifests itself in Georgian language too.



In this respect poetic experiments are of particular interest. The title of David-Dephy Gogibedashvili's verse equally holds Georgian and Latin characters or play of words.

Georgian reader reads the title of the verse in correspondence with Georgian – the title of the verse is perceived according to Georgian word: closeness despite the fact that the last four characters written in Latin characters are read not as [love] but as [lav].

One more text with similar experimental title: “სიახ**LOVE** სიშ**HORE**” belongs to David (Dephy) Gogibedashvili. The text ends in this way: “გადავაბიჯე გზასაც და გზებსაც, შენი სიშორეც უკან შემომრჩა, ხვალ სად იქნები, იქ უკვე დღეს ვარ, ბგერებს ვიფერებ ყვითლად და ლურჯად, შენ გამიფიქრე და შენთანა ვარ, მე დროს ვაჯობე, სხვა რამ ვიშოვე, ახლა სიშორეც აღარსადაა, ჩვენ სიახ**LOVE**-ს მყოფი სი**SHORE**”.

“I have crossed the road and roads, your remoteness is left behind, where will you be tomorrow, I am already there today, I am matching the sounds in yellow and blue, you recalled me and I am with you, I outran the time, I have found something different, now remoteness is nowhere, the **სიშHORE** (the distance) being in our “სიახ**LOVE**-s (closeness).

It should be noted that the author addresses the device of combination of words. The word **სიშHORE** has double meaning. Georgian word “sishore” (distance) and English seashore or beach.

The verse was such a great success in lovers of poetry that in November and December, 2010 poetry parties were held with similar title and writing.

Several years ago Mike Nichols film “Sixlove” (cf. Engl. “Closer”, 2004 in Russian “Blizost’), love melodrama was running in Georgian cinemas. The title of the film on cinema posters was read as “სიახ**LOVE**”.

The researcher Kilanava in the article: “Linguistic Experiments in Georgian Mass Culture” pays attention to advertising as one of the elements of mass culture pays special attention to language design of the advertisement, multiple-meaning. The researcher presents several texts for analysis. Among them is Georgian translation of Mike Nichols's film and graphical version and explains: “The peculiarity of such experiments of mix type is in the fact that by means of different elements of a language (correspondingly of culture) one determiner is expressed so that uniqueness of the notion is preserved. This is new, multilingual unit created by means of special combination of intertextual models that is read in two languages as minimum.

With account of this we deal not only with multilingual but interlingual (and hence, intercultural) phenomenon”.

Other authors also offer similar experiments in the title: Giorgi Lordkipanidze -**იდეაfix**; Koka Archvadze's novel “**COM.ობს**”, Diana Anfimiadi “**newოდისეა**” etc.

Language mixing often appears on advertising signboards too. Texts formed as **გაინდი, გეო-Print** etc, in the first place attract reader/user's attention just by graphical diversity. Texts written in similar way are interesting by their distinctiveness for those who are not familiar with Georgian alphabet/language.

In our view, it is possible to use language mixing, linguistic experiments during teaching of Georgian language in the form of certain illustrations.

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Expression of **-ze** and **-shi** propositions in Georgian and its counterparts in Turkish Language

ABSTRACT

In Georgian language preposition has various different functions. It describes subject's place, direction, similarity, time, compartment and other. Prepositions in Georgian have the similar functions as the prepositions in other languages (Ar. Martirosov) or some cases marks. For learning some language one of the most important problem is transmitting of **-ze** and **-shi**.

During using **-ze** and **-shi** prefixes as in Georgian language, so in Turkish-speaking Georgian and Georgian-speaking Turkish communicator there are some problems.

Georgian **-ze** and **-shi** prepositions in Turkish language present independent cases marks, particularly, when it is described some direction, so there is given the case mark (**-e**); but if it is given some location there is mark (**-de**). Rarely can be used changing case mark (**-den**). For example: *Ben eve gidiorum* (I am going home) – given case; *Ben evdeyim* (I am at home) – location case; *Pencereden baksin* (He must look out) – changing case.

In Georgian language **-shi** describes introverted space, **-ze** – surface (Ak. Shanidze). For Georgian language learner Turkish is clearly the phrases: *He is sitting in the bed* – *He is sitting on the bed*. Also as – *Going to the sea* (swim) – *Going on the sea* (rest); *I am on the mountain* (climb) – *I am in the mountain* (walk). There are some problems too: *I am at the department* (go there) – not: *I am in the department* (go) in Georgian; *I am on my exam* (go there); *I am on my lecture* (go). Turkish says: *I am in the department, in the exam, in the lecture* (come in).

There are some based explains for the mistakes of Georgian language learner Turkish:

- 1) Transmitting of the non-direct meanings: *I was in picnics; Recording in the tape...*
- 2) Understanding of “surface” meanings: *On the face, On the head, On the back...hitting...*
- 3) Mixing of **-ze** and **-shi** prepositions: *I watched you on television; I saw a bag painting on the journal; I go on 15, April...*
- 4) Analogy: *On the evening I must study; Sit down in the armchair (on the chair, On the desk, On the sofa sitting); I didn't look on the watch (don't look at watch)...*

According all of it, it is very important to pay more attention to such problem during learning as Georgian, so Turkish language.

In Georgian language postposition has various different functions. It describes subject's place, direction, similarity, time, compartment and other. Postpositions in Georgian have the similar functions as the prepositions in other languages (Martirosov, 1946, 203) or some case marks. For learning some language one of the most important problem is transmitting of **-ze** and **-shi**.

The function of შობს - **shina** postposition was more distinct in Old Georgian. For example: ikopoda Mtskhetasa **shina** (he was **in** Mtskheta (place) or tsaremarta Mtskhetas (he went to Mtskheta (direction)) (Saginadze, 2008, 66). As for **-ზე** - **ze** postposition, its lexical meaning has changed significantly from V-XI centuries till now. It has been enriched functionally as well. In modern Georgian, the dative case added on **-ze** postposition may express: interest, addressee, collectivism, destination, instrumentalis, resemblance, in succession, exception, direction, localization, location, on the surface, closeness, relative time e. c. t.

According to Martisov, postpositions in Georgian play the same role as prepositions in other Languages. The interesting point is that the Turkish equivalents of Georgian **-shi** and **-ze** propositions are independent case signs and mainly, in case of direction there is an equivalent dative case sign, in case of place-location



there are locative signs. In rare cases the sign of direction out of somewhere may be used. In Old Georgian the signs of direction and location were expressed differently. Today there is a different case (ქალაქში/ქალაქს მივდივარ - kalakshi/kalaks mivdivar – I am going to town). If location and direction would have been expressed in such a manner in Georgian, the case would be easier to understand. Probably, this is the reason why the contradictions arise when using **-ze** and **-shi** propositions as case in Georgian itself, as well as in case of Turkish speaking Georgian individual or Georgian speaking Turkish individuals.

In the Turkish Language Grammar book (Banguoglu, 1995, 115) the names of the Turkish cases are given according to the feasible answer of who interrogative pronoun. There are 6 cases given:

1. who (Kim) - nominative case – ev- house
2. who (Kimi) _ accusative case – evi – house
3. to whom (Kime) - dative case – eve – to/towards the house
4. where (Kimde) _ locative case – evde – in/on the house
5. from whom (Kimden) _ direction out of somewhere – evden – out of/from the house
6. whose (Kimin) – possessive (genetive) case – evin – houses

Kime (to whom) case expresses entry. Kimde (where/on whom) case expresses the stopping of a names motion and stay. Kimden (from whom) expresses the direction out of/from somewhere.

These three cases express location and direction in time and space. With these cases names express the motion-states designated by verbs. By this reason they are called the cases of location and direction. The above mentioned cases also form some of the adverbs. Example: *Akşama gelirim* - akshama gelirim (I will come in the evening).

According to Turkish grammar editions case signs are explained in the following manner: case signs are suffixes which are added to nouns, connect them with verb and express motion, location and direction. These are the different names of cases in Turkish:

1. nominative case
2. -i – case : accusative case
3. -e – case: dative case
4. -de – case: locative case
5. -den – case: direction out of somewhere
6. -in – case: possessive (genetive) case

Turkish equivalents of Georgian **-shi** and **-ze** propositions are **-e**, **-de**, **-den** case signs and they are so distinct that cases are being referred to by means of these signs and they are more frequently used.

According to another approach 9 case definitions is being made. In addition to the above mentioned cases three more cases are being added: 1. Vasita Hali – Apparatus case. This case is an equivalent of the Georgian active voice. 2. Equity case. 3. Directive case (above, inside, outside...). The above mentioned approach is applied within Turkish Grammar edition (Ankara, 1993), which is intended for university level of education. As for previous Turkish Grammar editions (with 6 case classification) they are being studied on intermediate school level.

There are errors in expression of adverbs in case of Turkish speaking Georgians as well as in cases of Georgian speaking Turks. Example: for native speaking Georgian individuals ქვევით ვარ (i am downstairs) and ქვევით მივდივარ (i am going down) is of a same context; As for Turkish, appropriate marks should be added on both of them: Aşağıdayım (i am downstairs) and Aşağıya gidiyorum (i am going down).

The Turkish equivalents of the Georgian **-ze** and **-shi** propositions are independent case signs, mainly, in case of expression of direction we have a dative case sign (**-e**), when expressing place-location – locative case sign (**-de**). In rare cases there may be the **-den** sign (direction out of somewhere). Examples: Ben ev-**e** gidiyorum (I am going home) - dative case sign (**-e**); Ben ev-**de**-yim - locative case sign (**-de**). Pencere-**den** baksin (let him look out of the window) - direction out of somewhere (**-den**).

-Shi proposition in Georgian basically means inner space, as for **-ze** proposition – it expresses surface (A. Shanidze, 1980, 601). For the Turkish individual who is learning Georgian the following expressions are quite clear: საწოლში ზის – საწოლზე ზის (satsol-**shi** zis / satsol-**ze** zis) – is sitting in bed/is sitting on the bed. Also: ზღვაში ჩასვლა (zgva-**shi** chasvla) to enter the sea/swim // ზღვაზე წასვლა (zgva-**ze** tsasvla) – to go to the sea/on a holiday; მთაზე ვარ (mta-**ze** var) – I am on the mountain/climbing // მთაში ვარ (mta-



shi var) – I am in the mountains. It should be mentioned that there are some irrelevances as well: კათედრაზე ვარ (katedra-**ze** var) I am in the department. The form კათედრაში ვარ (katedra-**shi** var) is not acceptable. გამოცდაზე ვარ (gamotsda-**ze** var) – I am on the exam; ლექციაზე ვარ (lektsia-**ze** var) – I am on the lecture. The above mentioned form will be inconsistent to the nouns with **-ze** proposition.

From one side there is a following form in Georgian: კონცერტზე დასასწრებად მივდივარ (I am going to attend a concert). The **-ze** proposition form excludes the expression of an inner space but besides at the same time, in the ordinary language use there may be used an expression კონცერტში მივდივარ (kontsert-**shi** mivdivar) – I am going to concert. For a native Turkish speaker there occurs a problem in this case regarding which of the propositions to use. He/she would probably use the expression კონცერტში მივდივარ (kontsert-shi mivdivar) – I am going to the concert.

The following examples show the right/wrong division within the given subject: auzze dadis – auzSi dadis (auz-**ze** dadis – auz-**shi** dadis) – he/she is going to swimming pool. bazarze dgas – bazarSi dgas (bazar-**ze** dgas – bazar-**shi** dgas) – he/she is in the market place. Bbinaze imyofeba – binaSi imyofeba (bina-**ze** imkopeba – bina-**shi** imkopeba) – he/she is in an apartment. Ddidubeze/vakeze cxovrobs – didubeSi/vakeSi cxovrobs (didube-**ze**/vake-**ze** tskhovrobs – didube-**shi**/vake-**shi** tskhovrobs) – he/she is living in Didube/Vake. Qqorwilze miwvia – qorwilSi miwvia (kortsil-**ze** miitsvia – kortil-**shi** miitsvia) – he/she invited him/her to the wedding. quCa-ze midioda – quCa-Si midioda (kucha-**ze** midioda – kucha-**shi** midioda) – he/she was going in the street... or the contrary: gza-**ze** midis (going in the street), tsignis bazar-**shi** gamochnda (appeared at the book market) (Kiria, T. and Kiria, N., 2008, 97-106);

The following expressions also indicate on the specific type of contradictions in a Georgian ordinary language use: „In one of the Georgian a TV shows - ღამის შოუ“ („The Night Show“) the speaker of the program O. Tatishvili expressed problems regarding the usage of the **-ze** and **-shi** signs in the modern Georgian language use as he mentioned the following: „Facebook-ზე ვარ შესული, თუ – Facebook-ში, რა მნიშვნელობა აქვს“ (Facebook-**ze** or Facebook-**shi** – what is the difference?...) adding ironically: `i am just lightly on the Facebook~ (word to word translation). After this expressing another possible phrase with the same meaning: „i am in the Facebook...“ (Facebook-**shi**). (Imedi TV. 09.05.2011);

The following expression is in use: საბურთალოზე ვარ (Saburtalo-**ze** var - I am on Saburtalo) while the following expression would be wrong: ვაკეზე ვარ (Vake-**ze** var –I am on Vake (wrong)). The correct expression is this: ვაკეში ვარ (Vake-**shi** var – I am in Vake) just like the expression საბურთალოში ვარ (Saburtalo-**shi** var – I am in Saburtalo) would be the wrong one. This particular rule is valid for the number of other Georgian expressions as well.

In one of the TV shows - `Afternoon Show` one of the Georgian designer used the following expression: „მაგისტრატურაზე ვარ სამხატვრო აკადემიაში“ (magistratura-**shi** – „I am in the Master program in the Academy of Art“) (Imedi TV, 12.05.2011), მაგისტრატურაზე ვაბარებ (Magistratura-**ze** vabareb - I am going to study the Master level) (Student of Akaki Tsereteli State University)...

For the Georgian speaking Turk there occurs a problem regarding which of the propositions to use in a situation mentioned above (**-ze** or **-shi**). As mentioned above, in Turkish location and direction is clearly expressed by means of case signs: direction is expressed by **-e** sign: Konser-**e** gidiorum (I am going to concert), location is expressed by **-de** sign: Konser-**de** rol aliyor (takes part in concert). In case of direction always the **-e** sign is used while in case of location – **de**, Georgian speaking Turk will most probably use the following form: კონცერტში ვარ (kontsert-**shi** var – I am in the concert).

There are some reasons for the errors made by Georgian speaking Turkish individuals:

1) Perception of the motion from outside towards inside and accordingly, adding **-shi** proposition to the noun: პიკნიკში ვიყავი, კასეტაში ჩაწერა... (I was in picnic, to record in the casset...).

2) Perception of the surface and adding **-ze** proposition to the noun. სახეზე (თავზე, ზურგზე...) ჩარტყმა // hitting **on** the face, head, back...

3) Mixing **-ze** and **-shi** propositions: ტელევიზორზე გიხილეთ; ჟურნალზე ჩანთა ვნახე დახატული; 15 აპრილზე მივდივარ... (I saw you on/in TV, I saw a picture of a bag in/on the journal...)



4) Analogy: საღამოზე უნდა ვიმეცადინო (I must do lessons on the evening), სავარძელზე ჩაჯდომა (take a seat on the sofa).

Forms with -shi proposition express space, inner location, as for -ze proposition, it expresses location in the outer space: ქუჩაში/გზაში ვარ // გზაზე ვარ; ნინოშვილის ქუჩაზე (ნინოშვილზე) // ნინოშვილის უბანში // ნინოშვილის 90 ნომერში ვარ (მივდივარ) – I am in the street/ I am on Ninoshvili street (I am in/on the street). In the process of studying Georgian Turks have some difficulties in distinguishing between these propositions.

-Cha proposition basically expresses the motion from above towards downstairs. In Georgian there are the following types of expressions: სახეში (თავში, ზურგში) ჩარტყმა; კალთაში ჩასვით; მეორე მხრივ, რიყეზე ჩასვლა, სანაპიროზე ჩასვლა - saxeshi **ch** artkma (hitting in the face), sanapiroze **cha**-svla (to come down to the shore). For a native Turkish speaker the usage of **-cha** prefix with **-ze** proposition is easily understood but there are number of expression which they have difficulties in understanging: კასეტაზე ჩაწერა, როგორც სახეში, თავში, ზურგში ჩარტყმა - kaseta-**ze cha**-tsera (to record on a cassette), sakhe-**shi cha**-rtkma (hit in the face).

The primary and main function of a proposition is setting a distinct relation between two nouns or between noun and verb. Sometimes propositions acquire derivative role and function as word derivatives. There are number points of views regarding the above mentioned function of a proposition. Mainly, according to A. Shanidze Georgian can turn forms with propositions into the noun root and use them for derivation of adjectives (Shanidze, 1980, 116).

Propositions take part in derivation of adverbs as well. Adverbs are dative cases with prepositions (შუაში, განზე - shuashi (in the middle), ganze (aside)) and active voice with prepositions (გვერდიდან, შიგნიდან - gverdidan (from the side), shignida (from the inside)).

According to Prof. Uturgadze all nouns with prepositions can be considered as an adverb which have a function of modifier in within a sentence. According to him words ქალაქში, სახლში, ქალაქზე, ქალაქიდან - kalakshi (in the city), sakhlshi (in the house), kalakze (on the city), kalakidan (from the city) have the same qualification as the following adverbs: თავში, შუაში, ბოლოში - tavshi (on the top), shuashi (in the middle), boloshi (at the end) (Uturgadze, 1986, 91-92).

As Ar. Martirosov points it, in Old Georgian შინა (shina – inside/within) preposition used to be added on words without form: მუნ, აქა - mun, aka (here). From this point of view Acharuli dialect of Georgian Language is of an interest (Jorbenadze, 1989, 566).

In Turkish it is necessary for the concrete case to be expressed with adverb as well: for expression of direction the specific case signs **-a/-e** are used: Bura (here), Ora (there), as for location, the following signs are used: **-da/-de**: **Burda** (here), **Orda** (there) (locative).

Here are some of other examples:

Dative/Direction	Locative
In front: Önüne	Önünde
Behind: Arkasına	Arkasında
Under: Altına	Altında
Onto: Üstüne	Üstünde
Next, near: Yanına	Yanında

It is important to take into a consideration the above mentioned subject regarding **-ze** and **-shi** propositions when learning Georgian as well as Turkish languages. As such, this subject needs to be studied deeply in the future.

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On Functional Alteration of “[Imitom]” (because) Correlate in Modern Georgian

ABSTRACT

One of the important problems of the modern Georgian literary language is the formal mixing of the subordinate adverbial clauses of cause and purpose avoiding of which actually is not provided by normative approach to this issue.

The case is that the semantic-formal modeling of subordinate clauses of purpose and cause on the level of the Georgian language depends mainly on the lexical form of the correlate used in the principle clause and the junction subordinated to it ([imitom],+ [radgan] (because.. + so as// that – expresses the construction of content of the cause; And in order ...+ for// that – that of purpose) From these using of the correlates expressing the cause (because, that is why) in the sentences of adverbial modifier of purpose is not considered to be the literary norm of the modern literary language (L.Kvachadze).

The fact is that in complex constructions expressing the content of purpose, the syntactic border is rather wider and the center of heaviness is concentrated on the Verb of subordinate clause, which expresses formally the probable, so called conjunctive content of action (“I bought the pencil for the purpose, that it draws”; or; “I bought the pencil because it draws”). An observation of grammar structure of the sentences shows that the initial semantic loading of correlates “[imitom]” (because) // “[amitom]” (that is why) is considerably weakened and it as a lexical segment, is of neutral function, what we would not say about its syntactic function – to be indicative word in the principle clause, on which the contextual-grammar structure of the subordinate clause be built.

We think that the modern state of development of the Georgian language makes us to change the approach towards the lexemes considered till present only as the cause and introduce in practical issue of teaching the language (here : Syntax) as well that change which reflects the objective state of the Georgian language.

Study of lexical-grammatical mechanisms of conjunctions of words within the frames of specific language, usually clarifies each peculiarity characteristic for this or that language which is never considered as separately taken syntactical amount so as the sentence, let it be simple or complex, is an integral lingual structure, and its modeling has been motivated by semantic, more precisely, communicative function. Through active application of lexical and morphological levels we receive completely new, much more complex lingual unit and we call it otherwise a sentence. This extremely interesting logical-grammatical form of thinking considers in itself the structural units (in this case we mean the whole structure of the sentence) and lexical organization in which the combined order of the words is determined by the logical sequence.

The main goal of syntactic research always was the fact that of what kind of word units (lexical or grammatical) creates the sentence, or how are they allocated in the total material of the completed idea. It is obvious that the long-lasting tradition of the literary language and continuity of 16 century development of the Georgian literary language has considerably increased the possibilities of the Georgian sentence – has widened the structural limits of redistribution of the parts of the sentence and has created much more possibility for selection of the lexical units. Consequently, study of complex sentence of the Georgian language does not lose its actuality, though as F.Ertelishvili notes: “With studying of complex sentence not a single difficulties are related. In the first turn it is necessary a point of view, and the points of view generally towards the object of syntax for today as it is known are different; It is necessary to share with the relatively expedient one, precisising and while working on particular lingual material to follow the relative principles” (Ertelashvili, 1963, p.4).

Because of the fact that “The syntax investigates the general rules worked out historically in the language which is the basis for conjunction (unification) and receiving of the types of the sentence” (Kvachadze, 1966, p.6) the object of research and interest is the formal (we mean a syntactical form) models of subordinate



clauses of adverbial modifier of cause and purpose established in the Georgian language and those lexical means which appear in indicated kinds.

In its time, in relation to genesis of Hypotax G. Rogava noted that the subordinate sentence by its origin was originated from the interrogative sentence and that “The complex sentence structurally is the result of joining of interrogative sentence and its return (retaliatory) sentence. Only, on the basis of this joining the interrogative sentence (resp. independent clause) has already lost the interrogative content” (Rogava, 1948, p.365). The expressed consideration is lesser arguing since, really, “The member-conjunctions and conjunctions are the same Pronouns and Adverbs which we meet in the Interrogative sentence” (Ertelishvili, 1963, p.196). In opinion of the Georgian scientists opinion, for such Pronouns are primarily considered – Who, what, which one, where and other Pronouns.

Study of compound sentence (by terminology of F.Ertelashvili “Subordinate clause”) actually is impossible to imagine without interrelation of the principle and subordinate clauses, is not it so that even the isolation of its kinds is realized as a result of synthesis of this logical-semantic and lexical-grammar units. As a result of following of this very general lingual principle have been received those syntactic groups which are called as the subordinate clauses of adverbial modifiers of purpose and cause.

The case is that the structure of subordinate clauses of adverbial modifiers of purpose and cause on the level of the Georgian language essentially have been enclosed in homogeneous form, the selection of lexical units creates the semantic difference; And more vividly: semantic-formal modeling of nominated clauses depends on the lexical form of the correlate used in the principle sentence and the junction subordinated on it (because..+ so as// that – expresses the construction of cause content; And in order to ... + for// that – of purpose.). The lexical characteristics, which we can call the correlates and junctions, it is actual, that considerably determine a contextual character of the clause but what does determine their form?! This is the main question answering to which is the main syntactical task for us.

Before we do find out the formal analysis of subordinate clauses of adverbial modifiers of cause and purpose and the function of correlate “because” (// ”That is why” // “because”) , we consider it expedient to express those lexical possibilities which have each of them.

The Compound Sentence of **Adverbial Modifier of Cause:**

Principle Clause⁴

Correlates - **that is why, because, in order to / because of it, because of that, because of that**



Subordinate Clause

Junctions - **So as, that, because that, so as, since**

Subordinate complex sentence of **adverbial modifier of purpose**

Principle Clause

Correlates – **Because of that, for that, in order that, for it**



Subordinate Clause

Conjunctions – **In order to**

⁴**Note:** In the Manual of L.Kvachadze Syntax of Modern Georgian Language” as it seems there is missed the correlates directed towards the 2nd person: “for it”, “because of it”. The scientist writes: In the modern Georgian the words: “because of it”, “in order to”, “for it” are the adverbs of cause (Kvachadze, 1966; 402).



In the scientific literature it has been noted that conjunctions **because**, **that is why//so as** have been encountered from the monuments of the period of Middle Ages and on them are imposed the function of adherence-subordination of subordinate clause of cause to the principle clause (Ertelashvili, 1963, p.141). From this point of view neither the new Georgian has introduced any changes in conjunction of subordinate clause; The same situation is as well in case of conjunction **In order to**. Already in old Georgian “The conjunction [raiTa] (in order to) is used in the meaning of “in order that”; The subordinate clause, which comprises this conjunction is the adverbial modifier of purpose and has been allotted a place after principle clause” (Ertelashvili, 1963, p. 126). Really it is a fact that from the old Georgian till today even a tiny change have not experienced those conjunctions which had been selected for classification of the contents of cause and purpose and, which in spite of origination of one interrogative pronoun - “**What**” form, considerably differ from each other semantically-functionally ([ra - > ra - d -gan] (because, so as) [prepositional form of the conditional case]; [ra -> ra-iTa ___> ra-Ta] (what->in order to) (form of the active case)). It should be indicated as well that from the point of view of expressing the cause-purpose the Georgian language has a common linking lexema as well and this is a “[rom[e]” junction; which of course, is not limited only by indicating of subordination of adverbials of cause and purpose, its limits are much more wider and meet in subordinate clauses of other type (of time; conditional, on condition, et al.). Thus, in modern Georgian, the neutral character of “rom” jointly in the modern is undoubtedly. It is and is received it easily functioning during syntactical subordinations of various types.

Quite a different situation is when the case concerns the indicative lexems of relation of persons (supposedly, orientation prepositional vowel – **a-; i-**) having the same origination of subordinate clause of adverbial modifier of purpose; These are: [**amitom**] (that is why), [**magitom**] (because of it), [**imitom**] (so as). The problem is that the indicated correlates, both in the colloquial and writing languages are encountered two functions: among them the first is the function resulting from its organic, semantic meaning and serves to indication of cause; And the second function - to indicate the purpose of action expressed in subordinate clause – is semantically missing of the contextual initial consideration correlates [**amitom// magitom//imitom**] (that’s why, because) demonstration of cause, and is transformed into somewhat common syntactical units; i.e. the syntactic means nominated on the level of new Georgian are capable to combine the functions both of cause and purpose, so as not to happen neither formal, nor semantic confuse of two different contextual-syntactic sentences (we mean the confuse both by the speaker nor receiving, listener person). In spite of the fact that such a lingual situation is not too enviable from the diachronic point of view, it is evident that the lingual tendency is directed in this direction and the on the contextual neutralization background of the correlates [**amitom// magitom//imitom**] (that’s why, because) the situation has been considerably changed – the synchronic state of the language in relation to the named issue looks precisely thus. We think that in spite of prohibition of normative language, there is nothing changed and has no influence on the position elected by the Georgian language – to impose on indicated correlates to express both functions. As for the confusing (mixing up) of syntactical forms L.Kvachadze in “Syntax of the Modern Georgian Language” writes: “... For indication of subordinate clause of adverbial modifier of purpose we have to use the adverb of purpose in the principle clause, and in the principle clause of subordinate clause of cause we should use the adverb of cause. But the case is that this inadmissibility is quite powerless towards that lingual tendency, which, in our opinion remains one of the problematic issues of the modern Georgian language.

Even the lingual analysis of one writer is enough for clearly showing a real state of a new Georgian language. We have selected for such the language of Galaktion Tabidze and together with statistics of using of the correlate [**imitom//amitom**] (because//that’s why) we’ve followed (observed) the functional redistribution of indicated lexems. It has appeared that from the point of view of using the correlates [**imitom//amitom**] (because//that’s why) the picture is quite a party-coloured and it is functioning with both contextual loading – that of cause and purpose (of course it is the result of contextual loading). E.g.:

სახელმწიფო ენის სწავლების საკითხები:
პრობლემები და გამოწვევები
Issues of State Language Teaching;
Problems and Challenges



Subordinate clauses of adverbial modifier of cause:

“I have recollected and reminded you only **because / that** in you I **bury** the whole non-existed happiness” :Galaktioni., I, 187.

“May be **because that** by the sail of the ship, with secret sorrow... the heart **can’t manage it** in no case”: Galaktioni ,IV, 215.

“This is **because**, that/ by rude feeling,/ not suddenly/ gradually/ is **dragging** the cradles”: Galaktioni ,XI, 234.

“They tried to declare all Georgian Catholics as the Armenian Catholics, only **because** that some of them used **to go** to the Armenian Churches for praying”: Galaktioni, XII, 43.

Subordinate clauses of adverbial modifiers of purpose:

“I want to write only about the subject and because the subject and I don’t want to write only **for that to write**: Galaktioni, XII, 12.

“He used to look from beneath at the women walking down the stairs. May be **because** that to **see** the naked knees of woman: Galaktioni, XII, 309.

“**That is why** , let’s quickly, that is why let’s quickly **step forward**”: Galaktioni, III, 417.

“The fate have separated me from your sorrow, you **because** Leonora does not **prohibit** to wear: Galaktioni, II, 453.

Observation of formal structure of the sentences shows that the semantic loading (we mean the initial meaning) of the correlates “because”/“that is why is considerably weakened and **it, as a lexical segment , is of neutral function, what we couldn’t say about its syntactical function – be an indicative word in the principle clause on which should be built a contextual-grammar structure of the subordinate clause.** As it is seen, correlatization of the principle clause, i.e. mounting it with a correlate, is rather strong coordinator in the process of modeling of complex sentence and losing it is a difficult thing for the language to adapt.

The matter is that from the syntactic point of view, the lingual process has gone rather far that it is possible to imagine at first glance. In particular, expressing of differences of contents of cause and purpose is not satisfied only by the balanced lexico-syntactic joining and their interrelations; The borders are more wider and among the syntactic accents one of the decisive role has a morphological form of verb-predicate of the sentence. It is evident that in constructions, in which the verb of subordinate clause comprises the suppositional - probable, i.e. conjunctive content (under this function mainly are used the forms of the II conjunctive and the II [turmeobiTi] –Perfect of European languages, by all means it is expressed the purpose and not – the cause; But if the predicate of the subordinate clause is given in the indicative mood, we deal with the structure expressing the cause. Fort illustration it is enough to review the any example for the case to be sure in a told fact. Now let’s consider the combinations which are admissible in compound sentences from the sense of expressing the contents of cause and purpose.

The versions of the adverbial clauses of purpose within the limits of one sentence:

He wants to sleep may be **because that** he **gets up** early (Present – indicative mood);

He wanted to sleep may be **because** that he used **to get up** early (uninterrupted-indicative mood);

He went to sleep probably **because** that he had **gotten up** early (interrupted – indicative mood);

He has fallen asleep probably **because** that he had **gotten up** early (I [turmeobiti] (Perfect) - indicative mood).

During the semantic-syntactic running the power of introduction of essential change, as we have indicated, will be imposed on the form expressing the conjunction of the verb-predicate of subordinate clause while the correlate will remain unchanged (it has no sense any more its change) and the content of the cause will be shifted by the content of purpose:



He will sleep may be **because** (//for) that he **had to get up** early (II conjunctional);

Or:

He will sleep may be **because** (//for) that he **had to get up** early ;

Will be of the same type:

He goes to the microphone **because** that **to express** his idea.

He will print the letters for him **because it will win a name** for him,

Power of expressing the purpose has the II [turmeobiti] (Perfect of European languages) as well.

He has behaved thus because that to **be seen** by other.

He came to the microphone **because** he wanted **to express his idea**.

The letters were printed **because to win the name** for him;
and others.

In the Georgian grammar literature it has been noted, that “The mood of the [turmeobiti] (Perfect of European languages) is usually indicative. But it is frequent its usage instead of the III conjunctional as well: It is used for transmission of such action which had not been a fact, but which was supposed as a condition for other action. In this case its mood is not an indicative, but conditional and the element of the act (separation) is not in the form any more “ (Shanidze, 1980, p.222). In Georgian language transmission of the conjugational content by the II[turmeobiti] (Perfect of European languages) is one of the main characteristics of the series and it within the limits of one form together with the indicative mood shares the morphological form of the predicate. The fact is that the syntactic structure of subordinate clause of adverbial modifies of purpose can't exist without the forms expressing the conditional, suppositional- probable content and complex, as a whole while modeling of the sentence undertakes the special syntactic accent; Though it should be said as well that in such a case the grammatical possibility of the main sentence and its correlate, their lingual potential fulfills the function of coordinating function of syntactic-semantic element and it manages the form of the verb-predicate of the subordinate clause. Semantics of the purpose in subordinate clause determines the suppositional action expressed by the verb and by it he fixes the admissibility of probability of its execution by the teller- and will the planned purpose fulfilled? – Thus is considered the logic of subordinate complex of adverbial modifier of purpose by the lingual semantic, and it fixes to syntactic for an indicated content – applies to conjunctional form in subordinate clause.

Monosemantically it is clear, that the Georgian language has its own steady established structure of expression of purpose which is conditioned by relationship (junctionality) of the verb of the subordinate clause of equalled verb-predicate. It is the fact that this factor of word combination has such a strong syntactic possibility, that the process – of shifting /mixing of correlates (we mean displacement of correlates of purpose with the correlates of cause) both in oral and writers language is running without pain and today in colloquial speech, the statistics of using of indicative adverb of “Because” under the function of purpose, supposedly exceeds at some extent the usage of correlates “for that”// because. E.g.:

Last year I left for England because to make a report.

Or:

I have dug the land very thoroughly because to take good potatoes (or, in order to bring good potatoes): etc..

Of course the indicated process becomes the cause of mixing of the interrogative words in interrogative sentences; Why are you leaving? – For doing the case (i.e. in order, because to do the things); it should be: Why do you go? – to do the things (Or for doing the things).

It should be told that such a case of functional redistribution from the diachronic point of view is not the only one in the case of the Georgian language, e.g., the word “So as “ indicating the historical time today expresses the cause. F. Ertelishvili writes: “The composition of this adverb is simple; [ra-khan] [khan] here means the [khan] (period) “the time”; That is, if initially the adverb [rakhan] were the indicator of time, it had a synonymic meaning of the adverb [rotsa, rodesats] (when) ...In middle Georgian it acquires the meaning of the adverb of cause, and sometimes it is even difficult to distinguish under what function is it used in the sen-



tence – under the function of time or cause (Ertelishvili, 1963, p.177). It is the fact that using of the adverb [rakhan] under meaning of time on the level of the modern actually does not even happen. It expresses only the cause and, in spite of diachronically quite different function (to indicate the time), in the subordinate clauses of adverbial modifiers of cause, beside the form of [radgan] (because) is functioning rather productively. E.g.

“Towards the waves/ with breast stretched/ moved, because / it looks like the newest/ book, just now/ written”: Galaktioni, XI,25.

Compare: Having the function of time [ra khandia] (too much time) [//What time];

“The statement has been submitted for too much time and he says all the time: tomorrow! Tomorrow!": Galaktioni, XII, 367.

It is worth-mentioning the fact as well that mixing of expressing of the functions of cause and purpose we should not consider as a phenomenon initiated on the modern stage. In one episode of the hagiographic work – “The Life of Grigol Khanzteli “ (Xc.) we read:

“*Not only the Bishops of Kartli were very offended on the father of Mirian Arsena because of this reason, so as without their wish he announced his son as a Katholikos with small support and blessing of some Bishops* “. (“Life of Khandteli , 1946: 129).

“*Than because of malicious intention he asked from this desired King his sister, Helen, because she was known for her beauty and great kindness*” (XVIIIc. “Martyrdrom of Luarsab, 1946; 410).

In both above-indicated examples usage of the –[tvis] (for) prepositional forms should be expressive of the purpose of action, and here we deal with the cause, to which indicates on one hand the conjunction [rametu] (so as), and on the other hand - the Noun – [mizezi] (cause). Thus, in Old Georgian and later literary language indication of cause-purpose gives us quite inhomogeneous picture and in the process of complexity the displacement of grammar means of cause and purpose is not strange really at all.

Thus, the chronic picture showed us clearly as well that depicting of functions of cause and purpose neither on the level of old Georgian literary language was a regulated system. The preposition - -tvis] (for) having the function of destination displaced easily the preposition [gamo] (because) itself was even somewhat oppressed from the point of view of usage. [gamo] indicates cause: because of illness, because of death, etc., sometimes it is equal to about. Because of this case, because of negotiations, etc.” – writes Ak.Shanidze (Shanidze, 1980, p.602).

The old-Georgian lingual data of displacement of –[gamo] (because) preposition by preposition [tvis] (for) is one more proving of the fact that on various stages of development of the Georgian language the homogeneity of expressive means of cause and purpose was enclosed within the admitted lingual semantic limits and did not prevent the process of transmission of contents.

Thus, the modern case of using of correlates “[imitom//amitom”] (because//that’s why) should be rather considered as a phenomenon expressing the general tendency of the Georgian language than - as a specific lingual violation of law. Today it has become a common indicative adverb of function of cause and purpose, actively participates in creation of contextual-syntactic structure both of one kind (purpose) and – the other (cause) and in spite of prohibition of norms does not compromise his personal position.



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Towards the Common Rule of Forming one Type of Derivatives in the Georgian and English Languages

ABSTRACT

The present work deals with the verb formation and typological similarities of one type of word formation in the Georgian and English languages. The consideration of these issues will in a way simplify the teaching of Georgian as a second language for English speaking students.

Teaching Georgian as a second language has a long history. There are special textbooks and methodological instructions dedicated to this direction. However, not all issues have been relevantly researched yet and many areas of teaching Georgian grammar require further development in this respect. This becomes particularly clear when we consider the role of foreign students' language in the process of teaching Georgian as a second language. Showing the typological similarities between Georgian and learner's native language is particularly interesting.

The issues shown in our work are related to the methods of teaching the second language. Through providing one specific typological example the work presents the issues that should be considered by a teacher: how to explain the theoretical material and turn it into the basis of practical exercises while teaching Georgian as a second language.

It's a common fact that the analysis of typological similarities is given a particular importance while teaching the second language. The similarities demonstrated between the native language and the target language can significantly simplify the language teaching.

Our work has been designed for English speaking students. We cover common rule of forming one type of derivatives in Georgian as well as in English language and believe that it will clarify and simplify the comprehension of the examples of Georgian word formation. At the same time we consider the fact that besides the English speaking students aiming to learn practical Georgian language there are also linguist students for whom typological analysis of the Georgian language bear a particular importance.

The subject of our analysis, the samples of word formation, are derivatives of verb origin in both English and Georgian languages. This fact itself is very interesting in terms of teaching Georgian as the second language since, as we have mentioned earlier, there are interesting typological similarities in the rule of processing verb forms between Georgian and English languages.

We would like to begin the analysis of the above mentioned derivatives from the typological similarities between Georgian and English verb forms since these derivatives are based on certain types of verb forms in both languages.

Any language has its own principle for grouping verb forms. Despite belonging to different language families, Georgian and English show certain typological similarities while classifying verb forms. Namely, we have in mind the circumstance, that vowel alternation in both languages should've occupied the leading position at the earlier stage of development. We mean ablaut alternation of stem vowel.

Ablaut in Georgian, like in the Indo-European languages, bears morphological functions. It is used to form different morphological categories; therefore this type of vowel alternation is functionally equal to affixes. Accordingly, different stages of ablaut together with main morphemes (affixes) can be discussed as additional morphemes to form certain morphological categories (Gamkrelidze, Machavariani, 1965, 175-179).



Currently Georgian verb conjugation is the subject to two rules of forming present and simple past: 1. applying affix (namely, suffix). Present and its relevant forms are processed by means of thematic suffixes: -ო [-i], -ავ [-av], -ამ [-am], -ებ [-eb], -ობ [-ob]; 2. Functional alternation of the stem vowel – ablaut (in present stem -ე [-e], in aorist -ო [-i]; or in present stem 0, in aorist – ა [-a] or -ე [-e]). The first system is dominant and covers the absolute majority of verbs. As for the second, historically expanded system, it is rarely applied today. The modern Georgian witnesses the tendency of “disappearing ablaut vowel alternation remnants, once widely applied in the verb conjugation system and moving to a united, affix system of themes” (Melikishvili, 1979, 84).

We can provide any thematic stem as an example of affix formation in modern Georgian, e.g.: ხატავს [*xat'av-s*] / დახატა [*daxat'a*] “draws / drew” as for ablaut formation – so called ე [e] – ი [i] alternated verbs დრეკს [*drek's*] / დრიკა [*drik'a*] “bends / bent” and 0 – ა [a] / ე [e] alternated verbs თლობს [*tl-i-s*] / (გა)თალა [(*ga*)tal-a] “peals / pealed”, ვჭრის [*v-ch'r-i*] / (გა)-ვჭერო [(*ga*)-v-ch'er-i] “I am cutting / I cut” stems.

We have the same tendency in the English language as well. Namely, modern English verb is basically represented by two grammar groups – the one formed by affixation and the second characterized by wide variety of formation.

The first, regular verbs are historically called weak verbs. They form their past and past participle by adding **-ed** suffix: e.g.: Infinitive: *to paint*, Past: *paint-ed*, Past participle: *paint-ed*.

Irregular verbs are historically called strong verbs. While changing their forms they do not become subject to the above mentioned affix rules and are characterized by variety of formation. There are about two hundreds of irregular verbs which are classified in the following way:

1. The irregular verbs that have three different varieties out of three main forms (infinitive, past and past participle): *speak – spoke – spoken*.
2. The irregular verbs that have two identical varieties out of their three main forms. In this case three subgroups are distinguished: a) Identical past and past participle forms, different infinitive: *bring – brought – brought*; b) Identical infinitive and past participle forms of verb, different past form: *come – came – come*; c) Identical infinitive and past forms, different past participle: *beat – beat – beaten*.
3. The irregular verbs the three forms of which are identical: *put – put – put*.

The vast majority of verbs in English follow the regular affixing rule (Goksadze, Mamatsashvili, Gigineishvili, 1992, 89- 91).

It's worth noting, that important part of English irregular verbs classifies infinitive, past and past participle by means of vowel alternation: see above: *speak – spoke – spoken* etc.

Therefore, the first typological similarity between Georgian and English verb formation can be seen at this level. In both cases at a certain level of language development and to certain part of verbs vowel alternation is applied in order to distinguish verb forms. Later affixing has substituted the vowel alternation. It should also be mentioned, that the rules of forming affixes as well as forming ablauts differ in Georgian and English languages.

Today the ablaut processing of verb forms can be seen as a remnant in both languages. It's noteworthy that the similarity can be observed in processing the main forms of Georgian and English vowel alternated verbs. Namely, the past participle of Georgian verbs with ე [e] – ი [i] alternation and 0 – ა [a] / ე [e] alternation are based on the stem that are presented in present forms and verbal noun (infinitive) not in past forms.

a) Verbs with ე [e] – ი [i] alternation:

Present	Past	Verbal noun	Past participle
გლეჯს [<i>glej-s</i>] “Lacerates”	გლიჯა [<i>glij-a</i>] “lacerated”	გლეჯა [<i>glej-a</i>] “to lacerate”	და-გლეჯილი-ი [<i>da-glej-il-i</i>] “lacerated”
დრეკს [<i>drek's</i>] “bends”	დრიკა [<i>drik'a</i>] “bent”	დრეკა [<i>drek'a</i>] “to bend”	გა-დრეკილი-ი [<i>ga-drek'il-i</i>] “bent”
კრეფს [<i>k'rep-s</i>] “picks”	კრიფა [<i>k'rep-s</i>] “picked”	კრეფა [<i>k'rep-s</i>] “to pick”	და-კრეფილი-ი [<i>da-k'rep-il-i</i>] “picked”



b) Verbs with **o** – **a** / **e** alternation:

	Past	Infinitive	Past participle
Present			
შლ-ო-ს [shl-i-s] “spreads”	გა-შალ-ა [ga-shal-a] “spread”	შლ-ა [shl-a] “to spread”	გა-შლი-ლი [ga-shl-il-i] “spread”
ვ-ცრ-ო [v-cr-i] “I am drizzling”	გა-ვ-ცერ-ო [ga-v-cer-i] “I drizzled”	ცრა [cr-a] “to drizzle”	გა-ცრი-ლი [ga-cr-il-i] “drizzled”

Somehow similar formation can be found in English as well. Namely, the part of irregular verbs in English in past participle presents the stem that is used in the infinitive of the same form:

a) Verbs form their past by means of alternation. Past participle form has the same stem that can be seen in infinitive form and it is added **-en** suffix. In this case all three forms are different.

Infinitive	Past	Past participle
to give	gave	given
to eat	ate	eaten
to see	saw	seen

b) Verbs form their past form by means of alternation. Past participle has the same vowel stem that can be seen in infinitive form, but does not add **-en** suffix. In this case two forms: infinitive and past participle are identical:

Infinitive	Past	Past participle
to become	became	become
to come	came	came
to run	ran	run

It’s interesting that in English there are past participle forms of irregular verbs with the vowel stem that are applied in past, not in infinitive. These types of past participles can be presented with or without **-en** suffix: *speak- spoke- spoken; wear - wore - worn*.

The similar examples can be drawn from Georgian vowel alternated verbs if these verbs have parallel versions in present forms: *კრეფ-ს [k'rep^h-s]*, *კრეფ-ავ-ს [k'rep^h-av-s]*, *კრიფ-ავ-ს [k'rip^h-av-s]* “picks”. Later verbal noun (infinitive) and past participle can be based on it: according to Georgian dialects, there are **o** [i] vowel stem past participle forms of this type vowel alternated verbs: *გა-კრიფ-ული [ga-k'rip^h-ul-i]* “picked”, compare to past: *მოკრიფ-ა (Mo)k'rip^h-a* “picked” etc (Kurdadze, 2005, 114).

It’s worth noting that in Georgian as well as in English languages various vowel stems of main forms of vowel alternated verbs are used with the function of noun formation.

Namely, nouns that are formed from present stems of vowel alternated verbs, **ე[e]** vowel stems:

დენ-ო [den-i] “current” (from the verb to flow. Present: *ადენ-ს [aden-s]* – past: *ადინ-ა [adin-a]*),
ზნექ-ო [zneq^h-i] “bending” (from the verb to bend. Present: *ზნექ-ს [zneq^h-s]* – past: *ზნიქ-ა [zniq^h-a]*),
წნეხ-ო [ts'nex-i] “press” (from the verb to pressure. Present: *წნეხ-ს [ts'nex-s]* “press” – past: *წნობ-ა [ts'nix-a]* “pressed) etc.

Nouns that are formed from past stems of vowel alternated verbs, **ო[i]** vowel stems:

ბზიკ-ო [bzik'-i] “wasp” (from the verb to perk. Present: *ბზეკ-ს [zbek'-s]* – past: *ბზიკ-ა [bzik'-a]*),
ლხინ-ო [lxin-i] (from the verb to feast. Present: *ალხენ-ს [alxen-s]* – past: *ალხინ-ა [alxin-a]*),
ცქვიტ-ო [cq^hvit'-i] (meaning – frisky. Present: *ცქვიტ-ს [cq^hvet's]* – past: *ცქვიტ-ა [cq^hvit'a]*) etc.



Complete list and characteristics of formation of these nouns are presented in the index of vowel alternated verb forms that is annexed to our work ‘Vowel Alternating Verbs in Modern Georgian Language’ (Kurdadze, 2005).

Similar circumstances can be seen in English vowel alternated verb forms as well. Namely, there are some nouns that are based on infinitive stem of vowel alternated verb that is at the same time used to form present and future forms:

Blow – to boast, cocaine (jargon), from the verb *blow* – *blew*,

Drive – way, from the verb *drive* – *drove*,

Eat – food, from the verb *eat* – *ate*,

Fall – autumn, from the verb *fall*-*fell*.

Infinitive stem derivatives in English is not a surprising issue (just like having verbal noun and present stem derivatives in Georgian) since infinitives are non finite verb forms and contain elements of a noun. However, it’s important that some of these forms have derivatives with past stem as well. For example:

Broke – to have a financial crisis, from the verb *break* – *broke*,

Chose – piece of personal property, thing, from the verb *choose* – *chose*,

Struck - closed by or subjected to a labor strike, from the verb *strike* – *struck*, etc.

The above mentioned English derivatives have different meanings. We’ve provided these example form online dictionary. See <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/drive>

Similar derivatives can be found in other non-vowel-alternated irregular English verbs as well. Generally, we would like to mention that, the complete list of these types of derivatives is to be shown and described in the English language. We consider the making of complete list and relating it to relevant verb forms as a necessary thing for English. In addition, considering the fact that nowadays there are wide varieties of English dialects spread around the word, it can be supposed that number of derivatives will even increase.

Naturally, it is beyond the bounds of possibility to fully analyze the above mentioned English derivatives in one article, in fact that is not our goal.

Our work is related to teaching Georgian language to English language students. On the basis of common tendencies of forming Georgian and English verbs the present work shows typologically the same word formation of one type in Georgian and English languages. We believe a teacher of the Georgian language can use this similarity effectively while working with English language students.

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Classification of Georgian Verbs in German Language Textbooks

ABSTRACT

The represented article concerns the problem of the Georgian verbs classification in the German language textbooks. Differences and similarities between these classifications are shown. In the “Introduction to the Georgian Language” by Kita Tschenkéli and in the “Georgian Grammar” by Heinz Fähnrich, similarly as in Akaki Shanidze’s works, the voice is taken as the basis of the verbs classification. However, some differences are obvious. In the manual by Kita Tschenkéli and in the Dictionary as well, the system of verb indexation is studied; it is founded on transitivity, voice and other verb categories. It is remarkable that in Kita Tschenkéli separates indirect (inverted) verbs as the V type of conjugation. Attention is focused on the sequence of the verb categories studying process with this author, In Fähnrich’s work, one of the most denotable is representing of unified scheme of verb formants and reflecting different opinion about verbs classification (recognition of inversion in the *aqvs-hyavs* (have) type verbs and emplacing medio-active verbs in the category of the active verbs).

Classification of the verbs in Abuladze & Ludden’s work and the verbs tables (Chotivari-Jünger & Melikishvili & Wittek) are studied in this paper. In the mentioned works, three types of conjugation are considered in accordance with the theory of diathesis by Damana Melikishvili. The basis of this classification is not only morphological structure of the verbs but their syntactic construction as well (case of the subject and valency). Finally, the importance of verbs indexation and forming of the consequential system for the foreign learners of the Georgian language is underlined.

It has already been long time since the Europeans became interested in the Georgian Language. However, the students and investigators have always had certain difficulties in dealing with the morpho-syntactic and semantic complexity of the Georgian verbs. Very often, the foreigners cannot manage to conjugate the verbs independently or to identify the conjugated forms correctly.

At the beginning of the XX century, among the European scholars, the opinion that Georgian verb had not completed its formation yet, dominated. The scholars thought, based on the complexity of the Georgian verb, that it was impossible to study and understand Georgian verb forms, there was no completed conjugation system in Georgian, and even linguists and grammar specialists had not come to any conclusions about many problems of the Georgian verb” (Dirr, 1904, p. 3; Tschenkéli, 1958, 1, p. XXXI). The famous German scholar Adolph Dirr expressed his anxiety: “It is strange and very pitiable that Caucasian Languages are poorly investigated and remain „terra incognita“ for the majority of linguists. Through studying those languages we may find a key to the insight for many historically important but yet unknown languages” (Dirr, 1904, p. VII; Tschenkéli, 1958, 1, p. XXIII). This was said more than a century ago but even nowadays, verb-study makes most obstacles for the authors of the textbooks for non-Georgian learners. It is quite difficult to explain Georgian verb categories, their derivation and functions clearly and easily. One of the most important issues is explaining correct classification of the Georgian verbs during teaching process, as understanding this problem gives a clue for understanding changes of the Georgian verb-forms.

We aim to review the teaching material compiled in Germany from the above-mentioned viewpoint. Many German authors writing textbooks of the Georgian Language in German, are well-known such as K. Tschenkéli, H. Fähnrich, L. Abuladze & A.Ludden and St.Chotivari-Jünger & D.Melikishvili & L.Wittek. In their books, special attention is paid to the verb characteristics, conjugation and classification. The classification of each author is different which is the result of difference between their basic principles.

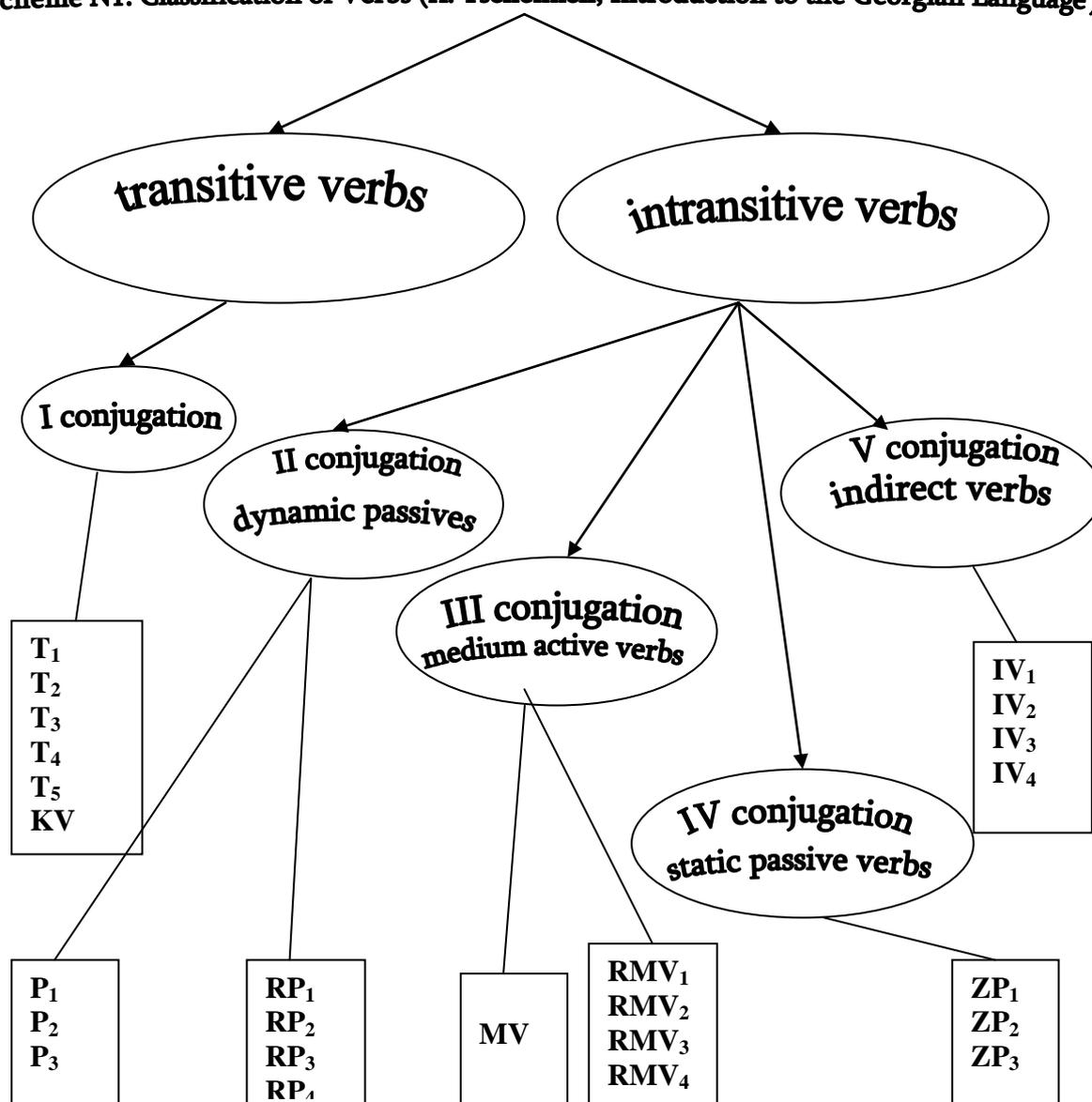
It was first in 1958, that Kita Tschenkéli published the “Introduction to the Georgian Language”. It was the attempt to introduce the grammar system of the Georgian Language to the Europeans. His following note is very remarkable: “It is inconvenient to classify Georgian verbs solely according their inner content” (Tschenkéli,



1960-1965, p. XXIV). Thus, the author gives priority to the formal aspect. It is very important in the cases when a verb is intransitive but by its inner content it is transitive, e. g. (*vamtknareb* – *I am yawning* – *davamtknareb* – *I will yawn*) or when transitive verb resembles intransitive (*vq̄idulob* – *I am buying* – *vq̄idi* – *I will buy*).

The author marks out two classes of the Georgian verbs (Verbarten, Verbklassen): **I. Transitive and II. Intransitive**. In its turn the intransitive group is divided into four sub-groups: passives (Passiva), middle voice verbs (Mittelverben), absolute and relative forms, passives of circumstances (Zustandspassiva) and inverted verbs (Indirekte Verben). Such classification resembles the classification by Akaki Shanidze, but does not repeat it exactly. The indirect (objective or inverted) verbs are separated out in this type of classification. The five types of conjugation are listed there and sub-types are pointed out according the markers of version, situation, personal markers of inidirect object and causatives. The first letters of the German terms borrowed from Latin are used as symbols (see scheme N1):

Scheme N1: Classification of Verbs (K. Tschenkeli, Introduction to the Georgian Language)



I conjugation – Transitive verbs (Transitive Verben): T1 – neutral version: *çers* (writes), *aḱetebs* (does), *asxams* (pours); T2 – subjective version: *içers* (writes for himself), *iḱetebs* (does for himself), *isxams* (pours for himself); T3 – objective version: *uçers* (writes for him); *uḱetebs* (does for him); *pours for him* (*usxams*); T4 –



superessive version (situation): *daaçers* (writes on the); T5 – marked with the indirect object marker: *misçers* (will write to him); KV – causative verbs: *açerinebs* (makes him write), *aķetebeninebs* (makes him do) and so on....

II conjugation – so called dynamic passives (Passive Verben):

Absolute forms (one-person forms): P1 – with morpheme **-i** (iniani): *içereba* (is being written), *ibadeba* (is born) and others; P2 – with the marker **d** (doniani) – *tetrdeba* (gets white), *saxeldeba* (is named), – *berdeba* (grows old) and so on; P3 – with no marker (ebiani) – *ķvdeba* (is dying), *šreba* (dries up) and others.

Relative forms (two-person verb forms) RP1 **-eniani**: *emaleba* (is hiding from him), *eķareba* (is creeping to him); RP2 – with indirect object marker: *scildeba* (separates from), *sžerdeba* (makes do from); RP3 – objective version forms: *ušavdeba*: (it gets black for him) and others; RP4 – with situation marker: *ašreba* (dries up on him) and others.

III conjugation – medium voice active verbs (so called medioactives) (MV - Mittelverben): *cocxlobs* (lives, is alive), *mefobs* (reigns), *ķamatobs* (argues)...

Relative: RMV1 – with indirect object marker : *sdaražobs* (guards), RMV2 – objective version: *uyimis* (smiles to him, *ugalobs* (sings to him) ; RMV3 – superessive version (situation): *adgas* (stands over smth); RMV4 – with **e** marker (**eniani**): *eçvis* (it burns, he has burning), *esmis*.

IV conjugation – static passive verbs (so called situation passives – Zustandspassiva): ZP1 – neutral version: *çeria* (is written here), *agdia* (is lying) and so on; ZP2 – objective version: *uçeria* (it is written – he has written); ZP3 – superessive situation: *açeria* (it is written on the), *axaķia*...

V conjugation – so called inverted verbs (or indirect verbs – Indirekte Verben): IV1 – with indirect object marker: *szuls* (hates); IV2 – objective version: *uķvars* (loves); IV3 – with situation marker: *axsendeba* (remembers), *agviandeba* (is late); IV4 – passive with **e** marker: (*ra*) *exumreba* – (what makes him) joke.

Sequence of material delivering is also the central issue. First, type I and II series forms of the Georgian verbs are discussed in this textbook, and then, on the higher level of teaching – inverted forms, objective person markers and III series forms. With the indirect verbs the author discusses in details the nature of inversion, subject-object grammatical and semantic interrelations, and at the end he gives detailed analysis verbs of peculiar conjugation or so called verbs of altered stems (*aris*, *akvs*, *hķavs*, *zis*, *modis* – *is*, *has*, *sits*, *comes*).

Listing of series forms (mwkrivi forms) goes on the traditional way but in the present tense group (according the author's terminology – I tense group– I Zeitgruppe) does not contain two circles and the forms or mwkrivis are matched as follows:

- a. Präsens – present, b. Futurum – Future,
- c. Imperfekt – Continuous, d. Konditionalis – Imperfect (“xolmeobiti”),
- e. Konjunktiv -Conjunctive I: Präsens Konjunktiv I – a. Present conjunctive;

Futurum Konjunktiv – b. Future conjunctive

Kita Tschenkéli thoroughly implemented the principle of indexation of the Georgian verbs in the large Georgian-German Dictionary, which is the direct and organic part of this textbook. The type of conjugation in accordance with the above listed symbols and the verbs are arranged based on the nesting principle (in accordance with their roots, version and causation), which was at that time an innovation in the Georgian lexicography.

In the preface to the Dictionary, the author remarks: „It was most important to find a new way to show the peculiarities of the Georgian verb, by means of which the verb could be not only analyzed in a comprehensive way, but this could be done efficiently. The fame of the Georgian Language spread as difficult to study, having a complex verb system, thus lighting up this labyrinth was necessary“ (Tschenkéli, 1960-1965, p. XIX-XX).

Kita Tschenkéli proves why it is not appropriate to chose the infinitive as an initial form in the dictionary and to arrange verb forms on its basis. He gives some reasons: masdar does not have any version, active and passive forms, their personality is not distinguished, impossibility for derivating conjugation forms, absence of corresponding masdar for some verbs (Tschenkéli, 1958, 1, p. 623-628).

“Georgian Concise Grammar” by **H Fähnrich** was first published in 1986. The Georgian verbs are divided into four types in this book: 1. Transitive active verbs; 2. Passive verbs (with **-i** marker: *igližeba* -(tears up), *ingreva* (breaks down); with **-d** marker : *çitildeba* (gets red), *paķaravdeba* (diminishes); with **-eb** marker: *tbeba* (gets warm); 3. Intransitive active verbs: *mušaobs* (works); and 4. Verbs of perception: *uķvars* (loves), *szuls* (hates). The author discusses also the other types of the verbs: denoting natural phenomena: *çvims* (rains), *civa* (it



is cold); irregular verbs: *aris (is)*, *akvs (has)*, *dgas (stands)*, and the verbs of semantic field of speech: *ambobs (says)*, *eubneba (tells)* (Fähnrich, 1986, p. 71-134). Such division is mainly based upon the one suggested by Akaki Shanidze, but does not exactly coincide with it, as the author includes the inversion of the person markers in verbs of *uqvars (loves)* type, into his review; and besides, he does not consider -e as the marker of the passive voice.

The peculiarities of conjugation of the different types of verbs are thoroughly discussed in the work of H. Fähnrich.

The general scheme of the construction of the Georgian verbs is given in the book. 21 formants are given in the scheme, among them: three groups of pre-verbs (1 – *čina-, ze-*; 2 – *da-, აყ-, ga-, še-*; 3 – *mo-*); subject person marker, prefix *v-*, object person markers prefixes *m-, g-, gv-, h*; also so called characteristic vowels (vowel prefixes *a, e, i, u*), participle prefix *m-*, root or simple stem, stem expending vowel *a*, masdar suffixes (*-om,-ol*), passive voice suffix *d-*, formants of the present tense stem (*-eb, -ob, -av, -am, -i, -em, -of*), causation markers (*-ev,-in*), formant of the present in causative *-eb*, participle suffix *-ar*, passive suffixes (*-eb, -ev, -ob*), expending vowels of the present tense (*-od,-ad*), person and plural suffixes (*-s, -a, -es, -nen*), additional *-n*, series (*mčkrivi*) markers (*-i, -o*), auxiliary verbs (*-a, -var, -iḡavi*), number marker (*-t*), indirect speech markers (particles *-o, -tko*). One example for each corresponding verb form is given in the scheme: *čam (you eat)*, *davaxaṭvineb (I will make him draw)*, *činaayudgnen, (ra zala) madgas, mohḡvdomia, eylabuceboda, dagvatvalierebinebdnen, gaviḡinebi, ševmcdariavi, ubrzolniat, dakaldao, dagixaṭivart, zečamoičra, mogvašlevines, gamomiḡvana-tko*.

In 2006 the textbook written by L. Abuladze & A. Ludden was published. Its purpose was to enhance acquisition of colloquial Georgian Language with the help of conversation texts. The verbs are divided into three types in accordance with their conjugation (complying with the diathesis theory of Prof. D. Melikishvili):

1. **First conjugation:** Transitive and intransitive verbs with case-changing subjects (so-called active medium verbs);

2. **II conjugation:** intransitive verbs with unchanging subject (denominative, derivative) and passive verbs (dynamic, static) and in addition the forms translated into German as reflexive verb forms.

3. **III conjugation:** indirect or inverted verbs with subject in dative case.

It is noted in relation with the verbs of the second conjugation, that in the Georgian linguistic literature they are identified as the verbs of the passive voice. However, for the foreigners it is not easy to understand this phenomenon, as when translating them in German, they do not appear passive verbs. (Abuladze & Ludden, 2006, p.204).

While the grammar reference book is not very large, specificity of the Georgian Language and verb peculiar features are discussed fully and clearly. The textbook is expended by means of the tables of the verbs conjugations (Abuladze & Ludden, 2006, p.p. 245-323) such as: *aris (is) xaṭavs (draws)*, *ixaṭeba (is being drawn)*, *midis (goes)*, *icis (knows)* and others. The forms of masdar and participle are given as well.

“The Georgian Verb Tables” by **St. Chotivari-Jünger & D. Melikishvili & L.Wittek** was published in 2010. Three types of verbs are identified in that book. The principle of grouping the Georgian verbs into three diathesis, in accordance with the works of Damana Melikishvili, became the theoretical foundation for this book. This principle differs from that of grouping by the voice of the verbs. Diathesis is based on the verb structure, its construction, covers voice, version, conversion and inversion, static and dynamics, case alterations of actants and their semantics are also considered.

In this book, the type of conjugation, paradigm, masdar, basic tense forms (Present, Aorist, and Perfect) and the case of the logical subject are indicated with 800 verbs. These indications enable to conjugate correctly the verbs with similar structure but with different pre-verbs; to find the corresponding Georgian verb among the alphabetic order of the German verbs, to identify its conjugation type and find its model. Using this indexation helps the foreign learners to find the correct way dealing with the complexities of the Georgian verb forms. They will be able to conjugate and use the forms correctly.

The verb tables hold the most part of the book (Chotivari-Jünger et al, 2010, p.p.30-95). Then come paradigm based on the diathesis (Chotivari-Jünger et al, 2010, p.p. 95-137) and the list of the special verbs accompanied with their translations in the end (Chotivari-Jünger et al, 2010, p.p.137-160).

For example, anziehen (dress-dresses - has dressed [čacma-icvams-čaucvams]) goes under the 34th paradigm of the I diathesis. According the model of the verb *vartḡam (I hit)* its conjugation is possible. (Chotivari-Jünger et



al, 2010, p.116) The Georgian equivalents of the German polysemic verbs are indicated in the tables of the verb forms. For example the verb *ablegen* has two corresponding meanings in Georgian: *ablegen (Examen)* – to pass exams; *ablegen (Kleidung)* – to take off (clothes); with the verb *ablehnen* - we have the following Georgian forms: *refuses (uargofs, uars ambobs)*; *abnehmen (Gewicht)* – *gaxdeba (will lose weight)*, but *abnehmen (Brille)* – *ixsnis satvales (take off glasses)*.

Steffi Jünger-Chotivari uses the term “conjugation type” instead “diathesis” and points out one of the characteristic features of this classification: the case of the logical subject (i.e. syntactic structure). Most of the 8000 verbs given in the works of D. Melikishvili belong to the I diathesis (5300 verbs are allocated in 34 subgroups), in the second diathesis there are half of them (2300 verbs in 18 subgroups) and the III diathesis is the smallest (280 verbs, 14 types).

The verbs of the R-0 structure and changeable syntactic construction (ergative construction) form the I diathesis. Their subjects change case: Nominative with the Present forms (I series), Ergative with the Aorist group (II series), Dative with the Perfect group (III series). For example “*is çers - man daçera - mas dauçeria*” he (nom.) writes - he (erg.) wrote - he (dat.) has written. This type includes such verbs as “*vqef*” - I bark, “*vfren*” - I fly, “*vcxovrob*” - I live, “*vçer*” - I write, and so on.

The verbs of the II diathesis have R+i structure. They have a stabe (nominative) construction, as the subject always is in the nominative case: *viçerebi/veçerebi (I am being written)*, *vidriḳebi (I am bending)* and so on.

The verbs of the III diathesis are mostly the verbs of feeling and perception. Their logical subject is always in dative case and always undergoes some sensation (not having strong will): *macvia (I wear)*, *ḱemiḱlia (I can)*, *momçons (I like)* and so on.

The following verbs are listed as peculiar (idiosyncratic) verbs: verbs which alter their stems depending on the series (*aris - is, ḱvreba – does, is doing, devs - lies, ambobs - says* and others); verbs that alter according person alterations “*pirḱi monacvle*” (*tkva – brzana, mobrzanda, brzandeba, miartva, geaxeli*), according number (*abia (sing.) - asxia (plur.) – hangs; ugdebs (sing.) – qris (pl.) - throws*, and so on); verbs that have different stems with animate and inanimate objects; such verbs has mostly got one and the same stem in German causing difficulties for the foreign learners: *haben (akvs - hqavs (has); stellen (dadgams - daaqenebs (stands); nehmen, mitnehmen (aiḱebs - aiqvens (takes)*, and others. Conjugation of some irregular or special verbs are given in the book, e. g. *icis - ucqyis (knows), miscems (he will give), moakvs (is carrying), mivdivar (I go, I am going), vkitxulob (I read), mixaria (I am delighted), vazlev (I give)* and so on.

We think that “The tables of the Georgian verb” published in Germany will become one of the most important teaching material for the Georgian Language learners. It will be very useful to edit similar reference aids with indexations of the verbs and tables of conjugations in Georgia.

Schematically, the classification of the Georgian verbs in the discussed textbooks and reference books look as follows (see schema N2; <http://www.kartuli.net/verben.html>):

Schema N2: Classification of Georgian Verbs in German Language Textbooks			
Kita Tschenkéli	Heinz Fähnrich	Lia Abuladze Andreas Ludden	Steffi Chotivari-Jünger D. Melikishvili Lia Wittek
1. transitive verbs – I conjugation	1. transitive verbs	1. transitive and activ intransitive verbs – I type	1. transitive and intransitive activ verbs (subject in Nominativ, Ergative or Dative cases) – I diathesis
2. dynamic passives – II conjugation with -i marker; with no marker; with -d marker;	2. dynamic passives with -i marker; with no marker; with -d marker;	2. intransitive and passive verbs – II type a. denominative, derivate;	2. intransitive passive verbs (subject in Nominative case) – II diathesis



with e- marker;		b. dynamic passive; c. static passive; d. reflexive verbs;	
3. medium verbs – III conjugation	3. intransitive ac- tive verbs		
4. static passive – IV conjugation	4. verbs of percep- tion		
5. indirect verbs – V conjugation	5. irregular verbs	3. indirect verbs – III type	3. inverted verbs (subject in Dative case) – III diathesis

As we can see in the classifications by Kita Tschenkéli and Heinz Fähnrich, the first three groups are identical. The only difference is that in the verbs with **e (eniani)** H. Fähnrich considers **e** to be the marker of the indirect object. As for classifications by L. Abuladze and Schtefi Khotivari-Jurgen, Prof. D. Melikishvili, according to which the basis for grouping the verbs is their morphological structure as well as their semantic construction, finds both on the theory of diatheses. This theory allows to place so called medio-active verbs in the first group and inverted verbs – in the second group.

The discussed works testify once again to the importance of the correct classification and consequential system for the foreigners in their studying of the Georgian verb conjugation.

It can be said that the willingness of the authors of the German-language textbooks and reference books of the Georgian language is undoubtful. It is clear that they try to make it easy for the foreign learners to learn the Georgian language through separating basic types of the Georgian verbs. Each work is remarkable and the practical experience of the teaching process should be generalized. Some authors' opinions may seem disputable for now, but this does not reduce the importance of their works.

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