

Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University

Faculty of Humanities

Department of European Studies

With the right of manuscript

Anna Kalandia

Linguistic Features of Tourism Discourse

(on Georgian and English language material)

Specialty – Linguistics

Annotation

of the Thesis submitted for acquiring the academic degree of

Doctor of Philology (Ph.D.)

Academic Supervisor: Irine Goshkheteliani

Professor, Batumi Shota Rustaveli State university

Batumi-2022

The dissertation was completed at the Department of European Studies, Faculty of Humanities, Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University

Scientific supervisor: Irine Goshkhetiliani, professor of Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University, doctor of education

Evaluators:

Foreign evaluator:

The thesis defense will take place on room 37, at the meeting of the Dissertation Board of the Faculty of Humanities at Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University.

Address: Batumi 6010, 35/32 Ninoshvili/Rustaveli Street, Block I.

The thesis is available at Batumi Shota Rustaveli State University Ilia Chavchavadze library and BSU website (www.bsu.edu.ge).

Secretary of the Dissertation Board,

Doctor of Philology, Professor

M.Kikvadze

Introduction

The development of the tourism business has presented an important task to linguists, to create texts of a tourist nature, which would easily and correctly convey the events characteristic of this field. Accordingly, a new type of discourse was formed, which was called tourism discourse. It is characterized by a variety of expression, in particular, a written and spoken style that allows us to achieve a comfortable and reliable atmosphere; It is based on intercultural communication, therefore the values and traditions related to the national character of different peoples are reflected in the touristic texts.

Relevance of the topic: Discourse is any connected text, transmitted (fixed) on paper, writing or in an electronic file carrying information or live speech with all its specific elements. There are different kinds of discourses: educational, advertising, political, legal, medical and other discourses, which have different linguistic features that are realized in specific contexts. One of them is tourism discourse, which is the least studied of the above discourses.

It should be noted that tourism discourse is understood as a set of texts that are the product of speech activity in the field of tourism. Like all discourses, tourism discourse has a message sender and addressee. Often, tourism discourse uses media texts to describe certain social realities. Due to the intermediate character of tourism discourse, it also interacts with other types of discourse, such as advertising, scientific, every day and others. The study of tourism discourse has recently started in Georgian linguistics, it is less studied, therefore its research is relevant.

The purpose of the paper: the purpose of the paper is a critical analysis of existing scientific materials on tourism discourse, a study of the genres of tourism discourse, its functional status, institutional categories, and peculiarities of tourism texts. Also, research of lexical, syntactic, functional levels and terminology of tourism discourse, analysis of linguistic peculiarities of tourism texts.

Novelty: The novelty of the work lies in the fact that there are few scientific works on tourism discourse, so the critical analysis of the searched literature, the research of genre, functional and linguistic features of tourism texts is a step forward in the deep study of this

issue. The conclusions drawn will contribute to the further research of tourism texts. In addition, it should be noted that the work is interdisciplinary, it will be useful not only for philologists, but also for specialists working in the tourism industry.

Research methodology: the paper is based on the search for existing literature on the subject, its research and critical analysis; to find, collect and describe authentic materials, information; critical analysis of tourism discourse; quantitative and qualitative research methods of the corpus of touristic texts; lexical, semantic, stylistic analysis of English and Georgian touristic texts, research of borrowed words, terms and phraseological fund with contrasting methods.

The theoretical value of the work lies in the availability of a thorough study of the tourism discourse, which allows to determine the principles of intercultural communication of the tourism discourse. The obtained conclusions form the basis for studying tourism discourse from another angle.

The practical value of the paper provides an opportunity to use the results obtained during the research both in the process of discourse analysis lectures and in lexicology, semantics, pragmatics and sociolinguistics lecture-seminars. Also, the searched texts can be provided as additional material to students majoring in tourism.

The structure of the thesis: the thesis consists of an introduction, 3 chapters and sub-chapters, general conclusions and a list of references.

Summary of the paper

Chapter I. The issue of tourism discourse - consists of five sub-chapters:

1.1. The essence of tourism discourse - Discourse has many meanings and understandings. At least two different types of discourse analysis can be distinguished: the first considers discourses as a means of acquiring knowledge based on its ability to influence human action; and the second considers discourse as socio-cultural texts based on semiotic analysis. Here, discourse analysis deals with both meanings and detailed deconstruction in socio-cultural texts. However, from a theoretical perspective, discourses can be conceptualized by people of different professions in their everyday social and cultural interactions (Fairclough, 1992). They act based on identities, social relations and knowledge that reflect the context in which these

actions take place (Van Dijk, 1993; 1997). A key difference that must be taken into account when attempting discourse analysis is the careful consideration of the socio-cultural context.

In his study of regional heritage in north-east Scotland, Knox (2001) found that the discourse of tourism is particularly influential in the preservation and promotion of the country's historic heritage. Folk song and literary traditions are regulated by the work of ethnologists and continue to be shaped by scholars and enthusiasts through the establishment and activities of heritage societies, specialized research centres.

The meaning of specific words can vary significantly in certain periods of time, which is reflected in discourse analysis. The term discourse itself is perceived in different ways by researchers. Discourses represent the boundaries within which ideas and practices are considered natural; That is, they set the boundaries of what questions are considered relevant (Barnes; Duncan, 1992: 8). Such discursive formations can be considered as discursive frames of communication that have gained some kind of recognition in society. For example, many tourism researchers have noted the importance of tourism discourse in the development of professional specialties, management and hospitality (Cheong; Miller 2000; Hollinshead, 1999; Coleman; Crang, 2001; Tribe, 1997; 2002).

An important task of studying tourism discourse is to determine its typological status. There is a difference of opinion on this matter. In particular, it is assumed that this type of discourse is a variety of institutional advertising discourse. There is a different point of view, which recognizes that it is an independent type of discourse that interacts with other types of discourse, such as household, scientific, advertising, and others.

Both of these positions are highly controversial because the first view narrows the concept of tourism discourse. In our opinion, advertising is just one of the genres of tourism discourse. Therefore, in the first view, the diversity of the tourism discourse is lost. More balanced is the point of view according to which tourism discourse is an independent type of discourse, characterized by a special thematic accent and is focused on a specific addressee. It has a defined purpose, objectives and linguistic means.

Tourism discourse differs from other types of discourse because it involves communication between people who do not belong to a particular social group or a language community. Nevertheless, the participants of the communication have a clear idea about the characteristics

of the tourism discourse genre, as well as about the ways of organization and information exchange.

According to the analysis of the definitions of tourism discourse, the understanding of this phenomenon varies, as studies lead to different definitions. A defining factor is that most linguistic research on tourism discourse is based on the study of its written form. Tourism discourse can be understood as speech that is realized in the institutional situations of conversation in the subject area of tourism (Pogodaeva, 2008: 8).

Based on Van Dijk's theory, Filatova considers tourism discourse as "actually spoken text" related to communications in the field of tourism (Filatova, 2012: 77).

According to Vestito (2006: 3; 22), tourism discourse is the use of language in oral and written form, a form of practice (activity) where the social and cultural meanings of places and people are created and disseminated; a language that promotes tourism and is represented by specific genres.

According to Cappelli, tourism discourse exhibits different levels of specialization that are associated with different types of texts in relation to specific audiences (Cappelli, 2007: 7).

As we mentioned, tourism discourse is understood as a set of texts that are the product of speech activity in the field of tourism. Each type of discourse has both an ideal addresser and an ideal addressee of the speech message. This discourse is represented mainly by media texts described in tourism discourse. These media texts are used as tools for describing and creating a certain social reality (Dobrosklonskaya, 2005:288). Tourism discourse is determined by the use of specific strategies and values. The main intention of the tourism discourse is to increase the attractiveness of tourism as a kind of recreation, in turn, tourism services are promoted through extremely positive attractions.

The objectives of tourism advertising are no different from the objectives of advertising other products. Holloway (Holloway, 2004:265) summarizes the main goals of advertising in three words: inform, persuade and remind which correspond to the AIDA principle used in marketing: attract attention, create interest, arouse desire and inspire action. Berger (2004:71) describes advertising as a genre of communication that uses words and images to persuade people who are exposed to the advertisement to buy their product.

1.1.1. Tourism as an industry - Tourism is a mass socio-economic event on a global scale. In no other field does so much cross culture occur as in the field of tourism. People will never

lose interest in something new, so tourism is becoming more and more popular every year. As a result, the interaction between carriers of different cultures is global. Currently, the tourism industry is constantly growing and developing.

As a separate independent industry, tourism emerged relatively recently. Although, of course, people have always travelled, tourism turned into a global mass industry only after the appearance of a special type of activity - tourist services. Tourism, first of all, satisfies the recreational, hedonic, aesthetic needs of a person, as well as the need of any person to learn more about this or that country. Accordingly, various forms of tourism are constantly improving (Ilyina, 2000: 297), nowadays there are many types of tourism, such as business (participation in exhibitions, business forums, conferences), educational (teaching foreign languages, summer schools of various directions, art courses, museums), shop tourism (combined tourist excursion programs with purchases of certain goods), extreme, sports, historical, gastronomic, literary and many others.

Many different factors have contributed to the rapid development and expansion of tourism and the tourism industry as a whole. The main thing is to improve the quality of life of the population, increase free time and the desire to change places. Thanks to tourism, there is an exchange of socio-cultural information between different nations and countries of the world, which leads to intercultural dialogue and communication.

1.1.2. Tourism discourse as an institutional category - Institutional discourse can be defined as follows: the speech of representatives of this or that social group in a typical speech situation (Karasik, 2000:151).

When studying communications in the field of tourism in linguistic studies, the term "tourism discourse" is used, which refers to speech that is realized in institutional situations of conversation. According to Panchenko, tourism discourse is a special type of advertising discourse, which combines different types of tourism advertising and aims to advance and develop tourist services with the help of argumentation strategies, which have a linguo-cognitive character (Panchenko, 2014: 67). It can contain both one and many more textual components, which have certain extra-linguistic parameters, which are functionally related to each other. Tourism discourse refers to the organization of tourist trips, culture, traditions, accommodation, hotels, geographical description of the place, entertainment, excursions.

The lexical, structural and thematic features of touristic texts allow us to consider them as a special informative genre. Tourism discourse occupies new territories. Valdeon (2015: 363) claims that museums have become part of the modern concept of tourism. Thus, tourism discourse with its own non-linguistic basis can exist independently from the linguistic point of view.

1.2. Typological status of tourism discourse - We support the point of view that tourism discourse is an independent type of discourse, which is characterized by its thematic direction, the uniqueness of the goal, the specificity of linguistic means, its own genre paradigm and, of course, it has a strictly defined addressee. However, some clarifications are needed here. In order to clearly imagine the typological status of tourism discourse, it is necessary to review a) the field of communication where it functions; b) communication goals; c) type of communicators (addresser and addressee).

Discussion of the features of tourism discourse functioning gives us the basis to define its typological status as follows: a) The discourse of tourism undoubtedly appears as an institutional category because it is used in conversational situations in which one party represents a social or economic institution, which carries out its work in the framework of tourism business (management, marketing, finance, personnel policy, public relations, media resources, cultural and art institutions of different countries, state, legal, social, nature protection organizations); b) Entering the space of institutional discourse, the discourse of tourism can be considered as a variety of business discourse, as its signs show the official side (the speaking parties are in an official relationship with each other when both or one of the parties performs specific professional functions), status (relationships take into account social distance), existence of a business problem, determination of time and place, normativity of communicative behavior, etiquette, tonality depending on the type of addressee: when dealing with representatives of organizations - formality, neutrality, etiquette; when interacting with tourists - emotionality, appreciation, trust, intentional transition to friendly relations, psychological interaction and others.

1.3. Functional status of tourism discourse - The functional status of tourism discourse consists in providing information, advertising, establishing communication, attracting tourists to this or that country or a specific place, which is determined by lexical-grammatical, syntactic, stylistic means that create a friendly conversation style.

Basically, the main functional characteristics of tourism discourse are **informativeness**, **evaluation** and **encouragement**.

A special function of tourism discourse is **informativeness**, as it contains detailed information about a specific object of the tourism sector. With this information, one is convinced to go on a journey to visit the places described in the texts. The need to evaluate what is seen is also one of the important functions of the tourism discourse, which is so important to it. **Evaluation** is defined as an important value aspect because it expresses various expressive, emotional and evaluative attitudes. **Encouragement** means a push to do something, to fulfill a desire or intention. In tourism discourse, this term refers to the aim of the addresser to make the addressee purchase a tour or visit a tourist facility.

The characteristics of tourism discourse at the functional level are:

1. Referencing is always the main function, since the main purpose of tourism texts is to provide information to the tourist and describe a country, region, society, etc.
2. The so-called persuasive or referral function is another preferred function. According to Dann, (1996: 2) the main purpose of the language of tourism is “to persuade, lure, woo and seduce millions of human beings, and, in doing so, convert them from potential into actual clients”.
3. Expressive, connotative and poetic functions are secondary functions.

All the above-mentioned functions are expressed through lexical and syntactic techniques, as well as those canvases, photographs, symbols, etc. through displays that represent non-linguistic and non-verbal elements. The mentioned non-linguistic elements play an important role in touristic texts and are also carriers of a kind of persuasion and even poetic function. The mentioned represents indivisible elements of persuasion, charm, etc. and is often considered as the so-called trigger in terms of planning their routes, deciding on places to visit, as well as deciding on certain purchases, both before and during the visit. Therefore, these elements should be given due attention when working on the source text and should become even more important in the process of preparing the translation for the target audience.

1.3.1. Promotional function of tourism discourse - Tourism brochures have a significant influence on tourists' decisions. They give a certain impression about their destination. Hence, it becomes crucial while choosing their vacation packages. Tourist brochures are studied by Andereck (2005: 9). His research shows how a brochure can increase potential visitors' interest

in visiting a destination. Its strategic importance for the tourism industry is also emphasized by Morgan and Pritchard (1998: 31), when they argue that the tourist vision is formed by the professional authors who create the brochure. One of the identifying features of tourist brochures is the use of expressive vocabulary.

Angela Goddard (2002: 35) argues that the expression of feelings in advertising has a special role because, as a form of communication, it consciously aims to manage our emotions. Authors use a combination of lexical-grammatical resources to positively convey the reality they are trying to promote. We live in a world saturated with advertisements, and their volume and impact are increasing day by day. Advertisements do not exist independently of people, they require the involvement of the public in order to decipher the information and perceive the various connections (Goddard, 1998:10). It should be noted that verbal and non-verbal characteristics are equally related to the text and the text in turn requires its understanding (ibid:16).

Advertising and information services are unthinkable without tourist texts. Tourism texts include: tourist guides, brochures, booklets, websites and others. These kinds of texts represent written genres of tourism discourse. Davidson (1992:3) defines advertising as a social language, a genre of viewer/reader experience, a technique of persuasion, almost a world with its own right, with its own language, traditions and purpose. Language that is best designed to convey impressions that match the expectations of vacationers must be well-chosen and woven into persuasive, engaging texts.

1.3.2. Communicative and persuasive function of tourism discourse - According to Nigro (2006: 189), the language of tourism fulfills three communicative functions: vocative (advertising), expressive and referential. Promotional materials such as brochures, directories and advertisements have a vocative function to attract the attention of potential customers, while travel books and tourism magazines have a predominantly expressive function, because they focus on tourists' impressions and their travel experience. The descriptive referential function prevails in guidebooks or museum panels that verbally and graphically describe tourist attractions and provide objective information to interested parties. In tourism texts, there is no clear distinction between language functions, as they are usually created by one system.

Persuasiveness is a crucial element of evocative and expressive communication functions in advertising materials and travel texts, as an attractive, personalized and detailed description of a tourist destination makes the information credible to potential customers. Tautology is also an important discursive element of tourism discourse, which helps to create the effect of persuasiveness (Dann, 1996: 66). After familiarizing themselves with the content of tourism texts, tourists become convinced of their credibility because they contain authentic information that sounds convincing, this has a positive impact on consumer decisions, however, sometimes biased and fabricated information is found in articles published by journalists, which requires additional evidence.

In addition to encouraging nouns, a positive meaning can be associated with all adjectives, besides, “unique” and “top” which refer to the special and excellent qualities of tourist attractions. The most frequently used verb, “offer”, is a hidden hint that influences tourists by inspiring them to participate in sightseeing tours. Other frequently used verbs such as “see, visit, enjoy, explore” encourage them not to miss this pleasant and attractive trip.

The frequent repetition of the word “website” indicates that city tours are mainly promoted through direct Internet marketing, and adjectives such as “frugal, cheap, affordable”, stimulate tourists.

Comparison as a persuasive communication technique is often used in the tourism language. Comparisons and metaphors exaggerate the tourism product and thereby change people’s attitudes. For example: *Adorned with huge skyscrapers and pristine beaches, Dubai attracts tourism like honey a group of bumblebees.*

Style, vocabulary, syntactic structures and persuasive discourse, such as the self-presentation, individualization of the travel experience, have been used as powerful tools of persuasion. Vocabulary choices such as the use of keywords, the abundance of adjectives, comparisons and metaphors tend to exaggerate. This gives more credibility to travel texts and allows potential travellers to choose their preferred route.

1.3.3. The social function of English-language tourism discourse and sociolinguistic studies

- A sociolinguistic revolution in language and tourism research has become evident over the past decade (Dann, 1996; Jaworski; Pritchard, 2005; Jaworski; Thurlow, 2007). This field of linguistics allows tourism discourse researchers to conduct research in different social strata.

The first systematic sociolinguistic study of language and tourism was discussed by Graham Dann (1996) in "The Language of Tourism: A Sociolinguistic Perspective." According to him, tourism has its own discourse and tourism is indeed a special discourse. Dann offers an analysis of the social function of the language of tourism discourse. He considers language as a tool for the active involvement of users (not only in the process of consumption, but also in the process of co-creating language), as a process of social control (containing norms and values) and as a means of socialization (in the development of the identity of all stakeholders). In addition to creating a whole new understanding of language (as well as language techniques and language registers) in tourism, Dann offers a new perspective on the development of tourism discourse, which is linked to a wide range of studies (in the fields of sociology, anthropology, semiotics, philosophy, communication studies and direction management). Dann's book paved the way for subsequent sociolinguistic studies of the language of tourism, which have mainly focused on language as the representation and elimination of identities, power and social difference in tourism contexts (Thurlow; Jaworski, 2003; Jaworski; Pritchard, 2005; Cappelli, 2006; Fox, 2006b; Phipps, 2006; Bryce, 2007; Jaworski; Thurlow, 2007).

Sociolinguistics can provide the researcher with an objective view of the relationship between language and tourism as a complement to linguistic theory, as a set of mini-theories, as an independent social theory or a combination of all three.

Sociolinguistic research on tourism discourse allows us to describe the destination in public discourse and analysis as an object of sale in the tourism market.

Another important book, similarly called "The Sociology of Tourism, Theoretical and Empirical Studies" by Apostolopoulos, Yorgos, Stella Leyvad, Andrew Yanakis (first edition published in 1996, reprinted in 1999, 2000, 2001), is a pioneering work aimed at legalizing and legitimizing the international sociology of tourism. The authors discuss topics related to tourism: the sociological development of modern tourism, the tourism system and the individual, the structures of social inequality in the tourism system, the underdevelopment and dependence of tourism, tourism and social changes, and finally, the new sociology of tourism (Apostolopoulos, Yiorgos..., 2001:4).

Fox (2008: 20) claims that sociolinguistics can provide the researcher with an objective view of the relationship between language and tourism. More precisely, it offers a systematic and critical analysis of tourism language use from different perspectives (Fox, 2008:21). On the

other hand, in the first decade of the 21st century, the language of tourism acquired a distinctive status and became one of the means of research in other areas of tourism (destination marketing, management, branding, hospitality, advertising, sociology of tourism).

According to Fox (ibid: 21), “a sociolinguistic understanding” of tourism destination public discourse allows researchers and practicing managers to recognize tourism destination public discourse as more than simply providing information to consumers.

Chapter II. Types of touristic texts - includes seven sub-chapters:

2.1. Genres of tourism discourse - Before moving on to the classification of tourism discourse genres, it is interesting to determine the factors necessary for the identification of the genre itself. The term “genre” was borrowed by discourse analysts from the theory of literary studies (Cook, 2003:7). According to the English linguist, John Swales, a genre is a class consisting of communicative events, the members of which share a number of communicative purposes (Swales, 1990:58). It is one of the categories of communicative speech. According to the classification of Filatova (2012:56-62), it is possible to distinguish the following genres of tourism discourse:

1. When speaking directly in oral speech:
 - a) Excursion (speech of excursionists and tour guides);
 - b) dialogue with the employee of the service department (office or non-office dialogue between the representative of the travel firm and the client);
 - c) Dialogue with the representative of the receiving party (between the person accompanying the client/group and the hotel employee/tour bus driver);
 - d) dialogue between the tour operator and the agent (reservation of hotels, air tickets, etc.).
2. Speaking through an intermediary in oral speech:
 - a) video guide - overview-geographical documentary film;
 - b) audio guide.
3. Printed texts of written variety:
 - a) guide book;
 - b) catalogue;
 - c) article;
 - d) brochure;

e) tourist prospectus;

f) notice sheet.

4. Computer-written variety:

a) virtual excursion;

b) tourist sites;

c) e-mail from the client to the travel agency;

d) forum of tourists and travellers;

e) electronic correspondence of employees of tourist companies;

f) feedback from the tourist;

g) tourist or traveller's blog.

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

The most specific and complex genre is the guide genre, because it is the most important source of information about the country's natural, economic and cultural characteristics, it is the country's visiting card.

2.2. The structure of tourist guides - A tourist guide aims to provide extensive information about the mentality, culture, various features of a particular country, as well as certain historical information. A special genre of tourism discourse is emerging as a visiting card of the country. As a rule, any textbook includes the following parts: 1) historical facts; 2) cultural events and celebrations; 3) sightseeing with their description; 4) information about location, map; 5) excursion programs; 6) cost and time of tours; 7) contact information.

However, the guide may contain other sections and have a completely different structure. There is simply no hard and fast pattern that all guidebooks should follow. In addition, guides can be divided into different types according to the main thematic component (copyright, reference, encyclopedic, promotional and informational). At the same time, all the guidebooks are made in such a way that they have an appropriate impact on the reader, interest them, and arouse the desire to visit a particular country. By its very nature, a guidebook is an ideological text aimed at creating an image of a country or modeling a certain reality in the reader's mind

(Kiselyova,2008: 445-454). Therefore, guidebooks can have a psychological effect on readers. For more productive influence, the following techniques are used:

- 1) Hierarchization of space - in the text of the guide, only the area that is worth observing is highlighted, that is, the most attractive objects (beautiful landscapes, monuments, etc.) are indicated;
- 2) selection of facts - guidebook authors, assuming that the reader does not have all the information about a particular country or city, cite facts that attract tourists, while omitting such facts that may frighten them;
- 3) Certain interpretation - information is provided to the reader from a certain point of view, using various stylistic and syntactic techniques in the text.

There are certain types of organization of the main part of the guidebook: centrifugal (reproduction of the cyclic structure of the city landscape), logical (informatively important segments of the text and factual data of the area described in the guide are given sequentially), gradual (the text is organized according to the principle of gradual increase in the amount of important information), route formation (represents a verbalized excursion in the text) (Filatova, 2012).

2.2.1. Linguistic features of tourist guides and brochures - Advertising and information services are inconceivable without tourist texts. The touristic texts are as follows: Travel guides, brochures, booklets, websites and more. These kinds of texts represent written genres of tourism discourse.

The importance of the tourist guide is great. In fact, it is the visiting card of the country. Each brochure provides the following sections: historical facts, traditional celebrations, cultural events, information about historical monuments, a map and general information about the location of the country, also - excursion programs, cost of tours, time, etc. The structure of the tourist guide is unlimited. Some guides may contain advertisements, images, encyclopedic information. The main thing is that this kind of booklet has an effect, interests the tourist and makes him want to come to this or that country. Therefore, the image of the country is formed by tourist guides.

We analyzed and quantitatively and qualitatively studied two guides, one in English and one in Georgian. We considered it appropriate to study them from a quantitative point of view, because we were interested in how many different language units were used to attract tourists

in texts of almost the same size. We studied the number of words in them, namely, nouns, adjectives, pronouns, conjunctions, verbs, adverbs, idioms, phrasal verbs, abbreviations, formed or affixed words, compound words, sentence types: simple, compound and subordinate sentences. We also studied borrowed words. We analyzed the use of semantics, namely descriptive language, in the brochures to find out if there is anything in common in the texts of the two languages.

Table 1. Quantitative survey of the corpus

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

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

Research has shown that the language of tourism contains more adjectives than general English. These adjectives are pleasant and express positive emotions. Fascinating, colourful and vivid descriptions make more impressions and attract more potential tourists. Many adjectives express positive emotions. It is common to use adjectives in superlative and comparative degrees. The use of hyperboles also gives positive results. They influence the reader's emotions, attitudes and beliefs: *Historical sites to take you back through time, vast landscapes to explore, and wildlife to make you go "aw"* (<https://www.visitengland.com/things-to-do/region/northumberland>);

2.2.2. Analysis of tourist websites - Words in tourism advertising do not appear by chance, because the persuasive function of tourism discourse is closely related to language choice. To confirm the above hypothesis, we analyzed a corpus of texts selected from different tourism websites and studied them from a lexical and syntactic perspective. We aimed to identify specific language patterns that characterize the language of tourism websites.

The findings gathered from the analysis of our sample texts are consistent with Dann's statement that tourism promotion is based on glamour (Dann, 1996:56) and the language of tourism tends to promote only positive and bright services and attractions (Dann, 1996:65). In support of this view, our sample revealed positive adjectives (magical moments; amazing country; famous beaches; exciting activities; perfect holiday) and high level of positive emotional words.

The most frequent form is the use of adjectives in the superlative degree: world's biggest festival; the most spectacular geology; Britain's biggest gorge, etc.

The website is the most popular tool used by tourists to discover the country's tourist destinations. Tourists prefer to use online media to get more information about tourist attractions. The website as one of the online media has become a popular media that people use to get valuable information about the destination. The development of information technology promotes the use of online media, for example, websites, social media, usually increases compared to print media, such as booklet, brochure and other advertising media. An essential factor that can influence tourist arrivals is how the advertising media portrays and evaluates the destination.

Tourism websites have specific structures that differ from the print advertising mode. Unlike other non-governmental tourism websites, the official tourism website maintains

national identity through various discourses. The use of language and visual images used on official tourism websites help to increase customer satisfaction. Website content and design are also important features to present the destination and promote the tourism industry.

2.3. Types of tourism texts and their vocabulary - Tourism is an activity that involves direct contact between cultures and everything that is a part of culture, namely folklore, customs, gastronomy, dance, etc. Based on the above, the language of tourism should be considered as an element of inestimable value from the point of view of tourists and the places they visit. In particular, it is a connecting element between the cultures of local and foreign countries participating in tourism, therefore, such a situation requires high-quality tourism texts, especially translations, in order to ensure effective and understandable communication between actual and potential tourists and local people and culture.

Three types of tourist texts are distinguished, which are presented in different genres:

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

2.4. Types of mistakes made in touristic texts - In the translation of touristic texts, there is often a violation of communication. The quality of the translation depends on the ability of the translator to perform the work without errors. Added to this is the inability to convey the function of the text to the user and the audience, the inability to make spelling mistakes, or convey natural and fluent discourse through the target text, fully and intelligibly. Obviously, this is not an easy task for an unqualified translator. These mistakes made in translation indicate shortcomings in terms of working languages, lack of understanding of the source text and lack of extra-linguistic knowledge, as well as lack of ability of the translator to establish proper oral or written communication in the native language.

According to the various mistakes mentioned above, and based on some authors (Fernández, 2005: 41; Bastin, 2000: 234; McAlester, 2000: 236), we propose to divide the tourism discourse into general categories:

- Grammar and spelling,
- Vocabulary and semantics,
- Pragmatics and discourse,
- Omission, repetition and addition.

The quality of the translation depends on the presence or absence of such mistakes, and unfortunately, in touristic translations, their number is often very high (Muñoz, 2008).

1. Grammar and spelling

These mistakes are often found in tourism texts, and they are visible and easy to spot. In almost all tourism texts (brochures, tourist guides, menus, etc.) we encounter many spelling mistakes: *canyonig* (instead of canyoning), *horse ridding* (instead of horse riding), *water skiing* (instead of water skiing); At the end you will be *drived* to your hotel (instead of driven).

2. Vocabulary and semantics

In addition to the difficulties common to tourism texts and which may lead to translation errors, we should also mention another difficulty from the point of view of culture - namely, the translation equivalents of proper nouns (people, museums, institutions, places, etc.). The translation of proper nouns is controversial and extremely difficult, since languages impose their own rules of translation, which even change over time. For example, proper names in English usually remain in their original form (e.g.: the King Juan Carlos I, in Spanish); the Georgian King David Aghmashenebeli, Tamar Mepe and others. However, these rules are not always absolute and translators are required to do some research to find the right option.

Toponyms are also proper names, although this issue presents a wider difficulty since there is no rule for their translation. In this sense, not all place names (toponyms) are subject to change, nor is the knowledge of changed names easy, and this requires thorough research and finding reliable sources of information.

3. Pragmatics and discourse

Tourists' expectations of texts are related to their content and style, and mainly depend on the reader's perception of the texts in terms of their own language and culture.

The differences between the source and target cultures force the translator to choose one of the directions - to reproduce the textural conventions of the source text, or to adapt it according to the conventions of the target text. Based on Kelly (1997: 37), we call ourselves targeters, i.e. those focused on the target language, and accordingly, we believe that the more

the cultural conventions of the target language prevail, the more successful the translation will be and the more success will be achieved in the communication process.

4. Omission, repetition and addition

Omissions, repetitions, and additions lead to misunderstood discourse and a breakdown in communication between the text and the audience.

In tourism texts it is easy to find repetition, similar concepts that are translated differently in the same text or even in the same paragraph. Some parts of the text may be omitted. Sometimes the translation of toponyms is given in parentheses in the same text, and in other cases they are left without any clarification.

Thus, it is most important to have professional translators and reduce the number of unqualified or inexperienced translators in order to avoid the aforementioned communication misunderstandings.

2.5. Sociolinguistic perspectives of tourism texts - The transformation of any person into a tourist is reflected in the four main sociological perspectives of tourism, that is, the perspective of authenticity, strangerhood, play and contradiction/conflict. In sociolinguistics, authentication, differentiation, recreation, appropriation correspond to them. A detailed description of them and an overview of the approaches of other scientists is given by Dann (1996: 6-32):

1. Authenticity perspective - The authenticity perspective is related to the work of McConnell (1989) who argues that the main motivation of tourists is the search for authenticity (Dann, 1996: 7-11). For example, before visiting San Francisco, a tourist is exposed to a lot of verbal and visual information about the most famous landmarks that have become markers of the city. McConnell (Dann, 1996: 14) further states that the language of tourism reinforces the impression of authenticity by means of abundant salient expressions: *this is a typical native house; this is the very place the leader fell; this is the actual pen used to sign the law; this is the original manuscript; this is the authentic Tlingit fish club;*

2. Strangerhood perspective - emphasizes that the driving motivation for travelling is the search for the strangerhood and new experiences (Dann, 1996: 12-17). Many people cannot adapt to a foreign culture and prefer organized package holidays that protect them from a foreign, uncomfortable environment. In this regard, Cohen and Cooper (Dann, 1996: 16-17) distinguish several types of tourism discourse - foreigner talk, tourist talk, host talk, host

language and tourist language. They observe an interesting phenomenon of language use: ... *the asymmetrical use of these forms of communication – how tourists talk down to natives and natives talk up to foreigners – not simply on account of perceived status differentials, but also due to the fact that tourism is a temporary pleasure-oriented service industry predicated on commercialized hospitality.*

3. The play perspective - (Dann, 1996: 17 - 23) considers tourism as a game and provides tourists with special experiences that often do not coincide with the cultural and natural conditions of the places visited. Currently, one of the main terms is spectacle (Dann, 1996: 18). As an example, the California Disneyland can be given, which takes visitors not only to the imaginary world of fairy tales, but also to different historical periods (the American West in the 1800s) and to different lands of the world (jungle, deserted island, South Pacific Ocean);

4. Contradiction/Conflict Perspective - Dann argues that tourism seeks to provide people with an opportunity to escape from everyday life and have interesting experiences. This attempt to create tourist attractions is often contradicted with the actual past and present of the visited areas and their inhabitants (Dann, 1996: 25-26). Thus, the conflict refers to the differences between the exciting experience provided and the truth, and can also be manifested in the language of advertising materials.

A brief overview of the four sociolinguistic perspectives allows for a better understanding of tourism discourse by indicating the main tourism perspectives that are reflected in tourism promotional materials. According to sociological studies, the tourist search for authenticity, strangerhood and play may come into conflict with what is truly authentic and valuable. Sociological studies also indicate that tourism discourse is closely related to a wide range of cultural and political issues. As a result, the language of tourism can represent the changes of the state and the current society.

Chapter III. Linguistic-stylistic analysis of English and Georgian tourist texts - consists of nine sub-chapters:

3.1. Lexical level of English tourism texts - Tourism discourse, as an independent institutional type, has several linguistic and extra-linguistic characteristics. The main linguistic features of tourism discourse texts are: use of vocabulary with an emotional-expressive tone - using epithets, hyperboles, adjectives, metaphors, comparison, alliteration, onomatopoeic

words; use of verbs in imperative forms, in terms of calling to one or another tourist destination; using simple sentences to easily understand what is written, and using complex sentences to describe places and cultural objects; existence of a specific terminology in which there are borrowed words and abbreviations; use of clichés; frequent use of proper nouns and numerals.

Our research allowed us to achieve the set goal, which involves determining the features of the linguistic specificity of the tourism discourse and identifying such lexical means in them, which helps to attract the attention of a potential client, increase interest in the product offered by travel companies, create a positive impression on the interlocutor, affect the emotions and awareness of the addressee, as well as encourage the purchase of a commercial offer.

As examples of specific lexical, syntactic and textual features, below are some of the common features that characterize the language of tourism and give it the appearance of a specialized language in its own right at the lexical level:

1. Use of positive adjectives to give the text a beauty and distinctive tone (outstanding, spectacular, exotic, colourful);
2. It is very common to use superlatives with adjectives or morphological forms (the most east-most), for example, *Windsor Castle is the oldest and largest occupied castle in the world* (<https://www.rct.uk/visit/windsor-castle>);
3. Extremely careful selection of such lexical elements as: *away, adventure, dream, imagination, pleasure, escape* in order to justify the tourist's expectations regarding the trip; This is also combined with the so-called Linguistic communication technique (Dann, 1996: 183), which implies the use of foreign and fabricated words in touristic texts in order to evoke exotic sensations in the tourist;
4. Using cultural contexts called realia (*chiringuito, gazpacho, kilt, pizza, khachapuri, churchkhela*, etc.) that do not have an equivalent in the target language.

3.1.1. The role of adjectives in tourism discourse - The use of adjectives occupies an important place in tourism discourse. By using them, we describe events and objects, their quality, express our opinion and emotional attitude towards a specific object. Two categories of adjectives are distinguished: descriptive (objective) and evaluative (subjective) adjectives.

Descriptive adjectives are often used in technical, scientific and legal fields, and evaluative adjectives are used in literature, advertising and tourism discourses. According to the British linguist Hunston and the British writer Thomson, evaluation is a general term for expressing the speaker's impressions and the writer's attitude, point of view and feelings towards the objects they are talking about (Hunston, Thompson, 2003:5).

Descriptive adjectives provide tourists with rich, descriptive and informative texts that help them understand what they will see when they visit a particular country.

Adjectives play a primary role in promoting tourist destinations and services and in persuading and attracting readers and potential tourists. The linguist Edo-Marza emphasizes that the use of cumulative, hyperbolic and exaggerated adjectives can even have the opposite effect on the reader, the tourist. He explains that if a particular destination is expressed in an overly idealized and positive way, the tourist may be disappointed if he or she does not find the charming and picture-perfect destination that he or she expected. This may also have other negative consequences, such as negative comments by tourists on popular travel websites (Edo-Marza, 2011:97).

3.1.2. Semantics of compound words and their morpheme structure - Compound words in English tourism discourse are more often presented as nouns. For example, compound nouns are: airplane, exhibit manager, excursion tour, etc.

We analyzed compound words at the morphological level, derivational and word formation analysis levels in order to determine what kind of compound words are found in touristic texts.

Some compound words are made up of definite or determinative parts. Those compound words, in which one of the two constituent elements is a determiner and the other is defined, are called endocentric (not idiomatic) compound words. For example: waterfalls, food-coach, surf-wear, etc. However, there are other compound words where the definite element is not expressed, it is only implied, but not formally expressed. Such compound words are called exocentric (idiomatic). Compound words of this type are rarely found in tourism texts, as some misunderstanding may hinder the decision-making process of a potential tourist.

Endocentric compound words were abundant in the texts we searched on the famous website www.travelandleisure.com:

*Some **late-night** services are available on the weekend, but generally, you'll want to be prepared to take one of the **easily-found** London taxis or use a rideshare app if you're out and*

about after midnight (<https://www.travelandleisure.com/travel-guide/london>) (How to Get Around);

In the English language, it is common for the author to create compound words, which allows him to express his thoughts concisely and clearly. Good examples of this are *sustainably-focused*, *museum-going*, *mosaic-scattered*, *must-taste*, *tongue-in-cheek*, *sometimes-stored*, *theater-dotted*, etc.

Indian cuisine is popular in Britain, which attracts many tourists with its exoticism. Restaurants often use the Indian names of the dishes, but for more clarity, as in the texts below, they use comparisons. For example, *bombay-style decor*; *like gunpowder potatoes*:

*Dishoom is something special, though — their airy, **Bombay-style decor**, beautiful views from the veranda, and house recipes have earned it a dedicated following* (<https://www.travelandleisure.com/travel-guide/london>) (Best Restaurants, Dishoom Shoreditch);

We distinguish three groups of compound words of tourism discourse according to their graphic criteria: compound words with hyphens (*five-stars*, *surf-wear*, *family-oriented*), open compound words (*natural resource*, *religious tourism*, *bathing places*), closed compound words (*wildlife*, *wholesale*, *underwater*, *foothill*).

The analysis of complex words in touristic texts showed us that they mainly have the following structure N+N, Adj+N, Adv+N, Num+N, and perform different functions in a sentence, such as noun, adjective, adverb, etc. The table below shows the quantitative and qualitative research results of the morphological analysis of the corpus of compound words:

Table 1. Morphological analysis of complex words:

Structure	Quantity	Function	Examples
N+N	31	Noun, adjective, adverb	Playground, glasswork; Waterfront, waterproof; Foothill, doorstep;
Adj+N	10	Noun, adjective	Natural resource, greenhouse; Modern-day, open-air;

Adv+N	5	Adverb, adjective	Downtown, Upscale, underwater;
Num+N	3	Adjective	Three-course, five-star
N + V+ed	7	Adjective	Family-oriented, mosaic-scattered, fashion-focused

English complex words have two specific features:

1. Both immediate constituents of complex words are free forms, that is, they are used independently and have independent meanings. However, as compound words, they express a single concept. Here are some examples of this specificity in English tourism discourse: downtown, wholesale, flagship, cragsman, whole leaser, logotype etc.;
2. In English, complex words usually consist of two bases, although there are exceptions, and these exceptions can be seen in examples of tourism discourse: up-to-date (modern, latest), non-profit-making (non-commercial), farm-to-table (local production) new product), up-and-coming, made-to-order and others.

3.2. The main features of the terminological system of the field of tourism - The terminology of tourism is characterized by full and short forms of one concept due to their ineffectiveness. The use of complete forms contradicts the principle of linguistic economy, according to which only separate, optimized linguistic forms of communication are introduced in speech (Golovin, 1979: 266). Therefore, short versions of the term, abbreviations, hybrid forms, as well as elliptical constructions appear in the texts, when one of its constituent parts is used instead of the full form of the term: tourist base - turbase, tourism business - turbo business, etc. In English terminology, abbreviations have a greater place in the creation of short versions of terms: DET - domestic escorted tour, FIT - foreign independent tour, etc.

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

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

For example, *carrousel* - rotating conveyor in the airport, from which passengers take their luggage, *hospitality industry*, *animation*, etc.

Second - origin of own terms:

back-to-back charter – charter chain (continuous tours), *catering* – provision of food and drinks during the trip, *inclusive tour* – inclusive tour, which includes all types of tourist services during the trip, etc.

An important part of tourist terms can be found in international terminology systems. Through transliteration, the word is partially assimilated into the receiving language system and is often consolidated in the form of internationalisms. For example, *inclusive tour*, *tour operating*, *package tour*, etc.

A number of terms are kept without transliteration, for example *bed and breakfast* - a type of hotel service that includes only overnight accommodation and breakfast; *fast food drive-in* - fast food without getting out of the car, while travelling (Metreveli, 2006).

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

3.3. Borrowed words and lacunas in the English-language tourism discourse - In tourism discourse we often find a whole group of borrowed words, mostly Latin borrowings. The English language is known for borrowing words from various languages like Latin, French, German and other languages.

In the English and Georgian terminology of the field of tourism, we find words borrowed from different languages. In English language, lexemes borrowed from French, such as: *route*, *abolition*, *porter*, *quay* ; Also lexemes borrowed from Spanish language: *cafeteria*; From Swedish: *smorgasbord* (Swedish table) and from Dutch language: *snack* (light breakfast).

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

In order to study the borrowed words in detail, we classify them in the following order:

1. According to naming and translation, for example, when a borrowed word or lacuna is followed by a translation or definition: *With a forkful of the **apple cake or apfelkuchen**, as*

Berliners would have it, one is a time traveller back in the city's heady days of the late 1920s (<https://www.bbc.com/travel/article/20101210-a-tale-of-two-berlins>);

2. Borrowed words that imply the use of foreign lexical and idiomatic material without any direct translation and explanation: *Tourists who visit Kyoto are now able to be dressed up as **Maiko** for a fee at establishments called "Henshin" Studios...* (<https://moushifj.wordpress.com/2013/02/21/maiko-and-geisha-how-to-tell-the-real-from-the-fake/>);

"Maiko" is a lacuna that does not translate and means a Japanese dancer (geisha). Such words should be explained in parentheses so that the tourist can understand correctly what is being offered to him.

Non-assimilated, calcified words of French origin are often found in English texts: *grandeur, boutique, châteaux, boulevards : France offers chandeliered **châteaux**, forever coastlines, soaring cathedrals, Europe's highest mountain ranges, and museums showcasing cultural icons of the Western world* (<https://www.ricksteves.com/europe/france>);

There are also words from Spanish (e.g. *paella*), Italian (e.g. *Gelato, vistas*), Finnish (e.g. *sauna*), Scottish (e.g. *kilt*), Russian (e.g. *czar*), Indian and other languages: ... *Spain means many things: bullfights, massive cathedrals, world-class art, Muslim palaces, whitewashed villages, delicious **paella**...* (<https://www.ricksteves.com/europe/spain>); *A **cruise** is a great way to travel and experience the beauty of Alaska* (<https://travelguidesfree.com/destinations/north-america/usa/alaska/guides/alaska-cruises/>);

3.4. Idioms and phrasal verbs in English tourism discourse - It is not uncommon to hear phrases or expressions in the English language that will guide any foreigner for whom English is not their native language. These are specific idioms and phrasal verbs that are an integral part of an English speaker's everyday conversation. Idioms and phraseological units are an integral part of the culture of English-speaking countries, so we need to know and understand their structure, semantics and essence in order to understand the national mentality of the language. Tourism discourse is no exception, in various guidebooks or tourist web-sites we often encounter such idioms as: *To travel/ pack light, to live it up, on a shoestring/ on the cheap, at the crack of dawn, to call it a day/ night, off the beaten track, bar crawl, conduct welcome meeting, have a stroll : Paddle one's way - Explore the depths of underground caverns, hike and **paddle your way** through the county, or just kick back and relax*

(<https://travelguidesfree.com/destinations/north-america/usa/new-york/guides/schoharie-county-new-york/>);

In English guides and brochures we find such phrasal verbs as: *drop off, check in, check out, set out, take off, get in, off track, brush up*: **Brush up** on the area's history; *hike up*, etc.: *A fun-filled day in the Smoky Mountains will work up an appetite* (<https://travelguidesfree.com/destinations/north-america/usa/tennessee/guides/smoky-mountains-tennessee/>);

According to our observation, touristic texts are much more expressive and emotional if phraseology and phrasal verbs are used in them.

3.5. Stylistic features and literary devices in English tourism discourse - The stylistic features of the English tourism discourse are mainly characterized by the use of figurative and expressive means that contribute to the creation of a positive connotation. As tourists become more demanding with ever-changing expectations and needs, the industry is constantly under pressure to use new compelling techniques and create eye-catching images that attract customers. Dann was the first to draw attention to the importance of figurative language in the promotion of tourist destinations, along with imperatives, specific terms, language and humour. He considers metaphors and similar figures of speech to be the main linguistic devices that transform tourism into a desire and a necessity (Dann, 1996: 2).

Epithets are often used to give a distinctive tone to tourism texts: *No matter where you play, you'll be in awe of the deep blue skies, emerald fairways, and red rocks that surround you* (<https://travelguidesfree.com/destinations/northamerica/usa/utah/guides/greater-zion-golf-st-george-ut/>);

The tourism field is quite rich in metaphors. Metaphor is used to create a voluminous image based on vivid, often unexpected and bold associations: *The cradle of Western civilization is a wonderful destination all year round* (<https://www.the-travel-insiders.com/top-10-reasons-visit-greece>);

The following excerpt from a touristic text presents an example of typical metonymy, where the toponym *London* is used to refer to the inhabitants of the capital:

Follow Jack the Ripper's trail of terror through the atmospheric and sinister alleyways that have changed little since that long ago autumn of 1888 when terror stalked the shadows and

London walked in fear (<https://www.visitlondon.com/things-to-do/place/442363-jack-the-ripper-ghost-walks>);

Words that exaggerate an object or event, known as hyperbole, are often found in tourism texts, sometimes they are even used metaphorically: *Culture around every corner* (<https://www.visitleeds.co.uk/>);

Below is an example of personification, which means bringing the subject to life, personalizing it through expressive means: *It's a joy to greet these tame alpine companions and listen to their random symphony of bells* (<https://www.ricksteves.com/watch-read-listen/read/articles/swiss-bliss>);

The use of the names of some famous historical story or biblical, mythological or literary character is also characteristic of tourism texts. Stylistically, such words are known as allusion, and one of its examples was found in the texts we discussed: *August 21 through April 21, during Aurora Season, you have a great chance to see the shimmering light of the aurora borealis* (<https://travelguidesfree.com/destinations/north-america/usa/alaska/guides/explore-fairbanks/>); The word *Aurora* comes from the name of the Roman goddess of dawn, Aurora, who travelled from east to west announcing the coming of the sun. Ancient Greek poets used the corresponding name *Eos* which metaphorically meant *the dawn*. They often mentioned its play of colours on the dark sky.

In the analyzed 200 English-language tourism texts, we encountered many cases of using epithet, metaphor, allusion, metonymy, hyperbole and other stylistic devices, the number of which is given in the table below.

Table 2. Literary devices in English tourism texts

N	Figures of speech	Quantity	Examples
1	Epithet	19	emerald fairways; awe-inspiring views, etc.
2	Metaphor	21	Central Europe's Riviera, the cradle of western civilization, etc.

3	Metonymy	5	London walked in fear; the pearl of Africa;
4	Hyperbole	5	The culture around every corner; etc.
5	Allusion	1	Aurora season
6	Personification	2	greet these tame alpine companions; listen to their random symphony of bells

3.6. Lexical and stylistic features of Georgian tourist texts - Like English tourism texts, Georgian tourism texts are also characterized by the use of emotional-expressive vocabulary, in particular, the use of positive adjectives as epithets, to give the text beauty and a distinctive tone: *თანამედროვე კონსტრუქციები, ძველი ტაძრები, დედამდინარე მტკვარი, ქვაფენილიანი დაღმართები და მოდური ქუჩები*–ეს ყველაფერი ერთიანდება *მზის და ვარდების ქალაქ თბილისში* (*Modern constructions, old temples, the **mother-river** Mtkvari, cobbled slopes and fashionable streets - all these are united in Tbilisi, the **city of sun and roses***) (translated from Georgian by Anna Kalandia)); (note: some Georgian figures of speech are not translated into the same figure of speech in English).

Lacunae are often used in Georgian tourism texts, which are used in the form of detachment in the example below:

აჭარული სამზარეულოს ძირითად ნაწილს რძის პროდუქტებით, ნიგვზითა და სანელებლებით შეზავებული საკვები წარმოადგენს, როგორებიცაა: აჩმა, ბორანო, სინორი, კაიმაღი, ბორეგი, ფხალლობიო, თავმაკარონი (ცომის თხელი ფენები, ნიგვზის, კარაქისა და შაქრის შიგთავსით), *თუფაიე* (გოგრა, ნიგვზით, შაქრითა და კარაქის შიგთავსით) (*The main part of Ajarian cuisine is food mixed with dairy products, nuts and spices, such as: **Achma, Borano, Sinori, Kaimaghi, Boregi, Pkhallobio, Tavmakaroni** (thin layers of dough, filled with walnuts, butter and sugar), **Tufaye** (pumpkin with walnut,*

sugar and butter filling) (Booklet “Chirukhi-Khikhani-Goderdzi Alpine Route”, 2019); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia)).

Tourism discourse is constructed as if it were addressing you personally, talking to you: *დააგემოვნებთ ადგილობრივი ვაზის ჯიშებისგან დამზადებულ ღვინოს. გაეცნობით აჭარული და ქართული სუფრის ტრადიციებს. მონაწილეობას მიიღებთ ყურძნის დაკრეფაში, ღვინის დამზადებისა და თუთუნის დაჭრის პროცესში (You will taste wine made from local grape varieties. You will learn about Ajarian and Georgian table traditions. You will participate in grape picking, wine making and tobacco cutting process* (Booklet “Wine Tour”, 2019); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia)).

Among figures of speech in Georgian tourism texts, we often encountered a metaphor: *დაისვენეთ სამ პერსონაზე გათვლილ სიყვარულის კოტეჯში დაბა მესტიაში (Relax in the three-person Love Cottage in Mestia)* (https://georgiantravelguide.com/ka/siqvaruliskokhi?utm_source=gtg&utm_medium=banner&utm_campaign=tours-in-region); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia)).

Comparison is often used to give a positive tone in tourism texts: *აქ შესაძლებელია შორ მანძილზე ხანგრძლივი ფრენა, ვისაც უნდა, რომ ჩიტვით ინავარდოს ჰაერში და დატკბეს ფრენით განცდილი სიამოვნებით (A long-distance flight is possible here for those who want to soar in the air like a bird and enjoy the joy of flying* (<https://georgiantravelguide.com/ka/paraplanit-frena-gudaaurshi-1>); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia)).

We encountered an allusion in the following texts: *მოწამეთა - წყალწითელას ხეობაში ჩადგმული წმინდანთა სამკედლო (Motsameta - forge of saints embedded in Tskaltsitela valley* (<https://georgiantravelguide.com/ka/kutaisis-1-dghiani-turi>); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia); (note: Motsameta is a complex of monasteries in Georgia)).

Personification is a figure of speech through which inanimate objects are personified in tourism texts: *ვიხილავთ კესელოს კოშკებს, ულამაზეს სოფელ შენაკოს, რომელიც თავად გეუბნება რომ უნდა აქო! (We will see the towers of Keselo, the beautiful village of Shenako, which themselves tell you that it should be praised* (<https://georgiantravelguide.com/ka/sam-dghiani-turi-tushetshi>); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia)).

Metonymy or renaming means replacing one word with another: *ბაზილიკაში სიჩუმე და სიბნელე, სანთლები იწვება, ცვილი კი ტირის* (*There is silence and darkness in the basilica, the candles are burning, and the wax is weeping* (<https://gnta.ge/ge/%E1%83%9B%E1%83%97%E1%83%98%E1%83%A1%E1%83%A1%E1%83%98%E1%83%9B%E1%83%A6%E1%83%94%E1%83%A0%E1%83%90/>)); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia)). *Basilica* refers to a basilica-type temple, in particular Anchiskhati church is mentioned here.

Excessive exaggeration in order to enhance the impression is characteristic of such figure of speech as hyperbole: *მთელი ტურის განმავლობაში ყველგან იშლებოდა ქართული სუფრა, ყოველჯერზე განსაკუთრებული იყო* (*Throughout the tour, Georgian table was spread everywhere, every time special* (<https://gnta.ge/ge/%E1%83%9B%E1%83%97%E1%83%98%E1%83%A1%E1%83%A1%E1%83%98%E1%83%9B%E1%83%A6%E1%83%94%E1%83%A0%E1%83%90/>)); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia)).

Tourism discourse is characterized by the presence of specific terminology, borrowed words, and abbreviations: *ბოტანიკურ ბაღში ვიზიტი შესაძლებელია როგორც ფეხით, ისე სპეციალური საექსკურსიო ელექტრო-მობილებით* (*The Botanical Garden can be visited both on foot and by special excursion electro-mobiles (electric vehicles)*) (Tourist Guide "Adjara-Batumi", 2015); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia));

სტრიტ არტისა და ექსპერიმენტალური, თანამედროვე ხელოვნების ნიმუშებია გამოფენილი ქალაქის ახალ საგამოფენო სივრცეში „41/41“... (*Works of street art and experimental, modern art are exhibited in the city's new exhibition space "41/41"...*) (Tourist Guide "Adjara-Batumi", 2015); (translated from Georgian by A. Kalandia)).

I would like to mention here that we often encountered spelling mistakes in the texts of Georgian tourist websites, which should be considered in the future, because this undoubtedly affects the image of the texts and the impressions of the readers.

Thus, it is possible to draw the following conclusions: the analysis of Georgian tourist texts showed us that, first of all, at the morphological level, we can highlight the frequent use of adjectives; Second, at the lexical level, such figures of speech as epithet, metaphor, metonymy, comparison, allusion, personification, hyperbole were identified, which perform an emotional

function, thanks to which the authors of tourist texts express their attitude towards the described objects and arouse a positive reaction in tourists.

Table 1. Figures of speech in Georgian tourism texts

N	Figures of speech	Quantity
1	Epithet	25
2	Metaphor	8
3	Metonymy	12
4	Allusion	2
5	Comparison	2
6	Personification	4
7	Hyperbole	2

3.7. Results of lexical-semantic contrastive analysis of English and Georgian tourist texts - Quantitative and qualitative analysis of linguistic units in English and Georgian tourism texts revealed that borrowed words in Georgian prevail over borrowed words in English, while the use of compound words in English is almost twice as much as in Georgian. Also, English language has an advantage in the frequent use of idioms and phrasal verbs. As for figures of speech, epithets are used with the greatest frequency in both languages and are found in almost equal numbers in our research. Metaphor was found almost twice as often in English texts, metonymy and personification are present in greater quantities in Georgian. Hyperbole was encountered twice more in English texts.

Table 2. Quantitative difference of figures of speech, compound and borrowed words in Georgian and English touristic texts

N	Figures of speech	Quantity
1	Epithet	In Georgian: 25 In English: 19
2	Metaphor	In Georgian: 8 In English: 21

3	Metonymy	In Georgian: 12 In English: 5
4	Allusion	In Georgian: 2 In English: 1
5	Comparison	In Georgian: 2 In English: 0
6	Personification	In Georgian: 4 In English: 2
7	Hyperbole	In Georgian: 2 In English: 5
8	Compound words	In Georgian: 36 In English: 60
9	Borrowed words	In Georgian: 40 In English: 27
10	Idioms	In Georgian: 0 In English: 26
11	Phrasal verbs	In Georgian: 0 In English: 12
12	Lacunae	In Georgian: 10 In English: 16

General conclusions

- Discourse is an integral part of language and does not exist without it. It is natural that the discourse found reflection in different specific societies;
- To understand and analyze tourism discourse, it is necessary to consider it only in a specific social space;
- The social context determines the nature of tourism discourse: whether it is oral or written, who is involved in the speech process, where and when it takes place;

- Tourism discourse, unlike other discourses, is the least studied;
- Tourism discourse is an absolutely independent type of discourse that has a specific addressee and its topic is carefully selected. It has a defined purpose, objectives and linguistic means;
- Tourism discourse refers to communication between people who do not belong to a specific social group or language community. Nevertheless, the communication participants have a clear idea about the characteristics of the tourism discourse genre, as well as about the ways of organization and information exchange;
- Tourism discourse is characterized by specific criteria different from other discourses: specific localization of communicative event, special composition of participants, different concept (travel), specific language of tourism discourse;
- Tourism discourse includes such attributive features as officiality, status, normativity, etiquette, business relations;
- Tourism discourse is not uniform in its linguopragmatic characteristics - according to the specificity of communicative situations, functioning goals and type of addressee, three subtypes are distinguished: professional, academic and public discourses;
- In professional and academic tourism discourse, argumentative strategies prevail, in public - manipulative strategies, although this does not exclude other common features that unite all three subspecies - intellectual, psychological, rational arguments;
- Differences in tourism discourse, which are used taking into account the specifics of communicative situations, are revealed in the vocabulary of the texts;
- In professional and academic tourism discourses, certain terms and special vocabulary are observed, in public - evaluative vocabulary and emotional connotations prevail;
- A translator or interpreter employed in the field of tourism should have a good command of the structural, compositional and linguistic-stylistic characteristics of texts of different styles;
- In addition to knowing the functional and stylistic features of tourist texts, the translator must have well-developed skills in working with certain language units, he must be able to correctly name the names of countries, cities, hotels, companies, etc;
- It is important that tourism texts are translated by professional translators to avoid communication misunderstandings;

- In order to make a tourism discourse, it is necessary for the representatives of tourist organizations to be communicative, to observe etiquette in relations with tourists, and also to know the history of our country, its culture, customs, and its historical monuments;
- Adjectives play a primary role in promoting tourist destinations and services and in persuading and attracting readers and potential tourists;
- Terminology in the field of tourism is constantly updated and developed. The dynamism of the system and its international character can be considered its main features;
- The importance of the tourist guide, i.e., tourist brochures, is great. They represent a kind of visiting card for the country. Convincing information about the country is conveyed in them in concise and expressive language;
- Quantitative and qualitative analysis of language units in touristic texts revealed that in English language there is a predominance of derived and compound words, frequent use of infinitives, adverbs and gerunds, as well as compound sentences, while borrowed words, nouns and simple sentences predominate in Georgian. In terms of figures of speech, we can note that there are almost equal numbers in both languages;
- Considering that the field of tourism is dynamic, in which many communicators participate, the study of tourism discourse is quite a promising direction for modern linguistics.

The main findings and results of the thesis are presented in the following publications:

1.

გამოყენებული ლიტერატურა

1. მეტრეველი მ., ტურიზმის ტერმინთა ინგლისურ-ქართული განმარტებითი ლექსიკონი. თბილისი. 2006
2. ოშიაძე ს., ქართული დისკურსის ლინგვოკულტურული შემადგენელთა სტრუქტურა, სემანტიკა და ფუნქციონირება. თბილისი. 2001
3. ოშიაძე ს., ენათმეცნიერთა საერთაშორისო ფორუმზე (არნოლდ ჩიქობავას დაბადების 100 წლისთავისადმი მიძღვნილი ენათმეცნიერთა საერთაშორისო სიმპოზიუმი). – მეცნიერება (ახალი ქართული გაზეთი), № 83, გვ.2, 1998
4. Andereck, Evaluation of a Tourist Brochure, in “Journal of Travel & Tourism, Marketing”, 2005
5. Apostolopoulos Yiorgos, Leivadi Stella, Yiannakis Andrew (eds) (3rd edition) The Sociology of Tourism, Routledge 2001
6. Arfin Muhammad, Salim Muhammad, Ahmad Puad Mat Som, International Journal of Engineering & Technology, 7 (4.34) 364-369, Shaping Tourist Destinations Through Language and Visual Elements on Tourism Websites: A Tourism Discourse Perspective, 2018
7. Barnes, T. and Duncan, J., Introduction: Writing worlds. In Barnes, T. and Duncan, J. (eds.) Writing Worlds: Discourse, Text & Metaphor in the Representation of Landscape. London. Routledge, 1992
8. Berger, A., Deconstructing Travel: Cultural Perspectives on Tourism, Walnut Creek, California: Altamira Press, 2004
9. Bowker, L. & Pearson, J. Working with specialized language: a practical guide to using corpora. London: Routledge, 2002
10. Bryce, D., “Repackaging Orientalism: Discourses on Egypt and Turkey in British outbound tourism”. Tourist Studies, 7/2, 165-191, 2007
11. Cappelli, G., Sun, Sand, Sex and the Unspoilt Countryside: How the English Language Makes Tourists out of Readers. Pari: Pari Publishing, 2006
12. Cappelli G. The translation of tourism-related websites and localization: problems and perspectives. 2007 – http://www.gloriacappelli.it/wp-content/uploads/2007/08/cappelli_tourism-website-translation.pdf
13. Cazden C.B. Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning. Harvard University. 2001

14. Cheong, S-M, and Miller, M. Power and Tourism: A Foucauldian Observation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(2): 371-390, 2000
15. Cohen, E., "The tourist guide: The origins, structure, and dynamics of role". *Annals of Tourism Research*, 12, 5-29, 1985
16. Coleman, S. and Crang, M. *Tourism: Between Place and Performance*. London. Berghahn, 2001
17. Cook, Guy. *Discourse. Language Teaching: A Scheme for Teacher Education*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 1989
18. Cook V.J. Evidence for Multicompetence. *A Journal of Research in Language Studies*. Volume 42, Issue 4. 1992
19. Coupland, N., "What is a sociolinguistic theory?" *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 2/1, 110-117, 1998
20. Dann G. *The Language of Tourism. A Sociolinguistic Perspective*, Oxon: CAB International. 1996
21. Davidson Martin, *The Consumerist Manifesto. Advertising In Postmodern Times*. Routledge, London and New York. 1992
22. Fairclough, N. *Discourse and Social Change*. Cambridge. Polity, 1992
23. Foucault, M. *Madness and Civilisation: A History of Insanity in the Age of Reason*. London. Tavistock, 1965
24. Foucault, M. *The Archaeology of Knowledge*. London. Routledge, 1972
25. Foucault, M. *Discipline and Punish: The Birth of the Prison*. London. Allen Lane, 1977
26. Foucault, M. *The Order of Things: An Archaeology of the Human Sciences*. London: Tavistock, 1979
27. Fox, R., "Reinventing the gastronomic identity of Croatian tourist destinations". *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26/3, 546-559, 2006b
28. Fox, R. 'English in tourism: a sociolinguistic perspective', *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, Vol. 14, No 1, pp 13-22, 2008
29. Gassling S., Hall CM., Weaver D.B. *Sustainable tourism futures*. UK: Taylor&Francis, 288, 2008
30. Goddard A., *The Language of Advertising: Written Texts*, Routledge, London, 2002

31. Golovin B.N. Terminology//Berezin F.M., Golovin B.N. General linguistics. -M.: Enlightenment, p. 264 – 278. 1979
32. Hannam, K. Tourism and Development I: Globalisation and Power. Progress in Development Studies 2(3): 227-234. 2002
33. Hollinshead, K. Surveillance of the Worlds of Tourism: Foucault and the Eye-of-Power. Tourism Management 20: 7-23. 1999
34. Holloway, J.C., Marketing for Tourism, Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education Ltd.,2004
35. Hunston S., Thompson G. Evaluation in Text. Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse. Oxford University Press. 2003
36. Jaworski, A. and Pritchard, A. (eds.) Discourse, Communication and Tourism. Clevedon: Channel View Publications, 2005
37. Jaworski, A., Thurlow, C., Ylanne-McEwen, V. and Lawson, S. Language, Tourism and Globalisation: The Sociolinguistics of Fleeting Relationships. London: Routledge, 2007
38. Kiss Ilona: The persuasive discourse function in the language of tourism Argumentum 14, 150-162. Debreceni Egyetemi Kiadó. 2018
39. Knox, D. Doing the Doric: The Institutionalisation of Regional Language and Culture in North-Eastern Scotland. Social and Cultural Geography 2(3): 115-130. 2001
40. Morgan N., Pritchard A. Tourism Promotion and Power: Creating Images, Creating Identities, John Wiley & Sons, Chichester. 1998
41. Morgan, N., Pritchard, A. and Pride, R. (eds.) Destination Branding: Creating the Unique Destination Proposition. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann, 2002
42. Nigro, M.G. The language of tourism as LSP In: Picht, H. (ed.): Modern approaches to terminological theories and applications. Germany: Peter Lang, 185-198, 2006
43. Nuria Edo-Marza. A Comprehensive Corpus-Based Study of the Use of Evaluative Adjectives in Promotional Hotel Websites.Odisea, 12. Universidad de Almeria. 2011
44. Mishler Elliot G. The discourse of medicine: The dialectics of medical interviews. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex, 1984.
45. Muñoz Isabel Duran. Analysing common mistakes in translations of tourist texts (Spanish, English and German). Onomazein 26 (2012/2)
46. Palmer, C., “An ethnography of Englishness: Experiencing identity through tourism”. Annals of Tourism Research, 32/1, 7-27, 2005

47. Phipps, A. M., *Learning the Arts of Linguistic Survival: Languageing, Tourism, Life*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications, 2006
48. Plog, S. C. *Leisure Travel: a Marketing Handbook*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson/Prentice Hall, 2004
49. Schaffner C. Editorial: Political Speeches and Discourse Analysis; pages 201-204. Published online: 23 Apr 2010
50. Shotter, J. *Conversational Realities*. London. Sage, 1993
51. Simmons J. Railways, Hotels, and Tourism in Great Britain (1839-1914) // *Journal of Contemporary History*. Vol. 19. - P. 201 – 222, 1984
52. Simpson J. A. and Weiner E. S. C. *Oxford English Dictionary*. Second Edition. Clarendon Press. (Vol. 1-20). p.1791 . Oxford, 2003
53. Swales J.M. *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings* Cambridge, 1990
54. Tribe, J. The Indiscipline of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(3): 638-657. 1997
55. Tribe, J. Indisciplined and Unsubstantiated. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27(3): 809-813. 2000
56. Tribe, J. The Philosophic Practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research* 29(2): 338-357. 2022
57. Thurlow, C. and Jaworski, A., “Communicating a global reach: Inflight magazines as a globalizing genre in tourism”. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 7/4, 579-606. 2003
58. Valdeon R. A. Colonial Museums in the US (un)translated / R. A. Valdeon // *Language and Intercultural Communication*. – Vol. 15, No 3. – Routledge: Taylor & Francis Group, p. 362-375. 2015
59. Van Dijk, T.A. ‘Social Cognition and Discourse’, in H. Giles and R.P. Robinson (eds) *Handbook of Social Psychology and Language*, pp. 163-183. Chichester: Wiley. 1989
60. Van Dijk, T. *The Principles of Critical Discourse Analysis*. *Discourse and Society* 4(2): 249-283. 1993
61. Van Dijk, T. *Discourse as Interaction in Society*. In Van Dijk, T. (ed) *Discourse as Social Interaction*. London. Sage, pp.1-37. 1997
62. Vestito C. *Tourism discourse and the representation of Italy: a critical analysis of English guidebooks*. 2006 – http://www.fedoa.unina.it/2780/1/Vestito_Lingua_Inglese.pdf

63. Watts, M. Development I: Power, Knowledge, Discursive Practice. Progress in Human Geography 17(2): 257-272. 1993
64. Woods N. Describing Discourse. A Practical Guide to Discourse Analysis. Oxford University Press. 2006
65. Yakubova Noira, Ikramova Saida, Pulatova Sharifa, Ibragimova Shahnoza - Lexico-Semantic Relations in the Terminology System of "Tourism"- Annals of R.S.C.B., ISSN: 1583-6258, Vol. 25, Issue 1, 2021, Pages. 5238 – 5246 Received 15 December 2020; Accepted 05 January 2021
66. Yang W. LSP Journal, Vol.3, No.1. Analysing and teaching keywords in hotel brochure text.2012
67. Акуличева В. В. Рекламный текст как предмет исследования в тендерной лингвистике // Филологические науки. М., № 3. С. 100-108, 2008
68. Александрова А. Ю. Международный туризм. М.: Аспект Пресс, 2001
69. Арутюнова Н. Д. Дискурс / Н. Д. Арутюнова // Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь. – М. : Сов. энциклопедия, С.136–137. 1990
70. Биржаков М. Б. Введение в туризм. Учебное пособие / М. Б. Биржаков. – СПб : Издательский дом Герда, 2004
71. Богданов В. «Текст и текстовое общение» СПбГУ Санкт-Петербург. 1993
72. Быкова О. Н. Ложная аргументация. Речевая агрессия. Языковое манипулирование: Материалы к энциклопедическому словарю «Культура русской речи» // Теоретические и прикладные аспекты речевого общения: Вестник Российской риторической ассоциации. Красноярск, Вып. 1 (8). С. 91–103. 1999
73. Гончарова Е. А. Персуазивность и способы её языковой реализации в дискурсе рекламы // Проблемы теории европейских языков. Studia Linguistica № 10. СПб.: Тригон, С. 120–130. 2001
74. Демьянков В. З. Интерпретация политического дискурса в СМИ / В. З. Демьянков // Язык СМИ как объект междисциплинарного исследования : учебное пособие / отв. ред. М. Н. Володина. –М. : Изд-во Московского государственного университета им. М. В. Ломоносова, С.116-133. 2003
75. Егорова К. А. Лингвистические особенности ксенонимической бытовой лексики туризма на материале аутентичных англоязычных путеводителей по России //

- Международная заочная конференция "Актуальные проблемы науки и образования".
Ставрополь: Изд-во Северо-Кавказского техн. ун-та, 2009
76. Елина Е. А. Особенности синестезии в искусствоведческих текстах / Е. А. Елина // Вопросы психолингвистики. – М., т. 1. – С.62 – 71. 2003
77. Завгородняя Т. М. Дискурсивное пространство французского туристического бизнеса // Вестник Пятигорского государственного лингвистического университета. Вып. 4. С. 1–4. 2009
78. Зорина А. В., Амирханова К. М., Хамдеева Д. Р. Стилистические особенности туристического дискурса (на примере англоязычного сайта visitlondon.com. Филологические науки. Вопросы теории и практики. том 13. 2020)
79. Ильина Е. И. Основы туристической деятельности. М., 2000
80. Кара-Мурза Е. С. Язык современной рекламы // Язык массовой и межличностной коммуникации. М.: Медиамир, 2007
81. Карасик В. И. О типах дискурса / В. И. Карасик // Языковая личность : институциональный и персональный дискурс : сб. науч. тр. – Волгоград : Перемена, 228 с. 2000
82. Киселева Л. Н. Об особенностях тартуских путеводителей // И время и место. М., С. 445-454, 2008
83. Маковой Р.Г., Соотношение сложного слова и словосочетания. 2009
84. Маркова Е. И., Маркова И. Д. Заимствованная лексика в сфере туризма / Е. И. Маркова, И. Д. Маркова // Молодой ученый. – 2014. – №1. – С. 682-684. 2014
85. Мошняга Е.В. Терминосистема международного туризма как лингвокультурное явление / Вестник городского педагогического университета. Сер.: Филология. Теория языка. Языковое образование. № 1. – С. 67-73. 2009
86. Панченко Е. И. К вопросу о лингвистическом статусе туристического дискурса // Лингвистика. Лингвокультурология. – Т.7. – С. 66-72. 2014
87. Погодаева С.А. Языковые средства аргументации во французском туристическом дискурсе: автореф. дис. ... канд. филол. наук. – Иркутск, 20 с. 2008
88. Протченко А.В. Типологические и функционально-стилистические характеристики англоязычного путеводителя: автореф. дис. ... канд. филол. наук. – Самара, 20 с. 2006

89. Степанов Ю. С. Альтернативный мир, Дискурс, Факт и принцип Причинности // Язык и наука конца XX века. М.: РГГУ, С. 35-73, 1995
90. Тарнаева Л. П. Обучение будущих переводчиков трансляции культурно-специфических смыслов институционального дискурса: автореф. дис. ... д-ра пед. наук. СПб.: Российский государственный педагогический университет, 42 с. 2011
91. Филатова Н.В. Жанровое пространство туристического дискурса // Вестник Моск. гос. гуманитарного ун-та им. М.А. Шолохова. Филологические науки. № 2. – С. 76-82. 2012
92. Филатова Наталья Вячеславовна. Дискурс сферы туризма в прагматическом и лингвистическом аспектах. «Московский государственный гуманитарный университет им. М.А. Шолохова», 2014
93. Чурилина Л. Н. Актуальные проблемы современной лингвистики. Учебное пособие /Л. Н. Чурилина – М. : Флинта : Наука, 416 с. 2009
94. Ширяева Т. А. Когнитивная модель делового дискурса. Пятигорск: Пятигорский лингвистический университет, 256 с. 2006
- ობტერნეტ-წყაროები
95. http://www.discourseanalysis.org/ada2_1.pdf#page=27
96. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/245667012_Classroom_Discourse_The_Language_of_Teaching_and_Learning
97. <https://sites.google.com/a/iliauni.edu.ge/sakartvelo-da-turizmis-ganvitareba/turizmis-ganvitarebis-istoria-sakartveloshi>
98. <https://www.rct.uk/visit/windsor-castle>
99. <http://www.nplg.gov.ge/gwdict/index.php?a=term&d=3&t=40962>
100. <http://www.nplg.gov.ge/gwdict/index.php?a=term&d=3&t=40964>
101. <http://www.nplg.gov.ge/gwdict/index.php?a=term&d=3&t=40966>
102. https://www.academia.edu/36363228/ტურიზმის_ლექსიკონი_pdf
103. <https://www.visitengland.com/things-to-do/region/northumberland>
104. <https://gobatumi.com/ka/seaside-adjara>
105. <https://www.gohawaii.com/islands/hawaii-big-island>

106. www.travelandleisure.com
107. <https://www.isango.com/sharm-el-sheikh>
108. <https://www.sandyleisureholiday.com/bali.html>
109. <https://www.yesmilano.it/en/see-and-do/itineraries/10-open-air-masterpieces-milano>
110. <https://myfamilytravels.com/content/11252-our-top-family-adventure-and-educational-tours>
111. <https://travelguidesfree.com/destinations/north-america/usa/new-york/guides/visit-fulton-county-ny-land-of-44-lakes/>
112. <https://warnercnr.colostate.edu/hdnr/undergraduate-study/b-s-natural-resource-tourism/>
113. <https://travel.earth/what-is-religious-tourism-and-what-are-the-challenges-it-is-facing/>
114. <https://oklahoma.gov/health/county-health-departments/payne-county-health-department/community-services/consumer-protection/public-bathing-places.html>
115. <https://www.americasmart.com/>
116. <https://drprem.com/travel/wild-life-tourism-guide/>
117. <https://www.londontourism.ca/downtown-london>
118. <https://www.travelawaits.com/2563129/mauritius-island-underwater-waterfall/>
119. <https://www.simplyrecipes.com/recipes/gazpacho/>
120. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Georgian_dance
121. <https://www.bbc.com/travel/article/20110224-carnaval-in-brazil-rio-and-beyond>
122. <https://moushifj.wordpress.com/2013/02/21/maiko-and-geisha-how-to-tell-the-real-from-the-fake/>
123. <http://www.responsiblethailand.co.uk/green-tourism/thailand-chao-ley-community-sea-gypsies/>
124. <https://www.ricksteves.com/europe/>
125. <https://myadventuresacrosstheworld.com/tips-for-packing-light-travel-light/>
126. <https://flamingotoursandtrips.com/what-is-a-pub-crawl/>
127. <https://setupmyhotel.com/train-my-hotel-staff/front-office-training/134-how-to-handle-walk-in-guest.html>
128. <https://skytravelnetwork.com/poland/>

129. <https://www.allure.com/story/what-living-out-of-a-suitcase-taught-me-about-dressing>
130. www.tripadvisor.com
131. www.trip.com
132. <https://www.the-travel-insiders.com/top-10-reasons-visit-greece>
133. www.visitlondon.com
134. <https://www.visitleeds.co.uk/>
135. <https://georgiantravelguide.com/ka/georgia>
136. <https://pirveli4ever.wordpress.com/2010/06/14>
137. <https://gnta.ge/ge>
138. Bath, Windsor&Stonehenge- ბროზურა
139. გზამკვლევი „აჭარა-ბათუმი“, 2015 (www.gobatumi.com)
140. ბუკლეტი „მაჭახელას თოფის გზა“, 2019 (www.visitajara.com)
141. ბუკლეტი „ღვინის ტური“, 2019 (www.visitajara.com)
142. სამეგრელო, ტურისტული რუკა, 2013 (www.gnta.ge)
143. რაჭა-ლეჩხუმი, ქვემო სვანეთი, ტურისტული რუკა, 2013 (www.gnta.ge)
144. ბუკლეტი „ჩირუხი-ხიხანი-გოდერძის ალპური მარშრუტი“, 2019 (www.visitajara.com)