Training Language and Culture

VOL 2 ISSUE 2
JUNE 2018
ISSN 2520-2073
ISSN 2521-442X

The quarterly journal of
ICC
(The International Language Association)
and
RUDN University
(Peoples' Friendship University of Russia)

'By and large, language is a tool for concealing the truth'

George Carlin

TRAINING LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Training Language and Culture is published four times a year (March, June, October, December)
by **ICC Press, International Certificate Conference – the international language association**
Address: ICC – Postfach 10 12 28   D – 44712 Bochum, Germany
Postal Address: Yorckstr. 58   D – 44789 Bochum, Germany
Email: **info@icc-languages.eu**
and **Federal State Autonomous Educational Institution of Higher Education**
'Peoples' Friendship University of Russia' (RUDN University)
Address: 17923, GSP117198, Moscow, Russia, 6 Miklukho-Maklay Str.
Email: **info@icc-languages.eu/TLCjournal**

Website: **www.icc-languages.eu/TLCjournal**

Correspondence relating to editorial matters should be addressed to the managing editors.

Responsibility for opinions expressed in articles and reviews published and the accuracy of statements contained therein rests solely with the individual contributors.

Please consult end pages for information on journal distribution, subscription rates and mailing details.

Aims and Scope

Training Language and Culture covers language training and cultural training and research throughout the world. Our aims are to enhance the scientific foundation of the teaching process, promote stronger ties between theory and practical training, and strengthen mutually enriching international cooperation among educationists and other professionals. All our articles are peer reviewed. Our areas of interest include:

- Language and linguistics research
- Intercultural research
- Language, intercultural and communications training
- Language and cultural training technology
- Language and cultural assessment.

ISSN 2520-2073
ISSN 2521-442X
Indexed on Ulbricht's Periodicals, Linguistics Abstracts Online, Google Scholar and EBSCO

Contents

VOL 2 ISSUE 2 JUNE 2018

About our Contributors

Sawsan Askoul
Sawsan has a Masters degree in Bilingual Translation from the University of Westminster and a second Masters degree in Applied Linguistics & Communication from Birkbeck College, University of London. She is a postgraduate research student specializing in phonetics & phonology. She conducted research to investigate the English sound system produced by native Arabic speakers speaking English as a second language. However, in her current study she is aiming to reverse the process by scrutinising Arabic speech sounds produced by native English speakers learning Arabic as a foreign language in the UK.

Antonina Kharkovskaya, professor of the English Philology Department at Samara National Research University named after S.P. Korolev (Russia), graduated from the Teachers' Training University in her native city located on the Volga river (Russia), took a post-graduate course in English Philology in Moscow and since 1964 has been working at the University. She is delivering lectures on stylistics, business communication, discourse analysis and other linguistic disciplines (introduction into cognitive linguistics, pragmalinguistics, tends and trends in modern mass media and educational discourse, etc.). Her scholarly interests are focusing upon the studies of English mini-format texts and communication strategies in various types of discourse, 17 postgraduate students defended their dissertation thesis successfully under her guidance (supervision). Professor Antonina Kharkovskaya is also an active member of editorial boards in several journals (Russian Journal of Communication (USA), Collections of Linguistic Papers, Vestnik of Samara University and a number of other regularly published linguistic papers (Russia). She is the author of about 200 publications on the problems of Applied Linguistics (List of her publications can be found in her private cabinet, e-mail contacts: aax2009@mail.ru; aax2255@yandex.ru

Malakhova Victoria, PhD in philology, associate professor, assistant professor of English Language Department № 4 of MGIMO University.

In 2003, graduated with honours from the Faculty of Romano-Germanic philology of Belgorod State University and was awarded the qualification of teacher of English and German. In 2011, she defended her thesis for the degree of candidate of philological sciences; the theme of the work is “Functional properties of the category of possessiveness in English discourse”. The sphere of scientific interests covers functional linguosynergetics, discourse, possession.

At MGIMO University has been working since September 2015. She has been teaching English in tertiary education since 2003. The subjects taught include General English, Business English, Discussion in English, Home reading in English.

She has about 40 publications on philology, pedagogy, methodology of teaching of English. She is the author and co-author of five textbooks, one monograph, more than 30 scientific articles.

Regularly attend training programs and take part in scientific and practical conferences and seminars

Ksenia Viktorovna Popova
Ksenia graduated from Altai State Pedagogical University, Faculty of Linguistics. In 2016 she got master’s degree in Linguistics at RUDN University. Her research interests are implemetation of speech strategies, advertising discourse and intercultural communication. She is the author of a number of scientific articles and the participants of scientific confernces.

Introduction to ISSUE 6

Barry Tomalin Joint Managing Editor TLC

Hello, everyone and welcome to issue 6 of TLC. Elena and I hope you are now ending term and enjoying the prospect of a wonderful summer ahead.

We emerge from two brilliant international conferences, one organised by Elena and her colleagues at RUDN University in Moscow on new initiatives in business language and business communication and the other by the ICC on the island of Santorini in Greece on educating migrants. More on that in our September issue.

What an extraordinary summer it is turning out to be! In Russia the World Cup has seen some astonishing upsets as world leaders in football bite the dust and fail to reach the knockout stages. The United States and North Korea are seeking a rapprochement while at the same time the US is possibly entering a trade war with China, Europe and Canada. Immigrant children are in cages separated from their parents, although that decision has now been reversed. Britain is fighting its BREXIT battles and the Middle East and the countries in the South China Sea are still facing tensions over who controls which land and sea territory.

In such an uncertain world how are linguists and cultural specialists to interpret it using language? Do we state the truth as we see it, modify it, avoid it or falsify it? The answer is all of those things, That's why we have chosen George Carlin as our cover quotation this month. Cynical he may sound but a lot of language is about manipulating opinion and maybe avoiding the truth.

Many of our articles this issue address this area of different uses of language. Peter McGee of Birkbeck College, University of London addresses vague language; modifying what you say or write so as not to cause offence. Sawsan Askool, also at Birkbeck, looks at how the British press interpreted the issue of immigration before the 2016 BREXIT referendum in Britain and we review Evan Davis's book, "Post Truth", which helps clarify with examples the issues of "fake news", "post truth" and "bullshit". Ksenia Popova explores how online advertising uses language to persuade and Olga Beletskaya shows how Spanish business is absorbing British and US business English to ease international business communication.

At the language methodology level Zrinka Friganović Sain, Milena Kužnin and Rebecca Cherry Roje explain how they teach business language and cultural awareness at the Rochester Institute of Technology in Dubrovnik, Croatia and Yuliya Vedeneva, Antonina Kharkovskaya and Victoria Malakhova explore the use of minitexts in poetry, an interesting advance on a topic already broached by them in Issue 1 (2017) and by Engelbert Thaler of Augsburg University in the review of his book "shorties", also in Issue 1.

I was very excited to meet and listen to Professor Mai Nguyen of Amsterdam Business School when she expounded her radical and far-reaching neurological theory of language and cultural awareness. Her work opens language learning and cultural understanding to the theories of neuroscience in a new and exciting way. Philip Williams, who was also there, and is himself a psychological consultant and teacher reviews her book in which she presents her approach.

So lots to enjoy during the summer break. Elena and I are always delighted to hear from you with your comments and ideas and also to learn about your own research and teaching experience in language and linguistics, intercultural awareness, literature, language and cultural training and testing. Pease feel free to contact us with any ideas for possible publication at en_malyuga@hotmail.com or barrytomalin@aol.com.

We look forward to hearing from you and wish you a very good summer and, as always, Happy Reading!

Teaching intercultural competence in undergraduate business and management studies – a case study

Zrinka Friganović Sain, Milena Kužnin and Rebecca Cherry Roje

In times of overwhelming globalisation, fostering intercultural competence has become one of the most important missions of higher education institutions across the world. This competence has become one of the most desirable sets of competences for those who would like to see themselves working in international environments. Students need to be aware of cultural boundaries and the role of instructors in this process is crucial: to provide cultural information is not enough anymore and they need to guide their students' learning so that learners can competently navigate the L2 culture, knowing which values and behaviour patterns of the target culture will assist them in their future workplaces. This paper introduces a case study of how an international institution of higher education in Croatia teaches this competence in various courses. The paper presents qualitative survey data to measure college students' self-reported competences in four categories: motivation, strategy, knowledge and behaviour. Results show that students report higher competences in the areas of motivation and strategy, compared to knowledge and behaviour. Implications of these findings for future education in intercultural competence in institutions of higher education are discussed.

KEYWORDS: *Best practices in higher education; business and management studies; foreign language teaching; intercultural competence; service management.*

1. INTRODUCTION

In times of overwhelming globalisation intercultural competence has become one of the most important issues in institutions of higher education across the world. In such a context intercultural competence has clearly become one of the most desirable skills and competences for university graduates who would like to see themselves working in demanding and highly-challenging international environments. As this process extends and increases, the need for cultural sensitivity and understanding becomes one of utmost importance both to institutions

'Among cognitive skills one can easily recognise cultural self-awareness and the knowledge of a particular culture, while affective skills include curiosity and open-mindedness'

of higher education and to companies seeking to hire competent individuals. It is evident that such a situation also generates a corresponding need for cross-cultural and trans-national educational partnerships, and it is imperative not only to analyse intercultural competence in those partnerships, but also to analyse them in teaching situations, where crossing cultural boundaries is grounded in the ideals of the core meaning of intercultural competence. Any organization that wants to be culturally responsive needs to cultivate these skills to be successful in today's world. This paper explores both the theoretical background and the actual experiences of a multicultural institution of higher education in Dubrovnik, the Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT) Croatia. The level of intercultural competence of students is measured using a scientifically validated instrument.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Bennett (2011), intercultural competence is seen as a set of cognitive, affective and behavioural skills and characteristics that support effective and appropriate interaction in a variety of cultural contexts. Among cognitive skills one can easily recognise cultural self-awareness and the knowledge of a particular culture, while affective skills include curiosity and open-mindedness. In order to teach students behavioural skills, instructors are encouraged to emphasise the importance of empathy and forming relationships. Intercultural competence clearly also includes an understanding of (and an adaptation to) culturally-based norms and values. Bennett's well-known scale, the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), measures reactions to cultural differences, and divides these reactions into six stages, from more ethno-centric to more ethno-relative: denial of difference, defence against difference, minimisation of difference, acceptance of difference, adaptation to difference, and integration of difference (Hammer et al., 2003).

Experts have used a number of constructions and phrases in the literature so far in their attempts to define and fully understand intercultural competence, such as *"world- mindedness"* (Sampson & Smith, 1957), *"global centrism"* (McCabe, 1994), *"global understanding"* (Kitsantas, 2004), *"global competence"* (Sind & Pachmayer, 2007), to name only a few. Nonetheless, it seems that there is a lack of a unified conceptualisation and assessment of the goals that the process of learning of such a competence requires.

The need to acquire this competence is also portrayed in the statistics that show a continual increase in the number of international students as well as of those who express interest in studying abroad. According to the latest annual report on International Educational Exchange, the number of international students at colleges and universities in the United States has increased by 8 % to a record high of 886,052 students in the 2013/14 academic year (Institute of International Education, 2014). This report has confirmed that the United States remains the destination of choice for higher education. The United States hosts more of the world's 4.5 million globally mobile college and university students than any other country in the world, with almost double the number hosted by the United Kingdom, the second leading host country. The same report also revealed an increase of 2 % (in comparison with the last academic year) of study abroad students, stating that a total of 289,408 American students studied abroad to earn academic credit from their U.S. colleges and universities. Even though this number has more than doubled in the past 15 years, from about 130,000 students in the academic year 1998/99, it is evident that fewer than 10 % of all U.S. undergraduate students (including community college students) will have studied abroad by the time they graduate.

The fact that the vast majority of American undergraduate students enrolled in U.S. institutions of higher education graduate without international experience was recognised as a possible problem as early as 2001, when a group of eight faculty members from four American universities formed a partnership with the goal of finding ways to better prepare American business students for intercultural communication in the global economy (Durocher, 2009). The assumption of this consortium was that business students, while receiving excellent training in the business component of international business, are poorly prepared for face-to-face communication with members of other cultures. This was seen as a potential risk for global American interests since it could quite possibly weaken American business endeavours abroad (Durocher, 2009).

On the other hand, the European Union also has an ambitious agenda to modernise and internationalise

'The United States hosts more of the world's 4.5 million globally mobile college and university students than any other country in the world, with almost double the number hosted by the United Kingdom, the second leading host country'

higher education in Europe, increasing mobility among both students and faculty. According to the latest programme Erasmus+, it has also been recognised that education, training and intercultural experience are essential for creating jobs and improving Europe's competitiveness (European Commission, 2015).

Due to the immense impact of globalisation on the world's economy, there is a clear need to create quality programmes in higher education that will offer innovative intercultural communication curricula precisely for those who seek the knowledge that is relevant for such a world. What also seems to be of importance in this matter is the difference between traditional, mono-cultural teaching methods and a newer, intercultural approach to teaching. Traditional teaching is more analytical, grounded in western-oriented values, and its key terms for the learning process are abstraction, reflection and precision. In this paradigm, communication between teacher and student is linear and one-way (i.e. the teacher is seen as a repository or custodian of knowledge which is passed to the student). On the other hand, an intercultural approach to teaching is more holistic and thus eastern-oriented. With this approach students learn by example, practice and often by metaphors, while the communication between a teacher and a student may be circular. Students are seen as co-creators of knowledge along with their teachers and are encouraged to play an active role in shaping classroom activities (Hager, 2010).

Pink (2006) argues that the future belongs to a different kind of person with a different kind of mind; artists, inventors, storytellers: creative and holistic "right-brain" thinkers whose abilities mark the fault line between who gets ahead and who does not. He believes that the *Information Age*, characterised by left-brain capabilities (such as number crunching and computer-code creation) is giving way to a new age, the so-called *Conceptual Age*, which is characterised by right-brain capabilities, such as design and creativity. In order to be successful in today (and tomorrow's) economy, Pink states, people who crave success must therefore adopt a whole new mindset. He explains what kind of an impact this premise will have for outsourcing retailers, the field of his research.. What he discovered was that many of the new highly successful business people of today had their educational background in the fine arts rather than in a traditional business discipline. The six senses that he focuses on – design, story, symphony, empathy, play and meaning – are applicable to retail and retail design.

The first sense, of *design*, is described through examples and practices that explore the need to move beyond function to design. Through design, we are able to create solutions that connect with our true nature, being economical but with personal reward.

The second sense, of *story*, is defined by Pink (2006) as crucial to connecting and engaging others in ways that pure argument and fact typically fall short of. Story has been a part of humanity since the beginning of time and enables a deeper emotional connection and a way of communication that changes us, and thus the world around us as well.

Symphony, the third sense, emphasises the need to synthesise across industries and archive to see the bigger picture and create a new whole. This requires us to be like nurses, to ensure that we continue to provide the art of nursing or the holistic care for individuals in health care systems and societies. Pink reminds us of the current trend to automate almost everything; nursing is in a unique position as an art and a science that cannot be automated but which is also in increasing demand in broader society.

Pink (2006) describes *empathy*, the fourth sense, as a needed addition to human logic in a time in which complex issues and abundant amounts of information are the norm. Although the wonderful sense of *play*, the fifth sense, is often frowned upon in the current culture, in which we often take things - especially work matters - very seriously, Pink reassures us that play is essential in both our professional and personal lives in order to produce health and well-being, as well as great results.

The sixth and final sense Pink identifies as essential is *meaning*. Because we live in a time in which material things are overwhelming the western world, increasing numbers of people are searching for meaning in their work and at home. Pink sees an increasing desire for *"purpose, transcendence, and spiritual fulfillment"* (Pink, 2006, p. 67).

When success in one's professional life depends on whether one is able to

'Pink reminds us of the current trend to automate almost everything; nursing is in a unique position as an art and a science that cannot be automated but which is also in increasing demand in broader society'

communicate effectively in intercultural contexts, then there is a clear need for a greater self-insight about the true, hidden force of culture. Hall (1959) described culture as an unseen but powerful force that holds everyone captive. In his book *The Silent Language* he reveals how *"culture is not an exotic notion studied by a selected group of anthropologists (...) it is a mold in which we are all cast, and it controls our lives in many unsuspected ways"* (Hall,1959, p. 53). Hall himself conducted a research study in anthropology in Micronesia and recognised that culture influenced his own life as much as the life of people he studied there.

It is evident that since Hall described this phenomenon the world has changed a lot and international business has grown to an extent that is hard even to compare with the one in the period he was writing. There are some things that have not changed, though. People still find themselves in difficulties when they need to do business with overseas clients, when they need to manage an ethnically diverse workforce, negotiate their business deals in another language or get a job in a company that has a completely different corporate culture.

In order to communicate more successfully in intercultural contexts the field of intercultural business communication should more strongly emphasise the need to understand one's own individual cultural identity. It should recognise knowledge, beliefs, values, attitudes, traditions, and ways of life that define that sense of identity because by doing so it will be shown that culture not only connects people but helps to define them as entirely unique individuals.

Jameson (2007) defines the need to re-conceptualise cultural identity and its role in intercultural business communication. While Hall's work helped connect the field of intercultural communication in various settings such as business, technical, and other professional settings, she envisages that a much broader and more balanced concept of cultural identity would help people not only to gain better self-insight but would also improve the analysis of business problems. In her paper she identifies six commonalities that define membership in a group of people that share the same cultural identity. They are vocation, class, geography, philosophy, language, and biology. What seems to be the most important thing is that when people are conscious of their cultural identities and they willingly choose to talk about them to others they may negotiate to some extent even their cultural identities in a discourse, which ultimately proves the importance of this concept in measuring overall intercultural competence.

3. THE RESEARCH ENVIRONMENT

3.1 The purpose of this research is to provide insight into how intercultural competence can be taught in an international institution of higher education that offers a degree in business and management studies. Students of those programmes need to be aware of cultural boundaries and be prepared to cross them successfully. The role of instructors in the learning process is crucial. Providing the necessary cultural information and language skills are not enough. Instructors need to guide their students so that their learners can competently navigate cultures other than their own, knowing which values and behaviour patterns will assist them in their future workplaces. By doing so, students are also enabled to understand better their own cultural viewpoints as well as those of their counterparts.

3.2 RIT Croatia in Dubrovnik is a global campus of the Rochester Institute of Technology, a private research university in Rochester, New York. The Dubrovnik campus was founded in 1997, and offers 4-year undergraduate degrees in International Hospitality and Service Management and Information Technology. While the student body is primarily local (from Croatia and neighbouring countries), the American curriculum (provided by RIT in Rochester) is taught entirely in English. Students receive both Croatian and American diplomas upon graduation, recognised by the Croatian Ministry of Education, European nations according to the Bologna agreement and American institutions. Professor-student relationships, academic policies, extra-curricular activities and classroom activities are, in general, based on American educational cultural norms and traditions. Although English is the official language of classroom instruction and official college communication, and American college culture forms the basis for student life in many ways, the college community functions in practice as a multilingual and multicultural environment. Currently, over 15% of students enrolled at the Dubrovnik campus come from countries other than

‘Since 2001, hundreds of students from the Rochester campus have spent an academic quarter or semester in Dubrovnik, adding to the diversity of cultures’

Croatia, including Australia, Canada, Germany, Albania, Hungary, Russia, Norway, Peru and Bolivia. In addition, through RIT’s study abroad programme, nations as diverse as Vietnam and China are represented. In 2014, 6% of incoming first-year students came from outside Croatia. In 2015, this percentage increased to 18%.

With a current overall enrolment of about 230 students, RIT Croatia Dubrovnik campus is a relatively small and close-knit community in which students are exposed daily to new languages, customs and cultures both through classroom experiences and through social contact with professors, guest speakers and fellow students. Connections to RIT’s sister campuses in Dubai, UAE, and Kosovo enrich the multicultural atmosphere.

Study abroad experiences are also an integral part of the multicultural atmosphere of the college. Since 2001, hundreds of students from the Rochester campus have spent an academic quarter or semester in Dubrovnik, adding to the diversity of cultures. Meanwhile, nearly 20 students from the Dubrovnik campus have studied at the Rochester, New York, campus. Participation in Europe’s Erasmus exchange programme has also brought students and faculty from Turkey, France and Mexico to the campus in recent years.

Thus, students at RIT Croatia in Dubrovnik are exposed on a daily basis to values, behaviours, expectations and traditions that are different from their home cultures. This is true not only for Croatian students and faculty studying or working in an American environment, but is also true of American and international students and faculty who study and work with Croatian colleagues and experience daily life in Dubrovnik.

3.3 In addition to the daily experience of studying and living in a multicultural community, a variety of extra-curricular activities and college events are designed to expose students to new cultural values. The annual International Dinner, for example, encourages students to experience and share the cultures of the foreign languages they study (French, German, Spanish and Italian) through cooking and tasting various dishes representing those nations. The annual Community Service Day introduces students to the concept of service learning, and emphasises the importance of humanitarian contributions to the local community, and a variety of humanitarian events throughout the year encourage students to donate their time and efforts to assisting local charitable causes.

3.4 Many faculty members have also designed their course curricula to include intercultural awareness activities as part of the academic programme. In the Meeting and Events Management Course, second-year students learn that multicultural awareness is a necessary skill if they want to work in an industry such as tourism, which deals with guests coming from all over the globe. In this course students learn how to improve communication by recognizing different ways people understand cultures. Through role-playing skills and situational analysis, students portray different perceptions of time, space, individualism, power and thinking from one culture to another. Through small group activities students identify and implement strategies to avoid miscommunication due to cultural unawareness.

In the Literary and Cultural Studies course, offered to third-year students, students approach a variety of cultures through modern and contemporary poetry and short stories. The course particularly encourages reflection on the experience of black Americans, through reading and discussing the works of several renowned black writers. In addition, at the end of the semester, students take an active role in shaping the content of the course, by choosing the stories to be read and discussed by the class as a whole. Working in pairs, students are responsible for choosing contemporary short stories (by any author and on any topic, but published not more than 10 years ago) which become required reading for the class. The students who chose the story are responsible for leading a discussion on it facilitated by the instructor. However, the traditional roles of instructors as leaders and students as passive followers are reversed.

The Intermediate Italian course, offered to students in the third year, is designed to help them improve their vocabulary and learn how to apply this language in their professional careers. Culture awareness has become a crucial element of modern language education, and there is evidently a greater awareness of the inseparability of language and culture with the ultimate goal to prepare students for intercultural communication. While the primary goal of this course is to enable students to feel free to discuss various subjects and topics, the secondary goal is

'Often students recognise that they did not achieve a win-win resolution because they failed to identify different cultural values and norms'

to acquaint students with contemporary culture and life in the Italian-speaking countries. The course combines traditional methods of language teaching and more recent communicative approaches. All communicative activities, contemporary texts, and the study of vocabulary and grammar are used to expand all students' communication skills, especially their oral proficiency. The topic of each lesson is connected to one sociological and/or cultural situation of everyday life in Italy. Students are asked to make a comparison between different realities: Italian, their own view of it and their perspective of that situation in their own country. By doing so, they learn not only how to converse in Italian, but also how to become more comfortable exchanging ideas freely in a foreign language. By the end of the course students gain an appreciation of the varied aspects of culture in Italian speaking countries.

In the fourth year of the programme, in the Negotiation and Conflict Resolution course, the focus is on developing students as effective negotiators by stressing the importance of reaching integrative solutions in a conflict situation. Often students recognise that they did not achieve a win-win resolution because they failed to identify different cultural values and norms. This class uses role plays as an effective teaching tool to engage students in exploring three dimensions of culture (individualism versus collectivism; egalitarianism versus hierarchy and direct versus indirect communication). Students learn how to avoid stereotyping and misperceptions and how to be open to a more accepting view of global negotiations at an interpersonal level. It is suggested that both parties in conflict need cultural intelligence in order to reach a resolution.

Thus, RIT Croatia's Dubrovnik campus provides both students and faculty with a rich, intercultural environment, both in and out of the classroom, in a variety of academic and social situations. Knowledge of, and adaptation to, new cultural norms and values is an integral part of the college experience, although this learning is not always explicitly taught or discussed but sometimes occurs spontaneously or indirectly.

4. AIM OF RESEARCH

While many previous studies have measured the effects of teaching intercultural competence directly, through special curricula and study abroad programmes, this research aims to measure the degree and type of intercultural competence "absorbed" through these holistic, atmospheric, ambient experiences in an intercultural institution as a whole.

We hypothesise that gender does not play a significant role in levels of self-reported intercultural competence. The degree of self reported intercultural competence does not correlate with gender. Furthermore, because intercultural competence is taught indirectly in this institution and specific cultural knowledge is not explicitly taught we hypothesise that students in a holistic, international environment report greater acquired competences in motivation and strategy than in behaviour and knowledge.

5. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the survey was to measure the self-reported level of intercultural competence among the students of RIT Croatia Dubrovnik campus. The research conducted was quantitative in nature.

The authors used the *Cultural Intelligence Scale* to measure intercultural competence on four cultural intelligence dimensions: metacognitive (strategy), cognitive (knowledge), motivational and behavioural (Ang et al., 2007).

The metacognitive/strategy category deals with participants' awareness of their own knowledge and ability to adapt appropriately to intercultural situations. For example, participants were asked to agree or disagree on a scale with the following statement: *I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.*

The cognitive/knowledge category deals with participants' level of concrete knowledge of specific cultural norms and expectations in various cultures. For example, participants were asked to agree or disagree on a scale with the following statement: *I know the marriage systems of other cultures.* The motivation category deals with participant's level of confidence and enjoyment in intercultural interactions. For example, participants were asked to agree or disagree on a scale with the following statement: *I am sure that I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.*

The behavioural category deals with participants' use of verbal and nonverbal cues in intercultural interactions. For example, *'The highest level of agreement was reported with statements in the motivational dimension of the cultural intelligence index, comprising five statements'*

participants were asked to agree or disagree on a scale with the following statement: *I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.*

The survey consisted of 20 statements (4-6 in each category) with which students were asked to agree or disagree on a 5-point Likert scale (Appendix A). The survey was created using the Clipboard online tool from Rochester Institute of Technology and the participants were invited to log in and fill in the questionnaire online. The students were asked to select the answer that best described their capabilities using the Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree).

Participants in the study were RIT Croatia Dubrovnik students enrolled in the Spring Semester of the academic year 2014/2015. The authors used their own classes to access the population. An email was sent to students in the last week of instruction of the Spring Semester. Prior to sending the email, the professors also announced the research in their classes and invited students to participate on a voluntary and anonymous basis. The total of 160 students was reached and 53 students (33% of the enrolled student body) responded to the survey.

Out of 53 students who took the survey, 16.98 % were freshmen (first year students), 24.53 % were sophomores (second year students), 22.64 % were juniors (third year students) and 35.85 % were seniors (fourth year students). Gender was equally represented (49.06 % female and 50.94 % male students). A few students did not answer some of the questions, or chose "not applicable". These answers have been disregarded, therefore the cumulative average does not always add to 100%.

6. RESULTS

Overall, respondents showed a high level of agreement with most of the statements in the survey. The highest level of agreement was reported with statements in the motivational dimension of the cultural intelligence index, comprising five statements. Results show that 72.07% of the students surveyed agreed or strongly agreed in their answers. The undecided category was chosen by 12.45 % and 12.45 % answered that they disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statements offered. Therefore, the mean value for this category, overall, was M=3.97 (SD=0.829).

The next highest level of agreement was reported in the metacognitive dimension of cultural intelligence (strategy category, comprising four of the total 20 statements). Results show that 72.64% of the surveyed students agreed or strongly agreed in their answers. The *"undecided"* category was chosen by 18.39 % and 8.49 % answered *disagree* or *strongly disagree*. Therefore, the mean value for this category, overall, was M=3.87 (SD=0.656).

Compared to the first two categories, the level of agreement with the statements in the behavioural dimension of the cultural intelligence, comprising five statements, were somewhat lower, although still showing general agreement. Results show that 51.70 % of the surveyed students agreed or strongly agreed in their answers. The "undecided" category was chosen by 28.30%, and 18.12% of respondents answered disagree or strongly disagree. Therefore, the mean value for this category, overall, was M=3.44 (SD=0.76).

Finally, the lowest level of agreement was found in the cognitive dimension of the cultural intelligence scale (knowledge category, comprising six out of 20 questions) showing that 38.68 % of the surveyed students agreed or strongly agreed in their answers. The undecided category averaged out at 34.27 % while 25.15 % of respondents answered disagree or strongly disagree. Therefore, the mean value for this category, overall, was M=3.17 (SD=0.774).

Table 1 contains the mean and standard deviation results confirming the above statements.

Table 1. Four categories of intercultural competence

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Motivation	47	1.00	5.00	3.9702	.82985
Strategy	49	1.50	5.00	3.8776	.65575
Behavior	48	1.40	5.00	3.4417	.76069
Knowledge	48	1.00	5.00	3.1771	.77445
Valid N (listwise)	41				

Table 2 reveals a strong positive relationship between strategy and motivation, and a weak one between knowledge and behaviour.

Table 2. Correlations between four categories

		Strategy	Knowledge	Behaviour	Motivation
Strategy	Pearson Correlation	1	.658”	.519”	.756”
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	49	46	47	45
Knowledge	Pearson Correlation	.658**	1 .	498** .	553**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	46	48	45	45
Behaviour	Pearson Correlation	.519**	.498**	1	.643**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	47	45	48	44
Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.756**	.553**	.643**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	45	45	44	47

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Levene’s and t-tests were performed (Table 3) and equal variances are assumed without Type I error in effect.

Table 3. Levene’s and t-test performed

Table 3a	Levene’s Test	
	F	Sig.
Strategy		
Equal variances assumed	2.559	.116
Equal variances not assumed		

Table 3b	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confid. Inter. of Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Strategy (Equal variances Assumed)	-2,693	47	.010	- .47458	.17627	-.82920	-.11997
(Equal variances not assumed)	-2,673	40,909	.011	- .47458	.18855	-83318	-.11599

t-test for Equality of Means

Regarding gender differences, statistically significant differences were noted only in the metacognitive/strategy category. Table 4 shows that female students reported higher scores for the importance of metacognitive skills/strategy category (M=4.11, SD=0.50) than male students (M=3.63, SD=0.71).

Table 4. Gender differences

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Strategy	Male	24 3.6354	.71846	.50042
	Female	25 4.1100	.14666	.10008

7. DISCUSSION

Building on these findings, our results clearly indicate that RIT Croatia Dubrovnik students believe they possess strong metacognitive strategies for successful management of intercultural situations. Furthermore, the students are capable of adjusting their cultural knowledge when the situation so requires. Students believe they are highly motivated to succeed in intercultural interactions. They enjoy interacting and socialising in intercultural situations, and feel confident crossing cultural boundaries at the same time being aware of the cultural knowledge they possess. However, students' responses indicate they are less confident in their own abilities when it comes to controlling and using specific behaviours appropriately in an intercultural context, for example, adjusting verbal and nonverbal signals in conversation.

Finally, students feel least competent in the area of specific intercultural knowledge, or the cognitive domain. When asked about their knowledge of other cultures' legal or marriage systems and rules, for example, most students admitted to their lack of knowledge.

These results are encouraging for educators who wish to foster intercultural skills in students. It shows that students do not overestimate their own competences and do not confuse motivation with actual cultural specific knowledge.

Gender may, in fact, play a role in intercultural competence. Results show that female students reported slightly higher levels of competence in the strategy category. This result should be interpreted further in light of additional research into the role of gender in empathy and emotional intelligence. It is possible that particular educational attention needs to be paid to male students in order to ensure that they also achieve similar levels of competence in this area.

The results seem consistent with RIT Croatia's institutional approach to teaching and learning intercultural competence through a holistic experience in an intercultural community. Exposure to and participation in a variety of intercultural experiences evidently increases students' motivation, openness and overall attitudes towards other cultures. Students feel confident in their own abilities to successfully navigate these situations in general. However, since the institution is focused primarily on the teaching of business and management practice, direct teaching of specific factual cultural knowledge is a lower priority, which is reflected in students' scores.

The creators of the Cultural Intelligence Scale instrument suggest that the results can be used to predict various competences in an intercultural situation. Ang et al. (2007) argue that high scores in the cognitive and metacognitive categories can predict the subject's skill in cultural judgment and decision. Meanwhile, high scores in the motivational and behavioural categories correlate with the cultural adaptation skill. Finally, high scores in metacognitive and behavioural categories suggest success in the performance of specific tasks.

Applying this model of interpretation to our results, we predict that our students' high scores in metacognitive and motivational categories will compensate for lower scores in behavioural and knowledge categories. Looking at these results we feel confident in hypothesising that our students will welcome and seek out intercultural experiences as a source of personal growth and even enjoyment.

8. CONCLUSION

These results suggest that a holistic approach to teaching intercultural competence through the experience in an active learning community through both academic and social activities inside and outside of the classroom can be an effective tool for the education of young people, which can ultimately successfully prepare them for their professional careers and help them face a globalised future. The authors of this paper do not find the lower scores in the areas of cognitive and behavioural competence discouraging since, as Ang et al. (2007) noted, competence in strategy and motivation form the prerequisite foundation for successful intercultural adaptation. Specific knowledge of customs, norms and traditions as well as the accompanying behaviours necessary to respect the same, can be readily learned when the foundation of motivation and self-awareness is high.

It still remains to be said that in order to equip students even more fully for the challenges awaiting them in a rapidly changing global environment, future educational practices should aim to introduce them to a wider range of specific cultural knowledge and appropriate behaviour and customs, such as legal or marriage systems in particular countries as well as verbal and non-verbal behavioural customs.

Further research is necessary and recommended to confirm these initial results, and to test whether self-reported levels of competence can serve as an accurate predictor of actual behaviour in intercultural situations. This research was limited by a relatively small sample size, and an inability to purchase other recognised instruments for measuring intercultural competence. For example, the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) or Global Mindset Inventory (GMI) would be excellent instruments for measuring these competences in more depth. In addition, more research is necessary to determine the effect of students' ages on their levels of competence. This research found no significant differences between year levels. However, future research should take into account students' ages on enrolment, country of origin, as well as the degree of previous familiarity with various cultures in their personal and educational experiences.

Note: This article was first published in the Croatian Journal of Education 2017. Republished by permission of the authors.

References

AIEA (2011). Association of International Education Administrators. Developing Intercultural Competence. Retrieved from http://site.valenciacollege.edu

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., K., Ng, K. C. K., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A., (2007). Cultural Intelligence: Its Measurement and Effects on Cultural Judgment and Decision Making, Cultural Adaptation and Task Performance. *Management and Organization Review 3*(3), 335–371. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1740-8784.2007.00082.x

Durocher Jr, D. O. (2009). Teaching intercultural communication competence to business students. *Journal of International Business Education, 4*, 119-134.

European Commission (2015). Erasmus+ Programme Guide. Retrieved from http://ec.europa. eu/programmemes/erasmus-plus/sites/erasmusplus/files/files/resources/2015-guide-v-3_ en.pdf

Friedman, V. J., & Antal, A. B. (2005). Negotiating reality: A theory of action approach to intercultural competence. *Management Learning, 36*(1), 69-86. https://doi.org/10.1177/1350507605049904

Hager, M. (2010). Teaching Intercultural Communication in a Professional Language Course. *Global Business Languages, 15*, 125-142.

Hall, E. T. (1959). *The silent language*. New York: Doubleday.

Hammer, M. J., Bennett, T. B., & Wiseman R. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The intercultural development inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 27, 421–443. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0147-1767(03)00032-4

Jameson, D. A. (2007). Reconceptualizing cultural identity and its role in intercultural business communication. *Journal of Business Communication, 44*(3), 199-235. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021943607301346

Kitsantas, A. (2004). Studying abroad: the role of college students' goals on the development of cross-cultural skills and global understanding. *Student Journal, 38*(3), 441-452.

McCabe, L. T. (1994). The development of a global perspective during participation in Semester at Sea, *Educational Review, 46* (3), 275-287. https://doi.org/10.1080/0013191940460305

Pink, D. H. (2006). *A whole new mind: Why right-brainers will rule the future* (1st Riverhead Books pbk. ed.). New York: Riverhead Books.

Sampson, D., & Smith, H. (1957). A scale to measure world-minded attitudes. J*ournal of Social Psychology, 45*, 99-106. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.1957.9714290

Sindt, P., & Pachmayer, A. (2007). Identifying the outcomes of short term study abroad. Retrieved from http://www.iienetwork.org/page/85022/

Witherell, S., & Clayton, E. (2014). Open Doors 2014: International Students in the United States and Study Abroad by American Students are at All-Time High. Retrieved from http://www.iie.org/Who-We-Are/News-and-Events/Press-Center/Press-Releases/2014/2014-11-17-Open-Doors-Data

Appendix

Appendix A – Cultural Intelligence Scale

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., K., Ng K. C. K., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A., 2007. Cultural Intelligence: Its Measurement and Effects on Cultural Judgment and Decision Making, Cultural Adaptation and Task Performance. Management and Organization Review 3(3), 335-371

The Cultural Intelligences (CIs) Scale measures the capability to function effectively in culturally diverse settings. This research developed and tested a model that posited differential relationships between the four cultural intelligence dimensions (metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioral) and three intercultural effectiveness outcomes (cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance in culturally diverse settings). The results demonstrate a consistent pattern of relationships where metacognitive and cognitive CIs predicted cultural judgment and decision making; motivational and behavioral CIs predicted cultural adaptation; and metacognitive and behavioral CIs predicted task performance. Source: http://www.linnvandyne.com/shortmeasure.html

The 20-item, Four Factor Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)

Instructions: Select the response that best describes your capabilities.
Select the answer that BEST describes you AS YOU REALLY ARE (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree).

CQ Questionnaire Items

CQ-Strategy:
1. MC1 I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.
2. MC2 I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfa- miliar to me.
3. MC3 I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.
4. MC4 I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.

CQ-Knowledge:
1. COG1 I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
2. COG2 I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.
3. COG3 I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.
4. COG4 I know the marriage systems of other cultures.
5. COG5 I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.
6. COG6 I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in other cultures.

CQ-Motivation:
1. MOT1 I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.
2. MOT2 I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
3. MOT3 I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.
4. MOT4 I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.
5. MOT5 I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.

CQ-Behaviour:
1. BEH1 I change my verbal behaviour (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction re- quires it.
2. BEH2 I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.
3. BEH3 I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
4. BEH4 I change my non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
5. BEH5 I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

Minitexts of Poetic Titles as markers of the English Cognitive Paradigm

Yuliya V. Vedeneva, Antonina A. Kharkovskaya and Victoria L. Malakhova

Minitexts are of interest for scholars due to the 'shrinking' trend in communication which affects not only verbal products, but also human mental structures generating them. The correlation of these two planes of human interaction as reflected in minitexts presents a challenge for linguistics. A minitext is denoted as a text of a limited length (up to 600 words). The present paper is aimed at revealing cognitive, pragmasemantic and discursive aspects of minitexts exemplified by titles of children's poems. The authors characterize the basic features of such texts (cohesion, coherence, wholeness, intentionality, etc.), and present their thematic typology.

The analysis of the said minitexts shows that adequate assessment of the identifying markers within poetic minitexts depends on the interaction of text discursive parameters, on the one hand, and their location in the hierarchy of other signs or markers, on the other. Choosing titles for English poems addressed to children, the authors focus on the unusual linguistic units involved in the creation of the titles' artistic imagery and aesthetic effect. One of the evident advantages of the cognitive and pragmatic approach to poetic works described in the present article is the minitext ability to meet the challenges of children's world perception and to develop their artistic tastes.

KEYWORDS: *Cognitive-pragmatic approach, discourse analysis, poetic titles, minitexts, literature for children.*

INTRODUCTION

In the modern paradigm of linguistic knowledge, minitexts make a focus of researchers' interest, since today's communicative trends largely derive from an accelerating pace of life of contemporary society (sometimes referred to as 'the global tendency of fastness', 'the shrinking of the present') (Malinowska, 2017; Rosa, 2013), and hence require less time, space and effort to be spent on verbal interaction. Thus the 'shrinking' effect is inevitable not only in verbal products, but also in mental structures generating them. The correlation of these two planes of human interaction as reflected in minitexts is what presents a challenge for linguistic analysis.

A minitext (or mini-format text) is any text, regardless of genre and content, which meets the main demand – briefness. It is the criterion of length that distinguishes a prototypical form of a minitext whose specificity is reflected in structural, semantic, pragmatic, and conceptual characteristics (Kharkovskaya, Ponomarenko, & Radyuk, 2017). Titles, headings, captions, sms texts, Internet slang and the like are very demonstrative examples of the accessible ways of wrapping our messages in small forms which have become habitual and, truly speaking, convenient for us since childhood and to some extent shape our linguistic consciousness.

The pros and cons of this trend are not a priority for the present research. This work is aimed at revealing and describing both verbal and non-verbal aspects of children's poetic titles from the angle of the valid combination of their obligatory and optional features and their ability to provide a true-to-life perception of the world, which contributes to chidren's mentality for the rest of their lives.

METHODOLOGICAL BASIS

In our opinion, the study of minitexts of the titles of English poetic works for children is quite promising from the standpoint of the cognitive-discursive approach which is rather popular as of now. Thus, the works by P. Stockwell, a well-known scholar in Language and Poetics elaborate on the cognitive paradigm related to the main trends in literature, like the cognitive aesthetics of reading and cognitive stylistics (Stockwell, 2009; Stockwell, 2015). He believes that taking key familiar concepts such as characterization, tone, empathy, and identification it is possible to describe the natural experience of literary reading in a thorough and principled way. His publications cover issues of stylistics, psycholinguistics, critical theory and neurology to explore the nature of reading verbal art.

The development of cognitive ideas in reference to literary resonance might also be traced in K. Coats' paper published in Language and Literature (UK) (Coats, 2013). Since we are striving for determining the cognitive and semantic aspects of the object of analysis, this research gives thought for considering and systematizing the poetic titles in terms of the cognitive approach in that it clearly outlines the impact of poetry upon children and admits "the crucial role children's poetry plays in creating a holding environment in language to help children manage their sensory environments, map and regulate their neurological functions, contain their existential anxieties, and participate in communal life" (Coats, 2013, p. 132).

'A minitext (or mini-format text) is any text, regardless of genre and content, which meets the main demand – briefness'

L. Brandt who authors works dealing with cognitive poetics and imagery in the framework of cognitive semantics and semiotics, pays special attention to interrelating literary reading and cognitive research as directly as possible, and thus exploring meaning production as it occurs in poetic texts, rather than using poetry only to illustrate certain notions in cognitive semantics (Brandt, 2005). The analysis of the inner mechanisms of poetic textual structure on such premises (as the case is with the present paper), is based on the conceptual network actualized in the format of linguistic markers and interacting with both English poetic discourse and the titles' contexts of poems created for children.

Also important for the purposes of our study is the discursive interpretation of text characteristics. Unlike those scholars who tend to equate the concepts of text and discourse, we admit their likeness but not total similarity to each other (which, by the way, is typical of Russian linguistics): the term 'text' denotes a completed construct, built up as a holistic verbal entity; while 'discourse' refers to such construct in the process of its immediate functioning, enriched with a whole lot of sense accretions and pragmatic meanings due to various situational factors, especially those connected with the recipient (naturally, the same speech addressed to children and adults will be perceived differently and has to be pragmatically recipient-orientated to avoid communicative failures) (Dijk, 1992; Malyuga, & Orlova, 2018; Ponomarenko, 2016).

These theoretical issues on cognitive studies, discourse analysis and pragmalinguistics applied in classification of poetic texts under consideration contribute to the methodological background of the present paper.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

1. Minitexts: Notion and Characteristics

Typical textual features are generally peculiar to both large and mini-format texts. For researchers minitexts are of special interest as their limited structure provides an opportunity to conduct a comprehensive in-depth analysis (text mining) of their inherent basic characteristics. In *Minitexts in Modern Educational Discourse: Functions and Trends* (2017), A.A. Kharkovskaya, E.V. Ponomarenko, and A.V. Radyuk point out that the main difference between the phenomenon of minitexts and the traditional understanding of a text is the volume parameter, and emphasize that a mini-format text in fact differs from the generally accepted meaning of 'text' only because it contains a limited number of elements (up to 600 words), "otherwise bearing typical features of all the classical standards of textuality (cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality)" (Kharkovskaya, Ponomarenko, Radyuk, 2017, p. 67). Minitexts have certain systemic properties in terms of their formal structure, the main being:

• stereotyped compositional model,
• uncomplicated syntax,
• brevity of language units constituting the text, etc.

Moreover, some types of minitexts are characterized by certain conventionality, i.e. by some prescribed rules or traditions of style and layout, and slight variability of their structural formation (business letters, legislative acts, official autobiographies, references, leaflets, etc.). The study of the variation of different split-level language means within minitexts helps to clarify the concept of a communicative and pragmatic norm applied thereto. Besides, the notion of the communicative and pragmatic norm includes the use of extralinguistic means (fonts, interspace, color, text arrangement, use of capital letters) that define particular types of minitexts. Thus, each type of minitexts has its own certain communicative and pragmatic norm, which presents a combination of obligatory (leading) and optional (secondary) characteristics of the text.

Prototypical minitexts that demonstrate genre specificity, as well as features of the compositional structure and semantic organization, can be found in various discursive formations, since text exists as a result of a person's discursive activity, as a complex marker in the unity of its three sides: semantics, pragmatics, syntactics. In discursive space, a person's speech activity actualizes, reflecting various types of knowledge about the surrounding world and its mental representations. As noted by O.V. Alexandrova, E.O. Mendzheritskaya, and V.L. Malakhova, the individual's cognitive activity is always conjugated with the linguistic reflection of reality, since "perception of the world is systemic. It is organically connected with the indissolubility of knowledge, which, in respect of the language, is expressed through discourse – a dynamic process by which the predicative connection between the phenomena of the world and a direct

'The study of the variation of different split-level language means within minitexts helps to clarify the concept of a communicative and pragmatic norm applied thereto'

expression of this connection through the language is made" (Aleksandrova, Mendzheritskaya, & Malakhova, 2017, p. 104).

2. Cognitive Paradigm Markers in the Titles of English Poems for Children

The study of any type of discourse supposes its segmentation and traditionally focuses on highlighting linguistic features of texts, representing the analyzed discourse at the verbal level. The analysis of minitexts of titles, which are relatively completed elements of English literary poetic discourse, objectified in writing and possessing a structural and semantic unity and special functional purpose, shows that the adequate evaluation of identifying attributes of the type of the discursive space in question depends on the interaction of discursive parameters and on their place in the hierarchy of other markers.

2.1. Cohesion, coherence and wholeness as text constructive features

As the basic constructive features of any text, applicable to titles, cohesion, coherence and wholeness need to be indicated, because they reflect the structural, semantic and discursive essence of the text, respectively. These properties imply the link between text elements, their unity as a whole, and embrace different aspects of the organization of speech products.

Cohesion is traditionally treated as the use of explicit linguistic devices (phases or words) to signal relations between parts of texts, the text units that help the reader associate previous statements with subsequent ones (Connor, 1996). U.M. Connor supports the idea of cohesion being determined by lexically and grammatically overt intersentential relationships, and coherence being based on semantic relationships. While text cohesion is manifested through external structural markers and the formal dependence of the text components, its coherence reflects its thematic, conceptual organization. The concept of coherence of the text leads to its content and communicative formation, and the concept of cohesion to the form, i.e. to its structural organization (Bublitz, 2011).

Cohesion and coherence are inseparable and overlap; the presence of only one of them can not be evidence of an appropriately constructed text. Thus, the coherent text will always be cohesive. M.A. Halliday and R. Hasan identify five general categories of cohesive devices that signal coherence in texts: reference, ellipsis, substitution, lexical cohesion, conjunction (Halliday, & Hasan, 1976). Talking of titles, we cannot fail to see that their small volume hardly allows for a simultaneous occurrence of all or several of these devices, but at least one is a must. For example, if we take the famous poem by E. Lear *The Owl and the Pussy-Cat*, it is evident that the conjunction and in the title functions at both levels:

• as a structural linking element it draws homogeneous parts of the phrase to each other (cohesion);

• as a semantic linking element it coordinates names of the participants in the situation, belonging to the same class of objects – animals (coherence).

Being inalienable from each other, these two planes form the text wholeness via their interaction. The wholeness of the text implies situationality, i.e. those factors that make the text relevant to the situation, be it concrete or abstract, real or imaginary. The text always reflects the circumstances in which it is constructed and used. Being a category of content, wholeness is orientated towards the general sense, which the text, in accordance with the prevailing situation, generates (Khramchenko, & Radyuk, 2014; Malyuga, & Tomalin, 2017). The holistic text is usually monothematic: the transition from one topic to another serves as a boundary signal that marks the end of one text and the beginning of another. Thematic cohesion is the basic characteristic of a title, which is interpreted as a kind of multidimensional formation constructed as a result of compression of the main content of a work. Therefore, it can be argued that the title of a fictional work is inherently always coherent. In minitexts of titles of English poetic works for children, cohesion is manifested in the reflection of separate referential objects of extralinguistic reality, refracted through author's and reader's subjectivism.

2.2. Constructive markers of mini-texts of headings of English poems for children

The content cohesion and structural coherence of minitexts actualize the

‘The holistic text is usually monothematic: the transition from one topic to another serves as a boundary signal that marks the end of one text and the beginning of another’

category of *informativity*, which manifests itself in the nominative function of the titles under analysis (Dijk, 1992). It should be stressed that the analyzed texts have different extents of informative potential and can present the information to the recipient in the most general way:

Geography Lesson (The Works 3. A Poet a Week, 2006, p. 22)

Snow (Read Me 1. A Poem for Every Day of the Year, 2003, p. 469)

Summer Storm (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 39)

Sometimes, on the contrary, they are focused on a diverse and explicit palette of the thematic content of a poetic work, when the text specifies the smallest details:

How to Turn a Class Hamster into a Dinosaur (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 83)

Lost Kitty in New York City, $ 500 Reward (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 416)

The Day I Got My Finger Stuck Up In My Nose (Read Me 1. A Poem for Every Day of the Year, 2003, p. 24)

The informative self-sufficiency of minitexts of titles of English poetic works for children entails the recognition of their *separability*, i.e. the possibility of distinguishing one text from another, relying on the difference of their denotative unities (Geeraerts, & Cuyckens, 2010). If in the course of verbal communication the denotata (referent) remains the same in the communicators’ understanding, then this is a single, separate text, otherwise – different ones.

In minitexts of titles of English poems for children, the property of separability is also manifested in a certain form and in a strictly fixed place assigned to the title of a literary work.

Each separate minitext of the title of English children poems has the logical maturity, since it gives the description of an object which is exhaustive from the perspective of the goals and tasks that the communicants set, and also of their knowledge about this object. The focus on the recipient of the information plays an important role in the formation of any speech message. As stated above, the addressee factor is a system-forming category of children's literature, which largely determines the nature of the course and the verbal embodiment of the communication act.

Based on the addressee parameter, two types of texts are typically distinguished: texts targeted at an undifferentiated mass addressee, and texts targeted at a specific addressee, i.e. at a group of people of certain educational, professional, cultural, aesthetic, social, age, interests, etc. characteristics. The English children's literary poetic discourse is orientated to a designated addressee – a reader-child, whose perception of reality is qualitatively different from that of an adult. Children's readership is specialized as it has particular age, educational and cultural parameters. Such "limitation" of addressees, firstly, is reflected in the theme of English poetic works intended for children, and allows authors to make their texts more comprehensible for children. Secondly, the category of *intentionality* within the discourse under study determines the specific choice of structural and linguistic elements that constitute the text library of the titles in question and form the notion of a special "child" language. In other words, titles of English children's poems are characterized by a direct correlation of the message with the addressee.

It is known that the specific nature of children's perception stem from the peculiarity of the anthropological forms of children's cognition, which depend not only on psychophysiological factors, but also on the social characteristics of childhood (Coats, 2013). The fact is that both children and adults observe the same objects, but the approach to reality phenomena due to the peculiarities of the child's world view is selective: what is closer to the child's inner world is seen by them as a close-up, what is less close to the child's soul is secondary.

The work intended for children shows the same reality as in a creative product addressed to an adult audience, but what the child sees and perceives in a large scale, taking into account his/her child's worldview, comes to the forefront. A change in the perspective of

‘The focus on the recipient of the information plays an important role in the formation of any speech message’

comprehending reality leads to a shift in emphasis in the content of the work, which creates objective prerequisites for the use of special stylistic devices (Brandt, 2005; Geeraerts, & Cuyckens, 2010). Thus, an author, referring to the young reader, is called upon to fulfill the most difficult task – to take into account the peculiarities of the child’s world view, showing high literary skill. Deeply knowing the world, the artist of the word must always share his own outlook, refracted through the “prism of childhood”, but at the same time remain a kind of compass for the addressee to guide him/her along the route.

Peculiarities of children’s comprehension of reality are the main reason for the specificity of knowledge, which is presented in the English literary poetic discourse intended for a children’s audience. On the one hand, works deal with realities and facts of the surrounding world, since cognitive activity is the leading one at this stage of development of the younger generation. On the other hand, thanks to the skill of the artist of the word, this information is transformed from a simple statement of facts into an exciting process that promotes the expansion of the child’s cognition. According to R.W. Gibbs, these circumstances determine the increased imagery and expressiveness of the English literary poetic discourse intended for the children’s audience, since “[...] children think metaphorically about their own experiences, elaborating on the comparison between a physical object and the poet’s psychological experience” (Gibbs, 1994, p. 400).

STUDY AND DISCUSSION

Children’s poetry aims to tell readers about what they really know, about what is really interesting and understandable for them. So, the main theme that has found its vivid reflection in minitexts of titles of English children’s poems that made up the body of our sample is the world of the child and everything that has to do with it directly. Of course, the author of a children's poetic fragment should be cautious in choosing the theme of his work. The ability to find the field of human knowledge, the boundaries of which are determined by the child's interest, impacts the successful result of the work.

In the English children's poetic discourse, it is fundamental for an author to look at the world from a very special perspective, to see the most ordinary things from the point of view of an adult person through the eyes of a child. For children to think globally is difficult, they prefer to ask questions, the answers to which are sometimes hard to find; they simply explore the world around them, study life in all its diverse manifestations, including verbal ways. However, children do it in such a concentrated and enthusiastic way that the very process of children's perception of reality deserves the close attention of adults, which is directly reflected in poetic titles:

Five Ways of Looking at a Lemon (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 430)

How Teachers Leave School Each Evening (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 385)

Ode to My Nose (The Works 5. Every Kind of Poem, from an Alphabet of Poets, that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2007, p. 197)

It is worth mentioning that in the English children's poetic discourse traditionally there is no place for despotic adults with their notations and ready-made guidelines for action. In the poetic texts, the children's readership prefers to find issues from the lives of their peers. Some kind of partnership, trusting relationships with peers sharing similar interests are more important here. A certain image, created by a poet of the children's audience, is of universal significance, since the figurative essence, i.e. associative and creative reinterpretation of objective meanings, is an integral part of the literary poetic discourse. E.B. Borisova, having analyzed many interpretations of the term "literary image", presented in contemporary literary criticism and linguistics, comes to the conclusion that "an image is a concrete and at the same time generalized picture of existence created with the help of verbal means and literary and compositional techniques and having an aesthetic meaning" (Borisova, 2009, p. 25). Consequently, the nature of figurative thinking lays in the specific usage of the word, when its imaginative nature aims at a special literary purpose, as a method of aesthetic and emotional impact on the addressee. The role of the literary image

'The author of a work of art not for a moment forgets that child impressionability is very high and therefore deliberately chooses some bright situation or image, which is not banal, to make a lasting impression on a child'

within the framework of the English children's poetic discourse can not be overemphasized, for in this particular age group eye-mindedness with the dominance of the emotional component is paramount.

Imagery as a way of thinking and the category of cognition has verbal and conceptual aspects; therefore the figurative word can serve as a source of various subjective-associative representations of the addressee and contributes to his/her inclusion in the process of comprehension of the poetic work entire structure. Thus, R.W. Gibbs notes that "part of the delight children take in hearing certain stories stems not only from the enchantment they have as works of art but also from the psychological meaning children will continue to extract at different points in their lives, depending on their individual needs and interests" (Gibbs, 1994, p. 402). The author of a work of art not for a moment forgets that child impressionability is very high and therefore deliberately chooses some bright situation or image, which is not banal, to make a lasting impression on a child. For example, the following minitexts of the titles of English poetic fragments addressed to children confirm the thesis of a non-trivial choice of language tools:

The Teachers Jumped Out of the Windows (Nesbitt, 2009, p. 131)

Aliens Stole My Underpants (The Works 3. A Poet a Week, 2006, p. 134)

The Dream of the Plastic Bag (The Works 5. Every Kind of Poem, from an Alphabet of Poets, that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2007, p. 143)

The literary poetic discourse, represented by minitexts of the titles of English poems for children, has an emotional nature, since they appeal to children's feelings and experiences, characterized by immediacy, sincerity and reliability. The peculiarity of perception of the surrounding reality by a young reader, as a rule, is reflected in every work. However, when the author sets a goal to have an emotional impact on a child, he can not ignore the fact that the child's values system is not fully developed yet. It should be pointed out that children are by nature oriented to the perception of the beauty and subconsciously reject everything that has elements of aggression and disharmony. As a consequence, authors try to avoid topics which can have a negative influence on the nervous system of a child. Poets do not disregard the fact that for a child a sense of satisfaction is a guarantee of his/her favorable mental development and social comfort.

As the object of this study, minitexts of titles of English poetry orientated to children's readership have certain distinctive features that allow to denote them as a particular type of minitexts. The main prototypical marker of minitexts of titles of English children's poems is their limited volume. The study shows that the number of components in such minitexts varies from one to eighteen lexical units. The composite elements of minitexts under consideration in our work include isolated, separately set language units, represented by both content words and auxiliary parts of speech. For example:

Sun (The Works 3. A Poet a Week, 2006, p. 10)

Thanksgiving (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 62)

Why Old People Say the Things They Do When Young People Ask Them How They Are (The Works 5. Every Kind of Poem, from an Alphabet of Poets, that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2007, p. 191)

Secret Diary Of The Girl We All Want To Sit Next To When Her Best Friend Is Absent (The Works 5. Every Kind of Poem, from an Alphabet of Poets, that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2007, p. 52)

At the same time, a group of minitexts of titles of poems for children comprising from three to seven lexical units is the most numerous:

The Rainmaker Danced (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 171)

Magic Me This (The Works 3. A Poet a Week, 2006, p. 512)

The Way I Am (The Works 5. Every Kind of Poem, from an Alphabet of Poets, that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2007, p. 229)

A Minute to Midnight (The Works 3. A Poet a Week, 2006, p. 316)

Today I Wrote This Poem (Nesbitt, 2009, p. 74)

My Mother Saw a Dancing Bear (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 336)

Who left Drandad at the chip shop? (Read Me 1. A Poem for Every Day of the Year, 2003, p. 77)

As we see it, the minitext of a title of an English children's poem can be explained by the peculiarities of the reader's reception of this age group. Turning to mono-component titles, authors of children's poetic works should not forget about the threat of the discrepancy between the author's and the reader's cognitive bases stemming from figurative-associative cognition. On the other hand, too long title text, which, as a rule, has a complex syntactic structure, can make it difficult for children to perceive the information offered. Thus, the minitext of the title of an English poetic work, consisting of three to seven linguistic elements, is optimal, since it can be considered quite sufficient for the adequate interpretation of the fundamentally important text categories.

The thematic focus of minitexts of the titles of English children's poems becomes apparent relatively easily, which, in our opinion, can be explained by the extremely important in the semantic sense role of the title and its place. It is known that the title of a poem is intended, first, to attract the attention of a young reader and, secondly, to motivate him/her to read the whole text of the poem. The choice of an interesting topic that can grasp the attention of a child contributes to a large extent to the author's success. For instance, the minitext of the title *At the End of a School Day* (Read Me 1. A Poem for Every Day of the Year, 2003, p. 435) focuses on the topic linked with school life. Any child wonders what events the described school day is filled with and wants to share the narrator's joy at the end of lessons. The title of the poem *First Appearance of a Superhero in a Book* (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 57) promises to the reader a fascinating story about the life of a superhero full of adventures and heroic deeds in the name of saving mankind. Authors of poetic works refer to topics that are understandable for children and able to evoke in them an immediate emotional response and a keen interest. For example:

Fantasy Christmas List (Read Me 1. A Poem for Every Day of the Year, 2003, p. 46)

The Kitten at Play (W. Wordsworth, Works3: 307)

I Cloned Myself on Friday Night (Nesbitt, 2009, p. 88)

The artists of the word use a positive emotional attitude as a sure way to draw the attention of young readers to objects of everyday reality in order they can see something special in them. For instance, in the minitext of the title of the poem *Isn't My Name Magical?* (The Works 3. A Poet a Week, 2006, p. 206), the author asks the question about the magical origin of his own name, and a young reader, driven by endless curiosity, can not resist the temptation to read the poem in order to reveal the secret of this name.

To create the thematic clearness and maturity of minitexts of titles of English children's poems, an author has to take into consideration a psychological factor of the development of the younger generation. The fact is that children perceive the world not through abstract concepts but rather through specific objects surrounding them. Hence we have such a peculiarity of the English poetic discourse as concretization of the described phenomena, characters and events. Let us give some examples:

I Tried to Ride a Skateboard (Nesbitt, 2009, p. 51)

The Oldest Girl in the World (Read Me 1. A Poem for Every Day of the Year, 2003, p. 166-168)

One Moment in Summer (The Works 3. A Poet a Week, 2006, p. 287-288)

The main characters often receive personal names and in the course of the narration are endowed with certain abilities, skills and behavioral features:

Playing Tennis with Justin (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 292-294)

Betsy Burped the ABC (Nesbitt, 2009, p. 44)

Waltzing Matilda (The Works 5. Every Kind of Poem, from an Alphabet of Poets, that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2007, p. 224)

Distinctive features of minitexts of titles of English children's poems include general accessibility of the vocabulary and simplicity of the syntax. The lexical form of minitexts of titles in this case radically differs from the same for adult readers. Thus, the vocabulary used in the children's poetry is practically devoid of terms, abstract

‘Distinctive features of minitexts of titles of English children’s poems include general accessibility of the vocabulary and simplicity of the syntax’

concepts, complex words, as they can lead to misunderstanding or incorrect comprehension of the information. In order not to overload minitexts of titles with unnecessary meanings which can ruin the reader’s interest, authors use such a language that reflects the peculiarities of the everyday communication process between readers of a certain age group. Poets use lexical units denoting objects and phenomena that are well known to the children’s readership. Simple syntactic constructions, used in minitexts of the titles of English children’s poems, also contribute to the adequate perception of information. For example:

Our Tree (The Works 4. Every Kind of Poem on Every Topic that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2006, p. 348)

Uncle and Auntie (The Works 3. A Poet a Week, 2006, p. 520)

Have a Nice Day (Read Me 1. A Poem for Every Day of the Year, 2003, p. 246)

I Bit an Apple (The Works 3. A Poet a Week, 2006, p. 96)

Gran Can You Rap? (The Works 5. Every Kind of Poem, from an Alphabet of Poets, that you will Ever Need for the Literacy Hour, 2007, p. 216)

Thus, minitexts of titles of English poetic works oriented to children’s perception have special semantic and syntactic characteristics, since in conjunction with one another they create a momentary effect that attracts children’s attention.

CONCLUSION

The presented study gives ground to believe that all the components of the English literary poetic discourse are interrelated and interdependent, and it is their interaction that determines the specificity of this type of discursive space. The literary poetic discourse in this case is a sample of personal (person-centered) discourse built up on the axis the author – the text – the reader. The presence of two anthropocenters – the author and the recipient – determines the dialogical nature of the English poetic discourse in question.

The distinctive features of the literary poetic discourse considered in the present work are its subjectivism and creative nature. One should also mention the special role of the individual reader's reception in the process of understanding the discursive space of a work of arts. In the case when children are the target audience, the dialogical nature of the poetic discourse becomes particularly evident. However, this dialogue has a very specific character, because it is based on an appeal to emotions, and not to a ratio. The reader's personality acts as the leading factor in organizing the space of the English children's poetic discourse, in which minitexts of titles of poetic works serves as the main reference point.

References

Aleksandrova, O.V., Mendzheritskaya, E.O., & Malakhova, V.L. (2017). Dynamic changes in modern English discourse. T*raining language and culture, vol. 1, issue 1*, 100-118.

Borisova, E.B. (2009). O soderzhanii ponjatij 'hudozhestvennyj obraz' i 'obraznost'' v literaturovedenii i lingvistike [On the concepts 'word picture' and 'imagery' in literature studies and linguistics]. *Vestnik ChGU. Filologija. Iskusstvovedenie, Vyp. 37, № 35* (173), 20-26.

Brandt, L. (2005). Cognitive poetics and imagery. *European Journal of English Studies, issue 9* (2), 117-130.

Bublitz, W. (2011). Cohesion and coherence. Discursive pragmatics. In J. Zienkowski, J.-O. Östman, J. Verschueren (Eds.), *Handbook of pragmatics highlights, vol. 8* (pp. 37-50), Amsterdam/Philadelphia. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Coats, K. (2013). The meaning of children's poetry: A cognitive approach. *Language and cognition, vol. 6, issue 2*, 127-142.

Dijk, T. van. (1992). Text and Context. Explorations in the semantics and pragmatics of discourse. London. Longman.

Geeraerts, D., & Cuyckens, H. (2010). Introducing cognitive linguistics. The Oxford handbook of cognitive linguistics. Oxford University Press.

Gibbs, R.W.Jr. (1994). The poetic minds of children. *The poetics of mind, Cambridge University Press,* 399-434.

Halliday, M.A., & Hasan R. (1976). Cohesion in English. English Language Series, London. Longman.

Kharkovskaya, A.A., Ponomarenko, E.V., & Radyuk, A.V. (2017). Minitexts in modern educational discourse: functions and trends. *Training language and culture, vol. 1, issue 1*, 66-83.

Khramchenko, D. Radyuk, A. (2014). The synergy of modern business English discourse: Holistic approach to teaching unconventional rhetoric. *INTED2014 Proceedings*, 6779-6783.

Malinowska, A. (2017). Cultural materialism and popular processes of late modernity. In A. Malinowska & K. Lebek (Eds.), *Materiality and popular culture: The popular life of things* (pp. 13-24), NY& London. Routledge.

Malyuga, E.N., & Orlova, S.N. (2018). *Linguistic pragmatics of intercultural professional and business communication. Monograph* (pp. 1-145). Springer International Publishing AG. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-68744-5

Malyuga, E.N., & Tomalin, B. (2017). Speech behaviour in business communication: a linguacultural perspective. *4th International multidisciplinary scientific conference on social sciences and arts SGEM 2017. Book 3, volume II*, 961-968.

Nesbitt, K. (2009). My Hippo has the hiccups. Small World Publishing.

Ponomarenko, E.V. (2016). Functional properties of English discourse in terms of linguosynergetics. *3rd International multidisciplinary scientific conference on social sciences and arts SGEM 2016, www.sgemsocial.org, SGEM2016 Conference Proceedings, 24-31 August, 2016, Book 1, Vol. 3, 355-362*, doi: 10.5593/sgemsocial2016/B13/S03.042

Read Me 1. A poem for every day of the year / Chosen by Gaby Morgan. (2003). London, Macmillan Children's Books.

Rosa, H. (2013). Social acceleration: A new theory of modernity (new directions in critical theory). Columbia University Press.

Stockwell, P. (2009). Texture: A cognitive aesthetics of reading. Edinburgh University Press.

Stockwell, P. (2015). Poetics. In E. Dabrowska & D. Divjak (Eds.), *The Handbook of Cognitive Linguistics* (pp. 432-452). Berlin. Mouton de Gruyter.

The Works 3. A poet a week / Chosen by Paul Cookson. (2006). London, Macmillan Children's Books.

The Works 4. Every kind of poem on every topic that you will ever need for the literacy hour / Chosen by Pie Corbett and Gaby Morgan. (2006). London, Macmillan Children's Books.

The Works 5. Every kind of poem, from an alphabet of poets, that you will ever need for the literacy hour / Chosen by Paul Cookson. (2007). London, Macmillan Children's Books.

Vague language

Peter McGee

Vague language describes the use of linguistic items including grammar and particularly lexis to modify and make the meaning of a communication less precise and less clear. While scientific and much academic language prides itself on rigour, precision and clarity, vague language is a linguistic device used in politics, reporting and everyday conversation to avoid over declaratory statements and assertions and to build or protect relationships. This paper analyses the various definitions and theories of vague language and examines its use in the English language in discourse management and politeness, in gender relations, politics, culture and news reporting. It examines the ways in which vague language is used to convey subtle meanings and identifies it as a huge area of ongoing linguistic research.

KEYWORDS: *Vague language, pragmatics, corpus-based language, politeness, inexplicit language, discourse genres, discourse analysis.*

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper considers the research that has been done on the phenomenon of vague language (VL). This phenomenon is undoubtedly as old as language itself, but it has recently come to the attention of scholars, because there has been growing dissatisfaction with other approaches and terminologies which have been used in the past to describe and analyse various kinds of meaning in language. In fact, one of the major issues when considering this topic is the confusion of different terms and approaches that underpin the whole field of semantics in general, and the phenomenon of vague language in particular.

Somewhat paradoxically, the term "vague language" is itself a rather broad one, and there are different ways of defining it. It is often assumed that vagueness in language is something negative, or in other words "a deplorable deviation from precision and clarity" (Jucker, Smith and Lüdge, 2003, p. 1737). It is certainly true that there are some instances, such as writing up scientific experiments for example, where precision and clarity are necessary. The negative associations of vagueness could be ascribed to the influence of Western philosophy and logic that are concerned with defining truth (Kenney and Smith, 2010). A positivist view of the world emphasises accuracy, clarity and definiteness, and this is a feature of most discourses in science and technology. Most of human language takes place in much less rigorous settings, however, and a certain amount of vagueness is normal

‘A positivist view of the world emphasises accuracy, clarity and definiteness, and this is a feature of most discourses in science and technology’

and acceptable in everyday life, or even highly prized in areas where creativity has a prominent role to play, such as in the arts and literature.

An important introductory study of vague language was published by Channell in 1994, and this book suggests that vague language should be defined as language which is “purposely and unabashedly vague” (Channell, 1994, p. 20). This definition is somewhat tautological, however, and although this work is widely regarded as an important starting point, it is by no means accepted as a final authority on what vague language is and how it should be defined and studied. An alternative definition is suggested by Drave as “that which modifies a linguistic item, phrase or utterance to make its meaning less precise” Drave (2001, p. 25). The latter definition is preferable, because a person may sometimes be aware that they are using vague language, and they may have some idea about why they are doing so but they might also sometimes be unaware of the vagueness in their language and there may be no conscious purpose behind it. Even this second definition is still quite broad, since the term that which does not specify exactly which part of speech or linguistic element is used to make something less precise. It could be a word, or phrase, or the choice of a question rather than a statement, or use of a particular tone of voice, or possibly even a gesture such as a shrug or a wave that indicates the vague nature of an utterance (Macaulay, 2005). This is not a perfect definition, but it is an acceptable starting point, and the one that is used to underpin the present literature review.

For reasons connected to these problems of definition, vague language is also difficult to categorise into any one academic discipline or methodological approach. It involves areas of linguistics such as semantics, pragmatics and sociolinguistics, but also touches on psychology and cognition and language processing as well (Cutting, 2007). Theoretical and applied linguistics and rhetorical analysis can be used to study it, but methods such as discourse analysis are also very useful for teasing out the context-specific aspects of vague language. It can be studied bottom up, on the basis of actual language usage, or top down, on the basis of the deep structure of language or semantic and discourse rules. In short, vague language is a very large area of study, and there is a vast wealth of scholarly material that is quite difficult to sort into any logical order.

For the purposes of this Independent Literature Review, the approach that is taken is to review the main theories on vague language that were advanced before the middle of the twentieth century. This provides some theoretical groundwork and clarifies the evolution of ideas in this area and the emergence of today's focus on vague language. This is followed by a series of thematic sections which focus on relatively recent scholarship (post 1990) and mostly empirical studies to illustrate how and why vague language is commonly used today. A broad range of contexts is cited, to give an overview of vague language forms and functions in the world today and different investigation methods are critiqued.

Finally, it must be recognised that it would be impossible to cover every possible angle in the space available, and so the aim in this literature is to outline and analyse some of the most fundamental theories involved in this topic, and then by way of illustration, discuss how vague language has been studied in action, in a broad range of realistic situations. This is why the focus of the main body of the work is on empirical studies. The discussion considers several theoretical and practical implications of the most recent work on vague language, and the conclusion sums up the main scholarly findings on this subject so far and identifies several areas where further research is still needed.

2. EARLY THEORIES ON VAGUENESS IN LANGUAGE

One of the earliest studies on vagueness was that of Peirce,who stated that *"a proposition is vague where there are possible states of things concerning which it is intrinsically uncertain whether, had they been contemplated by the speaker, he would have regarded them as excluded or allowed by the proposition"* Peirce (1902, p. 748).

This rather dense description is quite difficult to decipher and wrapped up in philosophical ideas regarding logical inferences. Later scholars in linguistics have taken this as a starting point to look more closely at the language that is used to convey vagueness, as a way of understanding what it means.

This line of thinking started off the debate on the extent to which vagueness is present in language, and the question

‘Both the speaker and addressee have a role to play in the creating of vagueness and dealing with its effects in language’

of how vague language can or should be defined and used. A key contribution was made by Grice on the meanings and intentions that lie behind a speaker’s words. The somewhat contentious term “implicature” (Grice, 1989, p. 86) was coined by Grice to signify the whole range of meanings that are contained in language, but not explicitly stated. Even more contentious was Grice’s suggestion that human conversation always follows a set of norms, which he calls maxims, which are supposedly designed to create cooperation between speakers (Grice, 1989).

This work was very influential, but there have been many debates about how appropriate these maxims are, and considerable work has been done to refine and also challenge this early work (Neale, 1992; Carston, 2005). This Gricean approach has been modified by Horn (Horn, 2005) to acknowledge the importance of the speaker’s intended meaning, but also take account of the addressee’s contribution in deciding which meanings are relevant and can be contributed to the conversation. This creates a bridge between the study of meaning (semantics) and the study of function (pragmatics) in the context of cooperative dialogue between speaker and addressee. Both the speaker and addressee have a role to play in the creating of vagueness and dealing with its effects in language. So it cannot be assumed that the speaker defines the extent of vagueness that is contained in any expression or type of language use.

The field of pragmatics is also a very broad area and one which is quite difficult to define (Levinson, 1983). This field focuses on the functions of language use, and the meanings that are constructed by language users in social settings. An understanding of pragmatics requires consideration of both explicit and implicit meanings, and perhaps most significantly of all, the context in which communication takes place. Many kinds of vagueness relate directly to the context. For example, Crystal and Davy (Crystal and Davy, 1975) explain that the use of vague terms for numbers and quantities such as bags of and about 30 are characteristic of informal conversations that take place in relaxed situations. Speakers who know each other well can interpret vague words like stuff and gear very accurately because of the shared knowledge that they have about each other's life and habits. The friendly and informal context makes such vague language an entirely natural and expected part of a conversation.

On the other hand, there are some occasions, for example in a court of law, where precision is the norm, and vague language could be interpreted as evasiveness, deception or even guilt (Cotterill, 2007). A witness giving evidence who uses vague language will cause confusion and exasperation in a setting which is designed to eliminate all possible doubt and establish the truth of an event or a situation which in turn will form the basis of some moral or legal judgement with potentially very serious consequences. In a conversation between friends, on the other hand, vagueness is commonly used, and generally welcomed as a demonstration of trust and familiarity. This insight is very important when discussing vague language, because it shows that the same grammatical or lexical feature can have very different implied meanings in different contexts.

3. VAGUE LANGUAGE AS A POLITENESS STRATEGY IN SPOKEN CONVERSATION

Following on from Gricean theory and pragmatics, there has been considerable research into the use of vague language as a way of being polite. It has been linked with the idea of maintaining harmony and cooperation within a social group, avoiding any threat to the face of another member of that group (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

The idea here is that precise language gives too much information, or information that is not welcome or wanted by the addressee. So speakers who follow the Gricean norm of cooperation in dialogue avoid anything too explicit and resort to vague language instead. Everyone has been in a situation where they have been asked a direct question and have chosen to give a non-committal and vague answer simply because they wish to avoid the consequences of giving a full and accurate answer, whether this be in the context of expressing opinions about someone's choice of clothing, or the taste of a meal that has just been cooked by someone present in the room. Precision and accuracy are generally laudable concepts, but in these specific social contexts they can be offensive because they threaten the standing of an individual in the group and could hurt their feelings.

‘The idea here is that precise language gives too much information, or information that is not welcome or wanted by the addressee’

There are also certain advantages in the use of fuzzy concepts and vague boundaries, because they extend the range of options open to a speaker, offering a chance to express many grades of truth and many different attitudes towards propositions without the speaker having to be pinned down to just one position (Lakoff, 1972). The metaphor of the slingshot is used by Zhang to describe the elasticity that is inherent in vague language “stretching on a continuum of polarities, between soft or tough, firm or flexible, cooperative or uncooperative” Zhang (2011, p. 571). Some people like to make statements that they can later interpret in different ways, as for example in the case of politicians who may have one message for one group of people (for example supporters) and another message for a different group (for example critics).

4. VAGUE LANGUAGE AS DISCOURSE MANAGEMENT

More recent research has taken these ideas further and examined how vagueness functions in spoken conversations to manage the cooperation between speakers. According to Jucker, Smith and Lüdge vague expressions in everyday conversations “may carry more relevant contextual implications than would a precise expression” (Jucker, Smith and Lüdge, 2003, p. 1737), and the following common functions of such language were suggested:

• To serve as a focusing device, helping the addressee determine how much processing effort to devote to a given referent

• To show looser assignment of a characteristic to a conceptual category

• To express a speaker’s attitude towards a quantity, or take account of the speaker’s assumptions about the addressee’s beliefs

• To express a speaker’s degree of commitment to a proposition

• To engender camaraderie or soften implicit criticisms.

What is noticeable about this list is the wide range of subtle meanings that can be conveyed through vague language, and the fact that these functions can overlap and be used individually or in a merged way, with several operating at the same time. It is therefore quite tricky to work out which functions are being intended by the speaker, and which are being picked up or inserted by the addressee at any one time.

One study found that vague category markers such as *and that sort of thing, and everything, and stuff,* and *all the rest of it* were used by learners of English differently than native speakers of English, and called for more research into the way both categories of speaker process these instances of vague language and decode what they are referring to (Evison, McCarthy, and O'Keeffe, 2007). There may be a gap between intention and reception, and this could be quite critical for learners of a second language.

Another study compared the use of placeholder words such as thing, thingy, stuff, thingummybob, thingybob and whatsit by British adults and teenagers and found that these were not used more by frequently teenagers than adults, but that they were used in a wider range of contexts by teenagers than adults (Palacios Martinez and Paloma, 2015). The authors draw the important conclusion that *"these lexical items show properties typical of pragmatic markers, since they help in the organisation of discourse, they are sometimes used as devices to hold or cede the floor and they also function interpersonally by promoting cooperation between the participants in the conversation."* (Palacios Martinez and Paloma, 2015, p. 425).

The reason for wide and varied use of vague language by teenagers may well be connected to group dynamics since *"for these subjects it is important to belong to a closed group and community in order to reaffirm themselves, and this use of language clearly helps them in that direction"* (Palacios Martinez, 2011, p. 119).

This line of investigation confirms earlier work by Ball and Ariel (Ball and Ariel, 1978; Ariel, 2002) on the use of vague language to create a privileged in-group which communicates their own restricted meanings between themselves to help bond them together. Interestingly, this line of research also raises the possibility that vague language can be used to exclude people from the group, for example, by using a vague expression instead of a person's name, or omitting details that the group knows, but the outsider does not. According to Overstreet and Yule instances of vague language in conversation is neither sloppy nor rude, but is used in both informal conversations between people who know each other

‘It has been suggested in some studies that vagueness is more commonly used by women due to the stereotypical roles that men and women are expected to play in most human societies’

well, and in semi-formal contexts such as telephone conversations between strangers, or broadcasts over television and radio to build relationships because “they represent a kind of implicit communication whereby speakers indicate an assumption of shared experience and hence closeness or common ground” (Overstreet and Yule, 1997, p. 256). This closeness does not have to exist in reality, but it can be an aspiration, or an expectation that the vagueness helps to turn in to a reality.

5. VAGUE LANGUAGE AND GENDER

It has been suggested in some studies that vagueness is more commonly used by women due to the stereotypical roles that men and women are expected to play in most human societies. Men are generally expected to be bold and definite, for example, while women are expected to be timid and vague in deference to the supposed superiority of the male. Scholars in this field have pointed out that the patriarchal bias in most societies dictates such unfair prejudices, and have highlighted the way in which both gender and politeness are socially constructed, rather than absolute norms (Mills, 2003). In the days before tape recorders and computers, it was difficult to counter such theories, especially since men dominated the research sector until the middle of the twentieth century. More recently, however, the involvement of feminists in research, and the availability of new technologies have allowed much more rigorous and evidence-based testing of these ideas.

So far, however, when these theories have been tested with real data, the results have been far from conclusive. (Holmes, 1988) analysed the use of the sort of in the speech of men and women in New Zealand, for example, and found that it was used as “a device facilitating the smooth flow of the discourse, providing the speaker with verbal planning time [… and] as an imprecision or approximation signal (epistemic modal meaning) and as an informality or solidarity marker (affective meaning)” (Holmes, 1988, p. 85). This study did not find much difference between women’s and men’s use of sort of but noted that "in semi-formal contexts it was addressed more to women than men" (Holmes, 1988, p. 85). In another study, Holmes (Holmes, 1995) highlighted the different standards of behaviour that are expected of men and of women, such as for example the supposedly caring and nurturing role of women, and their lower status in society, which encourages them to use vague formulation in an effort to support others and avoid conflicts where they might stand to lose more than men.

The evolving study of language and gender increasingly challenges any easy equation of gender with language use, and suggests instead that complex interactions between gender, register and the relationships and expectations between speakers and addressees are at work. Moreover, in modern societies where binary distinctions of gender are outdated, and complexity is more appropriate as a model than male/female contrasts, the whole field of language and gender has to be approached in a different way (Talbot, 2010). Variety and complexity are now features of the way language and gender are viewed, with much more leeway for choices to be made to suit different contexts.

6. VAGUE LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Studies of intercultural communication have revealed that people in all cultures use vague language from time to time, but there are some differences between linguistic and cultural groups (Alkhatnai, 2017). A typical method that is used to explore this and many other types of variation in language is corpus linguistics (McEnery, Xiao, and Tono, 2006). This simply means the use of collected data, usually transcribed from audio or video recordings of naturally occurring conversations, to identify, categorise and analyse instances of the linguistic phenomenon that is being studied, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Another area that is worthy of further investigation is that of English language pedagogy, both for native speakers learning to speak, listen, read and write, and for those adults and children learning English as a second language. It is relatively easy to learn the formulaic expanders and tags that indicate vagueness in language, but the use of these features of discourse in a natural way, with no failures of communication, is quite a sophisticated skill. The asymmetry between native speakers and teenage or adult learners of a second language means that the use of vague language always carries some risk of misinterpretation or pragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983); Drew, 1991).

One study based in Hong Kong compared the forms and functions of vague language used by a) native English speakers and b) native Cantonese speakers and found that although both groups used a similar range

'Following on from all of these interesting studies on vague language, albeit in mostly informal spoken contexts, there has been recent interest in more formal situations and written texts'

of vague language types, native English speakers used vague language more than native Cantonese speakers and that the native English speakers displayed a greater tendency to use vague language more "for affective and interpersonal purposes" (Drave, 2001, p. 25). Using a close analysis of the word stuff, this author explored the epistemic (propositional) and affective meta-functions of the degree of specificity in the discourse and noted that "it is very difficult to determine which of the functions (or motives) is in evidence for any single VL [= vague language] item, but this list of functions is nevertheless a necessary, preliminary heuristic for approaching the study of VL" (Drave, 2001, p. 27). These methodological difficulties are due partly to the lack of consensus on how to define and categorise vague language, and partly to the practical challenge of understanding what meanings are actually or potentially encoded into or interpreted out of any individual instance of vague language. Each conversation relies on a whole raft of contextual factors, including the personalities and past history of the speakers, as well as various details such as the time, place, topic and purpose of the conversation.

Some rather different results were found in a more recent, comparative study of British and Taiwanese students' use of three types of vague expressions: a) vague categories, b) approximations and c) hedging (Lin, 2013). This study found substantial differences in the frequency of use of these categories, and in the way in which they were used. It seems that more research, ideally across different cultural groupings, will be needed to explore this issue of vague language usage by different cultural groups more thoroughly.

7. VAGUE LANGUAGE IN POLITICS

Following on from all of these interesting studies on vague language, albeit in mostly informal spoken contexts, there has been recent interest in more formal situations and written texts. An interesting investigation into a corpus of Parliamentary debate texts from the European Union identified a list of general extenders that were commonly used by native English speakers and non-native English speakers alike, and then subsequently published in written form, namely:

and/or [something/anything/everything] (like that)
(and/or) X stuff (like that/X)
and (all) (of) that
(all) [this/that/these/those] kind(s)/sort(s)/type(s) of X
(or) whatever
and so on (and so forth)
et cetera (et cetera)
Xs like that
and all the rest of it
and this that and the other
(Cucchi, 2007, p. 5).

The placeholder *X* in these examples refers to the subject matter that the speaker is talking about, usually a noun or noun phrase. The term "general extender" is used in preference to other terminology such as "set marking tags" (Dines, 1980, p. 23) which has previously been used to signify the way speakers cue the listener to see an example as an illustration of more general case. In this study of vague language in European Union transcripts, it was concluded that both native and non-native speakers of English use these general extenders for similar purposes, such as iconicity, where the speakers want to suggest that much more could be said, and that the forms and so on and et cetera were by far the most common type that was used (Cucchi, 2007). Interestingly, there was a difference between these categories of speakers in so far as native speakers of English preferred and so on while non-native speakers of English preferred the Latinate form et cetera. Greater command of a language may mean that a speaker has more choices available but the point worthy of note is that these general extenders are a very common part of formal language in political contexts. It is not true, then, to say that vague language is only a feature of informal speech. It clearly has a role to play in formal contexts as well.

8. VAGUE LANGUAGE IN NEWS REPORTING

One empirical study on economics-related news reporting at the time of the world financial crisis in 2008 found that "hedges are extensively used to limit commitment to what is proposed, instantaneously offering error avoidance" (Milanovic and Milanovic, 2010, p. 128). Economists discussing crisis situations understand that their work may be controversial, and it may cause worry and stress to readers, and so they exercise caution to mitigate these negative reactions by moderating their writing style with hedges. An example of such writing is cited as follows:

Nouriel Roubini, the famously glum economist who predicted the financial crisis, said that while the recession in the United States ***may*** *well be over at the*

'The tension between having an obligation to explain what trends are showing and thus predict the future and at the same to avoid making mistakes or upsetting people is the reason why the economist resorts to vagueness techniques'

end of the year, another dip was still ***possible*** *next year* (Milanovic and Milanovic, 2010, p. 125).

This example shows the use of the modal verb ***may*** to cast doubt on the likelihood of the economist's predicted course of events ever happening and the use of the adjective ***possible*** to qualify another of his predictions. The tension between having an obligation to explain what trends are showing and thus predict the future and at the same to avoid making mistakes or upsetting people is the reason why the economist resorts to vagueness techniques.

Another study, based on intercultural reporting of English language news in China, noted that in both languages, news items regularly violated all of the Gricean maxims mentioned above, and the authors of news stories used vague language in a variety of ways and for a range of different purposes, mostly related to the creation of artistic effects or management of reader understandings and emotions, making them think about the news but avoiding extreme or offensive connotations that would upset the readers (Pan, 2012). Here, too, is a demonstration of vague language being used in relatively formal, written texts for a variety of purposes.

9. DISCUSSION

Further topics could be added to the list discussed above, such as the use of vague language in healthcare (Adolphs, Atkins and Harvey, 2007) or any number of other settings, but space is limited and so we turn now to the implications of all this fascinating work on vague language. It is clear that vague language is relevant to both formal and informal registers, and it is both context-governed and culture-dependent (Zhang, 2011). Recognising this is fundamental to understanding how vague language must be investigated – using primary data gathering methods that capture more than just grammatical and lexical items, but also include data about the speakers/writers and the target and actual audiences in their respective contexts, and ideally with a multi-disciplinary focus and a range of methods. There is no single correct way of researching this topic, and incorporating multiple theories and approaches has the best chance of producing reliable findings and formulating new theories.

One of the most interesting aspects of vague language that is of current interest is the way in which speakers and addressees co-construct meaning in communication, and the space that vague language leaves for both speaker and addressee to insert their own interpretations. An understanding of the many and various ways in which vague language can be used highlights the complexity of spoken and written genres, and underlines the fact that vague language is in fact a very sophisticated feature that is not used randomly, or just out of laziness or inattention, but in fact serves some very sophisticated purposes both at the level of semantics and at the level of discourse management (Wierzbicka, 1986).

The proliferation of different media in the contemporary world, and their associated genres such as discussion boards, blogs, home-made texts and videos, and all kinds of social media means that the traditional boundary between spoken and written language is being blurred, and this raises interesting questions about the potential forms and purposes of vague language today. Also, some new constraints such as the character limit in text messaging and Twitter impose very strict limits on the amount of explicit meaning that can be conveyed in a single utterance, and there is now a growing range of conventions, such as abbreviations, and creative uses of punctuation, and additional visual items such as emojis and moving gif images that can be used in digital communication. More research is needed to investigate these new dimensions of the role that vague language is currently playing in digitally enabled communication.

Finally, all the empirical studies mentioned above struggle to use the unwieldy range of existing terminology around vagueness and language, and there seems to be a need for some kind of definitive categorisation that could be used for comparison purposes across studies in different countries, contexts and themes. One article by Zhang (1998) has sparked renewed debates about this point, and this author's suggestion of the four terms *generality, vagueness, fuzziness* and *ambiguity* might be a helpful starting point for growing consensus in this area. The concept of fuzziness, with its recognition that some expressions do not have clear-cut referential boundaries, is an important innovation in this field that is worthy of more research. Generality, vagueness and ambiguity can be resolved with knowledge of the details surrounding language use, but no amount of background knowledge about the

‘The implications of this growing body of work on vague language are immense’

speakers of the context could pin down deliberately fuzzy language. The human condition is open-ended and uncertain, and so it is entirely appropriate that there are dimensions of vagueness in language that cannot be fully determined. There may be psychological reasons why language that is fuzzy is used when perfectly clear alternatives exist and are readily available, and indeed some of the most influential texts in the world today, such as sacred religious texts, myths, poetry and ideological treatises would be wonderful sources for a closer study of fuzziness and other types of vague language and their ongoing impact on both individual and collective human consciousness.

CONCLUSION

The evidence reviewed above demonstrates that vague language is a huge topic which is likely to be the subject of research for many years to come. Wherever and whenever vague language is used, it provides an astonishing variety of options for varying the subtle meanings that can be exchanged in all kinds of discourse genres and contexts. Far from being a negative feature of language, it is a very great strength, and scholars are still exploring the potential that lies within it for subtle variations in its use.

The implications of this growing body of work on vague language are immense. There are practical applications, such as for example in teaching advanced literacy skills, and the creation and interpretation of a huge range of different text types. There is scope for new theory formation in the analysis of digitally enabled language use, and plenty of ongoing discussion about the extent to which previous terms and theories still apply to this type of language. Above all, studying vague language as it is actually being used today, by politicians or diplomats, in news bulletins, and in conversations with friends, colleagues and strangers, helps us to understand human psychology and the process of forming and maintaining group identity and coherence. Mastering the skill of appropriate use of vague language is a fundamental prerequisite for peaceful and harmonious social interaction, even in the face of different perspectives and conflicting views of the world.

References

Adolphs, S., Atkins, S., & Harvey, K. (2007). Caught between professional requirementsand interpersonal needs: vague languagein health care contexts. In J. Cutting (Ed.),*Vague Language Explored*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 62-78.

Alkhatnai, M. (2017) Vague Language and Its Social Role. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 7*(2), pp. 122 -227.

Ariel, M. (2002). Privileged interactional interpretations. *Journal of Pragmatics, 34*(8), pp.1003-1044.

Ball, C. and Ariel, M. (1978) Or something etc. *Penn Review of Linguistics 3*(1), pp. 35-45.

Brown and Levinson (1987) *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Carston, R. (2005) Relevance Theory, Grice and the neo-Griceans: a response to Laurence Horn's 'Current issues in neo-Gricean pragmatics'. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 2*(3), pp.303-319.

Channel, J. (1994) *Vague Language*. Oxford:Oxford University Press.

Cotterill, J. (2007) 'I Think He was Kind of Shouting or Something': Uses and Abuses of Vagueness in the British Courtroom in J. Cutting (Ed.) *Vague Language Explored*. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, pp. 97–114.

Crystal, D. and Davy (1975) *Advanced Conversational English*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Cucchi, C. (2007) An investigation of general extenders in a corpus of EU parliamentary debates. In *Proceedings from the Corpus Linguistics Conference Series*. University of Birmingham (UK), 27–30 July 2007, pp. 1-13. Available at: http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/documents/college-artslaw/corpus/conference-archives/2007/242Paper.pdf [Accessed 26 August 2017]

Cutting, J. (2007) Introduction. In J. Cutting (Ed.), *Vague Language Explained*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 3-20.

Dines (1980) Variation in Discourse – 'and stuff like that'. *Language in Society 9*, pp. 13-31.

Drave, N. (2001) Vaguely speaking: a corpus approach to vague language in intercultural conversations. *Language and Computers, 36*(1), pp.25-40.

Drew. P. (1991). Asymmetries of knowledge in conversational interactions. In Marková, J. and Foppa. K. (Eds.) *Asymmetries in dialogue*. Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf, pp. 21–48.

Evison, J., McCarthy, M., and O'Keeffe, A. (2007) 'Looking out for Love and All the Rest of It': Vague Category Markers as Shared Social Space. In J. Cutting (Ed.) *Vague Language Explored*. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, pp. 138–57.

Grice, P. (1969) Utterer's meaning and intentions. *Philosophical Review 78*, pp. 147-177.

Grice, P. (1989) *Studies in the Way of Words*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Holmes, J. (1988). '*Sort of in New Zealand women's and men's speech*'. StudiaLinguistica 42(2), pp. 85–121.

Holmes, J. (1995) *Women, Men and Politeness*. London: Longman.

Horn, L. (2005) Current issues in neo-Gricean pragmatics. *Intercultural Pragmatics 2*, pp. 191-204.

Jucker, A. H., Smith, S. W. and Lüdge, T. (2003) Interactive aspects of vagueness in conversation. *Journal of Pragmatics 35*, pp. 1737-1739.

Kenney, R. and Smith, P. (2007) *Introduction to theories of vagueness*. In R. Kenney and P. Smith (Eds.), Vagueness: A Reader. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, pp. 1-57.

Lakoff, R. (1972) Hedges- a study in meaning and the logic of fuzzy concepts. *Eighth Regional Meeting of the Chicago Linguistics Society*, pp. 183-228.

Levinson, S. (1983) *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Levinson, S. (2000) *Presumptive Meanings: The Theory of Generalized Conversational Implicatures*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Lin, L. (2013) Vague Language and Interpersonal Communication: An Analysis of Adolescent Intercultural Conversation. *International Journal of Society, Language and Culture, 1*(2), pp. 68-80

Macaulay, R. K. (2005) *Talk that Counts: Age, Gender and Social Class Differences in Discourse.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

McEnery, T., Xiao, R., and Tono, Y. (2006) *Corpus-based language studies: An Advanced Resource Book*. London:Routledge.

Milanovic, M. and Milanovic, A. (2010) Softening the words of a crisis: Hedging in economics-related articles published on the internet. *Ekonomski Horizonti 12*(1), pp. 121-129.

Mills, S. (2003) *Gender and Politeness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Neale, S. (1992) Paul Grice and the Philosophy of Language. *Linguistics and Philosophy 15*(5), pp. 509-559.

Overstreet, M. and Yule, G. (1997) On being inexplicit and stuff in contemporary American English. *Journal of English Linguistics 25*, pp. 250-258.

Palacios Martinez, I. M, (2011) The language of British teenagers. A preliminary study of its main grammatical features. *Atlantis. Journal of the Spanish Association of Anglo-American Studies 33*(1), pp. 105-126.

Palacios Martinez I. M. and Paloma, N.P. (2015) "Go up to miss thingy"."He's probably like a whatsit or something". *Pragmatics, 25*(3), pp.425-451.

Pan, W. (2012) An Analysis of Vagueness in English News from Grice's Cooperative Principles. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies 2*(12), pp. 2530-2534.

Peirce, C. S. (1902) Vagueness. In M. Baldwin, *Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology*, p. 748.

Talbot, M. (2010) *Language and Gender.* Cambridge: Polity.

Thomas, J. (1983)Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics 4*(2), pp. 91–112.

Wierzbicka, A. (1986) Precision in vagueness: the semantics of English approximatives. *Journal of Pragmatics 10*, pp. 597–614.

Zhang, G. (2011) Elasticity of vague language. *Intercultural Pragmatics 8*(4), pp. 571-599.

Zhang, G. (2015) Fuzziness-vagueness-generality-ambiguity. *Journal of Pragmatics 29*(1), pp. 13-31.

Persuasion strategy in online social advertising

Ksenia V. Popova

ABSTRACT
The sphere of advertising is in constant development. The language of advertising faces a great number of changes as well. Due to this fact, linguists all over the world challenge to work out the most convenient and complete classification of speech strategies that are used in creation of the most persuasive advertising text. The present article focuses on linguistic means that are used in implementation of speech strategies in online social advertising such as strategies of warning and argumentation in general and strategy of persuasion in particular. The author identifies the strategy of persuasion as the most frequently used one in online social advertising. Besides, the author distinguishes tactics that help to achieve the main goal of social advertising: impel to a certain kind of action. In addition, there is a wide range of means of advertising distribution such as outdoor advertising, printed advertising, Internet advertising and so on. In our article we analyse advertisements that are distributed by means of the Internet. The study relies on the methods of quantitative analysis, cognitive analysis and discursive analysis.

KEYWORDS: *Speech strategies, social advertising, Internet advertising, persuasion strategy, speech tactics, advertising discourse, cognitive and discursive analysis.*

1.NTRODUCTION

The development of high technologies era, the expansion of mass media means stipulate the development of advertising sphere as well. Today advertising is considered to be one of the most efficient instruments used to influence and manipulate people's minds. Regardless of advertising type, its aim is to encourage people to take certain actions.

Over extended periods, scientists have singled out such types of advertising as TV advertising, radio advertising, printed advertising and others. However, due to emergence of information and communication technologies, Internet advertising becomes a subject of focus. Today Internet advertising is probably the most prospective direction of studying.

The relevance of this article is based on the fact that advertising discourse and internet advertising in particular are of great interest among linguists all over the world. The present article focuses on the identification of linguistic means that are used in an advertising text in social advertising in order to persuade people in some common point of view considering some specific situations.

The main aim of the given article is to conduct analysis of the most frequently used speech strategies in online social advertising in general and strategy of persuasion in particular as well as tactics of its implementation.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Methodological and theoretical foundations of the article are formed with the help of such prominent linguists as E.S. Kubryakova, N.D. Arutyunova, O.V. Alexsandrova, V.I. Karasik, E.N. Malyuga, George Lakoff, Teun A. van Dijk and others.

Data for the present article was taken from texts of online social advertising from websites of British and American companies. The article relies on the following methods of analysis: cognitive and discursive analysis, quantitative analysis, generalization and systematization.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The development of the cognitive approach began in the XX century. E.S. Kubryakova assumes that the main aim of cognitive linguistics is to consider a language as a cognitive mechanism that participates in the coding and transformation of information (Demyankova & Kubryakova, 1996, p. 53 55).

Cognitive linguistics is based on the examination of two fundamental concepts: language and thought.

The establishment of cognitive linguistics itself is connected with the names of G. Lakoff and H. Thompson. Among Russian scientists we can distinguish A. Vezhbitskaya, E.S. Kubryakova, A.A. Kibrik, N.D. Arutyunova and others.

The basic notion of cognitive linguistics is ‘cognition’ that means ‘internal, mental, and interiorized’. Special attention in cognitive linguistics is paid to the emergence of the new functional paradigm of linguistic knowledge – cognitive and discursive paradigm (Kubryakova, 2004, p. 6-17). That is why it is necessary to take into account two main functions: cognitive that is formed due to the participation in the cognitive process and communicative that is formed due to the participation in acts of speech interference.

In its turn communicative function of cognitive and discursive paradigm is closely related to the one of the most fundamental notions of linguistic studies – discourse. Z. Harris introduced the term ‘discursive analysis’ in 1952. He believed that it is necessary to examine a connected text instead of a sentence (Harris, 1952, p. 1-30).

In our research we consider the means of implementation of cognitive and discursive analysis on the material of Internet advertising.

The examination of advertising text and advertising discourse from the point of view of cognitive and discursive analysis is impossible without the identification of what the 'discourse' is. The term discourse has been studied by such prominent linguists as O.V. Alexandrova, N.D. Arutyunova, E.N. Malyuga, Dijk and others. One of the most common definitions of this term is 'speech that is wrapped up in life'. Van Dijk considered discourse as, on the one hand (in a general sense), a communicative event that takes part between a speaker and a listener (observer) in the process of communication at certain period of time. On the other hand (in a narrow sense), it is a complete or continuous 'product' of a communicative act that can be whether a written or an oral result which is interpreted by the recipient (Dijk, 1983, p. 418).

Another popular definition of discourse was given by N.D. Arutyunova who defined it as 'a textual unity in combination with extra-linguistic – pragmatic, sociocultural, psycholinguistic and other factors' (Arutyunova, 1990, p. 136-137). In our research, we consider discourse as a dynamic cognitive process that is closely related to the production of real speech, creation of a speech act.

The key objective of discourse is the production of a speech act (text) together with the support of the perception of this text by the recipient. Thus, the understanding of discourse involves the participation of certain mental processes that are aimed at influencing people's opinion concerning some specific events or situations.

In addition, we believe that it is necessary to distinguish such notions as 'discourse' and 'text'. We suppose that one of the main differences between text and discourse is that text is static while discourse is a dynamic phenomenon. Traditionally, linguists classify the term 'discourse' with the help of the 'text' notion. Text, here, can be considered as a fragment or a key unit of discourse. According to Russian linguistic school, discourse is a cognitive process which results in the creation of a speech act. At the same time, text is a final result of discourse. That is why, discourse is related to speech and text is related to the language system (Malyuga & Bantshikova, 2011, p. 122-134).

As for advertising discourse, here special attention is given to the text and its description from the point of view of the most basic paradigm – 'text-discourse'. Advertising text changes as well as discourse. Despite the fact that a large number of linguists devote their

'Despite the fact that a large number of linguists devote their studies to advertising discourse, it is still quite a topical issue'

studies to advertising discourse, it is still quite a topical issue. It depends on the development of advertising services market.

Advertising is a special type of communication which purpose is to provide information of a particular group of products (if we talk about commercial advertising) or to warn people or persuade them to take a certain kind of action (if we talk about social advertising). The huge amount of Internet users, the development of means of wireless communication, and various technological gadgets made it possible to distribute advertisements straight away to a final recipient and to a particular target audience.

Advertising discourse is a type of institutional discourse. V.I. Karasik in his works, defines institutional discourse as a "special clichéd variation of communication between people who may not know each other but they are to communicate in accordance with norms and rules of a certain society" (Karasik, 2000, p. 5-20).

Communication in institutional discourse is based on the hierarchical relations between individuals, their role in the society and the status of each particular participant of discourse. Advertising is engaged in all spheres of human life. Usually participant of advertising discourse are advertising experts (who are responsible for the creation of an advertising text) and people who are recipients of this advertising message.

Advertising text is characterised by the fact that it can implement diverse functional styles. Advertising message can contain features of such functional styles as colloquial (informal) style or business style. It is quite often the advertising text includes professional terms, jargon and so on.

There are several approaches to the definition of advertising discourse. In accordance with the first approach, advertising discourse is the combination between an advertising text and extra-linguistic factors. Among the followers of such approach are Bovee and Rsens who define advertising discourse as 'a complete message which contains a strictly oriented pragmatic goal that, in its turn, combine distinctive features of oral speech and written text with a complex of semiotic (paralinguistic and extra-linguistic) means' (Bovee & Arens, 1995, p. 704).

According to the definition given by I.V. Miroshnichenko, advertising text is a prosaic or poetic text that contains implicit or explicit wake-up call. It is usually aimed at demand increase (Miroshnichenko, 2009, p. 224). Advertising text is considered to be one of the main means that is used to attract target audience attention. In order to make advertising text more powerful and successful, advertising experts use linguistic means and speech strategies. Due to this fact, much attention is paid to the study of this notion.

In order to be successful and influential, advertising text is to be laconic, brief, clear, accurate, and to maintain maximum of the most significant information in a few words.

Advertising discourse and advertising text is intended to have an impact on diverse social groups of people as they suggest a specific frame of mind.

Due to its laconic nature, advertising text is an example of the most efficient way to implement various linguistic means. This, in particular, can help us to find out the connection with pragmalinguistics as it identifies what grammatical and lexical units, stylistic devices or syntactic means will be realized.

In the majority of cases, advertising is created not only to provide people with information about a product, but also to make a recipient to develop a vivid advertising image in his or her imagination. In order to realize this specific goal, advertising texts are filled in with a great number of diverse stylistic means (irony, metaphor, hyperbole and so on).

The expansion of the Internet has also influenced the development of advertising texts. Internet advertising text may contain various stylistic means and devices: graphical means (capital letters, italics), phonetic means (alliteration, repetition, rhyme, contrast), lexical means (personal pronouns), syntactical mean (questions, imperative constructions). In addition, except for linguistic means there are extra-linguistic features that characterize advertising messages.

According to the study provided by M.N. Kozhina and M.A. Shishkina there are two main groups of extra-linguistic features: primary and secondary. Primary features include subject of an advertisement, its aims and objectives, who is the author of an advertising text and who is the

'Due to its laconic nature, advertising text is an example of the most efficient way to implement various linguistic means'

target audience (the recipient). Secondary features include distribution channels and conditions of communication (Shishkina & Kozhina, 2009).

The focus of our research is based on the examination of Internet advertising that is why we suggest identifying several more extra-linguistic features that play a significant role in the persuading people to take a certain kind of action. As Internet advertising is a one-sided way of communication, advertising experts should use some more features to persuade people in their point of view. They are image, colour together with the target audience and the author of advertising text.

Let's consider the influence of the target audience, for instance, on the choice of linguistic means. If you produce advertisements for children, then it is necessary to implement simple words in order for children to understand the advertising message. And in case if you produce advertisements for adults, you can use more complicated grammatical constructions as well as some common specialised terms.

Another way to make advertising text more persuasive is to implement a number of speech strategies. Nowadays there is a wide range of speech strategy's definitions. In our article we consider speech strategy as a combination of speech acts which purpose is to achieve the communicative goal within the speech process. Here we should form our speech behavior in full compliance with several important characteristics such as cognitive plan, the role and personal qualities of participants of the communication process, communication traditions and so on.
As we have already mentioned before, the choice of speech strategies as well as other linguistic and extra-linguistic factors depend on various aspects as the recipient of the advertisement.

O.S. Issers examines speech strategies as a combination of speech actions that are targeted at solving a general communicative aim of the speaker. However, it is important not to confuse speech strategies with communicative ones. Though these two notions are closely connected with each other, it is necessary to distinguish them accurately (Issers, 2006, p. 284). We believe that speech strategies are used to implement communicative strategies. It its turn, communicative strategies consists of speech strategies and extra-linguistic features. The implementation of speech strategies helps potential recipients of an advertisement to change their point of view, to tune in to the public opinion and to make a correct decision.

It is a wide-spread belief that people have a negative attitude towards advertising, however, if we see the same advertisement all the time, even every day, there is no doubt that this advertisement will be noted and ultimately we will think about the message that this advertisement contains whether we like it or not.

In the present article we will consider speech strategies and tactics of their implementation that are peculiar for online social advertising such as strategies of warning and argumentation in general and strategy of persuasion in particular as the most frequently used one.

The main difference between social and commercial advertising is that social one is not aimed at selling some specific range of products. The role of social advertising is to change the model of human behavior and to bring into the public eye the most significant phenomena and global issues. Besides, social advertising is able to develop new social values. The target audience here is not actually a particular social class but the whole society. This is due to the fact that social issues, as a rule, are related with all people all over the world as we all have the similar problems and concerns. Social advertising is of great interest among diverse public organisations, charity funds as well as governments of different countries.

The text of social advertisement is to be laconic and to stir up certain emotion among the recipients of this or that social advertisement.

According to the legal definition of the term “Social advertising” that is given in the 3 article of the Federal law Of the Russian Federation “About advertising” dated 13 March 2006 No. 38-ФЗ: “Social advertising is information distributed by any ways, in any form with the usage of any means that is addressed to uncertain scope of people and aimed at achieving of charity and any other publicly useful goals as well as provision of government interests”.

Currently, there are several the most popular directions of social advertising campaigns:

- Family: it can include the following issues – protection of children, family, family values and so on;

- Society: the issues of social development, social rights, discrimination, humiliation;

- Health care protection: standard of living, population lifestyle, diseases prevention, smoking, epidemics;

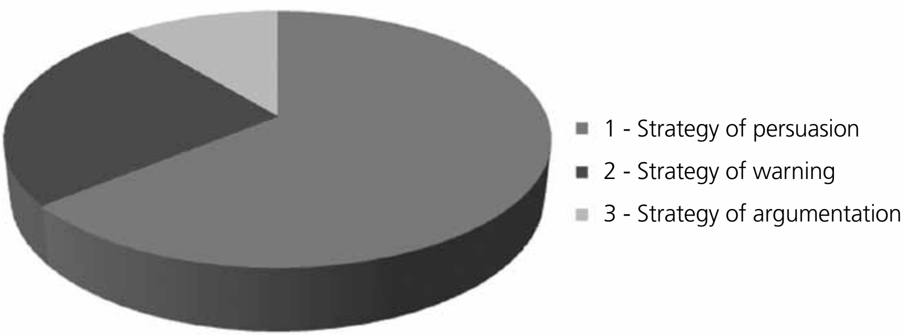
- Ecology: deforestation, pollution, nature protection, animals and plants extirpation.

The language used in social advertising is characterised by the implementation of imperative constructions, besides, the particle ‘not’ is also used quite often in social advertising as a way to attract your attention to the fact how it is better not to do. The goal of social advertising in such case is not only to warn people but to forbid them to perform certain kind of action.

We have analysed more than a thousand advertising texts used in social advertisements and found out that there are three more common speech strategies: strategy of warning, strategy of persuasion and strategy of argumentation.

Let’s take a look at two less frequently used strategies. If we talk about speech strategy of warning then it should be noted that this strategy is realized with the help of tactics of showing ways of problem solving. In such types of advertisements it is stated what can be

The frequency of implementation of speech strategies in online social advertising



done to find the solution for the current issue or problem or how to avoid negative consequences of your actions.

The following example shows that careless driving may have certain consequences. And, unfortunately, these consequences may be dramatic and tragic. It is not accidently that this text is turned upside down. This advertisement is exactly for those who prefer not to obey rules. They have more opportunities to get into car accident. On the road we are responsible for lives of people who surround us whether they are passengers or pedestrians.

HE SEES A LOT MORE OF HIS MOM
NOW THAT HE'S LOST HIS LICENSE.
MAYBE SHE'LL GIVE HIM DATING ADVICE.
DRINKING & DRIVING
IS IT REALLY EVEN WORTH IT?

In this case this tactics of pointing at problem solving is used to show that your decisions can be wrong. So before doing something you should think whether it is really worth it.

This particular advertisement is telling a story about a guy who has decided to drink before driving. The consequences of this decision are rather predictable – he is deprived of license. That is why, now if he wants to go for a date, he needs to ask his mom to give them a ride.

Except for the warning strategy, we can see here two more powerful tools that can help to persuade people to make the right decision. One of them is sarcasm. Its goal is to make a negligent driver ashamed of his irresponsible behavior. Now he has to go everywhere with his mom and listen to her advices on how to behave with a girl on a date.

And one more instrument is rhetorical question that is used to make people to think about their behavior and possible responsibility. Maybe you will be lucky enough and you will just lose your license, however, there is a possibility that you will injure or even kill somebody. So you should think twice before getting behind a wheel drunk.

In this case, in order to attract people's attention, advertising experts use the syntactical means – a rhetoric question that is aimed at making people think about their actions.

The next strategy that is also used in social advertising is the strategy of argumentation that is implemented by means of tactics of emphasis. Usually the authors of such advertisements create it with the help of facts, statistics and so on.

*"**Over 20%** of all deaths in the US are from TOBACCO."*

This advertisement makes us think telling that over 20% of all deaths in the USA are happening because of the smoking. This fact is used in order to show us, that smoking is not worth it to lose our life.

Now let's turn to the most popular speech strategy among advertising experts – strategy of persuasion. It is realized with the help of tactics of call, appeal to the emotions of the recipient and implemented by the following linguistic means: present continuous, imperative constructions, modal verbs, passive voice, and impersonal sentences.

Without a plan, it's like you're putting them in a disaster.

Your family's safety is in your hands.

Here advertising experts appeal to the emotions of recipients addressing to the most important point of almost every person life – family. What it involves is an image of a child in the middle of a natural disaster.

This advertisement is aimed at reminding parents that it is not enough to get birth to a child. If you decide to have a baby, it means that you should get ready to it. Today, in our cruel world, we talk not only about education, traveling or something material. At first, we talk about our children's safety. Making decision of becoming a parent is to turn you into a responsible person, who is supposed to have a plan. Bringing up a child is not an easy task at all, it includes many serious aspects and features, so you are to be able to resist the whole world.

If you do not take care about all aspects, nobody will do it for you. So, here advertising experts use a well-known phrase, idiom "to have something in your hands" meaning that only you can change something. So, your family's safety is in your hands.

GLOBAL WARMING IS LEAVING MANY HOMELESS

In the following advertisement, advertising experts appeal to recipient emotions. It calls us to stop and to think about the environment, animals and planet in general.

The problem of global warming is extremely urgent nowadays. The climate is changing, the glaciers are melting, and the average temperature is rising. All these factors influence not only human life, but also lives of animals, such as, for example, polar bears who cannot stand hot climate. That is why they die out.

This advertisement calls us to think of this problem, because one of the major reasons of global warming according to scientists is human's impact. Climate system is changing in accordance with the external forcing that is able to lower temperatures as well as raising them. One of the examples of such impact is a growing number of greenhouse emissions.

In this case, the key message of the advertisement is that everything is in our hands, we are the one who responsible for the global warming. So, if we do not worry about ourselves then we should think about those who cannot survive without our help – animals.

In addition, in this case, we can see the usage of the present continuous form of the verb that shows that the existing problem is really dangerous, because the process of global warming is in progress. This means that every hour, minute, second a certain number of animals lose their homes.

women need to
women need to **be put in their places**
women need to **know their place**
women need to **be controlled**
women need to **be disciplined**
women need to be seen as equal

Today the question of gender equality is broadly discussed everywhere. Feminists all over the world struggle for the right to be treated as equal to men.

The authors of the following advertisement highlight the existence of this problem. In order to attract people's attention to the present problem they use the strategy of persuasion where they appeal to our emotions.

And in fact, this problem is rather urgent. According to the report provided by the UN, we are far away from the world where people are to be equal. Especially it is connected with job placement. Nowadays there are a lot of women who have higher education and who are experts in their spheres, however, they cannot find a well-paid job. Actually, even if they find a good job, it is quite possible that they will earn less money than a man at the same position. It is stated that in such countries as Sweden and France women earn 31% less than men and in emerging countries this number is equal to 75%.

Except for the strategy of persuasion, advertising experts use here bold and cursive types in order to attract attention. In addition, here, the authors use passive constructions and impersonal sentences to show that it does not really matter who is the target audience of this advertisement. In fact, it appeals to every member of each society.

‘The results achieved within the present research show that the study of speech strategies implemented in Internet advertising is at the beginning stage’

4. CONCLUSION

Internet is believed to be one of the major channels that can be used to persuade people to take a certain kind of actions. That is why the majority of advertising agencies prefer to use this type of advertisements’ distribution. It is a quick way to reach your target audience and your final recipient.

It is necessary to point out that social advertising differs from commercial advertising in a number of reasons. Its aim is not to make people to purchase a product and to gain profit but to provide population with advice on some difficult situations or to change social norms and behaviour in the society of a country. People usually take notice of such advertisement as they can help them to find out the solution to their problems.

The key aim of the following article was to make a classification of the most frequently used speech strategies in online social advertising. We have analysed a large number of online social advertisements and find out that such strategies are strategy of warning, strategy of argumentation and strategy of persuasion. These strategies are implemented by means of such tactics as tactics of pointing out the way of solving problems, tactic of appeal to people’s emotions and tactics of emphasis as well.

In addition to the speech strategies, advertising experts use a wide range of linguistic means in social advertising: graphical means)capital letters, italics, bold type), lexical (personal pronouns), syntactical (questions, imperative constructions, present continuous), stylistic devices (irony, sarcasm).

The results achieved within the present research show that the study of speech strategies implemented in Internet advertising is at the beginning stage. This article can be interesting for advertising experts whose aim is to create the most influential and persuasive advertising text in order to get the attention of all people and to have an impact on their future decisions.

References

Arutyunova, N. (1990). Discourse. Linguistic encyclopedia, Moscow.

Bovee, C. & Arens, F. (1995). Contemporary advertising, Tolyatti, Dovgan' publishing house.

Demyankov, V., Kubryakova, E. (1996). Cognitive linguistics. Concise dictionary of cognitive terms, Moscow, Language and Literature Department, Moscow State University, MSU.

Dijk van T. A., Kintsch, W. (1983). Strategies of Discourse Comprehension, New York, Academic Press.

Federal law "About advertising" dated 13 March 2006 № 38-FZ – Collection of Legislative Acts of the Russian Federation, 2006, №12, article 1232.

Harris, Z. (1952). Discourse analysis. Language.

Issers, O. (2006). Communicative strategies and tactics of the Russian language, Moscow, KomKniga.

Karasik, V. (2000). About discourse types. Language identity: institutional and personal discourse: collection of research papers, Volgograd.

Kubryakova, E. (2004). About aims of cognitive science and urgent problems of cognitive linguistics. Cognitive linguistics issues.

Malyuga, E., Bantshikova, M. (2011). English professional jargon in German advertising media discourse. Lambert Academic Publishing.

Miroshnichenko, I. (2009). Linguistic analysis of a text. Lectures' notes, Moscow, A-Prior.

Shishkina, M., Kozhina, M. (2009). Extra-linguistic factors as the basis of creating corporate PR-texts, Moscow, Issue 1.

Social advertising (2016) https://www.pinterest.com/pin/495818240201395266/

Social advertising (2016) http://adsoftheworld.com/media/print/ad_council_nyc_office_of_emergency_management_ready_new_york_girl

Social advertising (2016) https://www.pinterest.com/pin/175007135489933250/

Social advertising (2017) http://ash.org/resources/tobacco-statistics-facts/

Social advertising (2017) http://bldgwlf.com/women-need-to-be-seen-as-equal/

EU Immigration in the British Press: how was immigration reported immediately prior to the EU referendum?

Sawsan Askoul

INTRODUCTION

This study examines the way in which European Union (EU) immigration was portrayed in the British press during the week immediately prior to the EU referendum of 23rd June, 2016. The research method is based on a combination of corpus linguistics (CL) and discourse analysis (DA), with the aim of providing both quantitative and qualitative analysis of the issue. It begins by establishing the rationale behind the proposed topic, before outlining the theoretical and methodological framework of this corpus-based approach to investigating news discourse, which includes the analysis of frequency, concordances and collocates as they occur in three national-wide, online newspapers, namely the Daily Mail, the Guardian and the BBC. Further findings in relation to DA are then discussed, followed by concluding remarks and observations concerning the limitations of this approach and the tool utilized within it.

Background and rationale

It is a truism to say that immigration has been one of the most prominent topics in UK public debate over the past decade (Allen & Blinder, 2016). This reached its peak during the period of 'Brexit'- a journalese contraction of *Br*itain *exit*s the EU. Although Britain had been a member state since 1973, the British public had to decide on whether to leave or remain in the EU through voting in the EU referendum which took place on 23 June 2016. With a brief search of the internet, one can find numerous online news reports, articles and editorials from around this time, justifying the various reasons why the British people were for or against their country being part of the EU. Among those who were in support of leaving, EU immigration was one of the most cited justifications.

In accordance with 'the right of free movement', EU member states (see figure 1) must allow all EU citizens to enter their countries and work without any restrictions. As such, hundreds of thousands of Europeans have been permitted to live and work in Britain. The Office for National Statistics estimates that there are more than 2 million EU nationals working in the UK.[1]

Figure1. Timeline of members joined the EU - an extract from Oxford University 2016 on EU immigration.

1. Pre-2004 - EU15 (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom)
2. 2004 - A8 (Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia) plus Malta and Cyprus
3. 2007 - A2 (Bulgaria and Romania
4. 2013 - Croatia

Due to the increasing arrival and potential impact of EU immigrants to the UK as new states joined the Union, in particular those from 'A8' countries, the mass media has been covering this issue intently. The coverage has ranged from welcoming to fearful, with immigrants generally being viewed either as a much-needed workforce or a 'flood' of cheap labour, taking jobs away from the British population and causing an enormous strain on schools, health and housing services (Semotam, 2012:2). Accordingly, this study aims to examine the discursive portrayal of EU immigration in the British press during the course of the week immediately prior to the EU referendum - from 16 to 22 June 2016.

The saliency and highly-contemporary nature of this issue lies at the heart of this study's rationale, which adopts elements of corpus linguistics in its approach. Indeed, as Stubbs (2004) observes, much of corpus linguistic research is motivated purely by curiosity (ibid.:106). However, such research still has a significant role to play within linguistics, even though it is aimed at description and interpretation of its findings, rather than critical evaluation (Baker & McEnery, 2015:3).

Corpus linguistics: theoretical and methodological framework

Corpus comes from a Latin term meaning 'body' (Baker & McEnery 2015:1). In its more modern sense, it can refer to a collection of texts of written or spoken language stored in electronic forms (O'Keeffe, et al. 2007:1). Corpus linguistics is a way of using computers to assist the study of language, since the sheer size of the corpus defies manual human analysis within any sensible timeframe (McEnery & Hardie, 2012:2). However, this study of the language goes beyond traditional approaches to analysis, which might focus on linguistic units and structures

[1] For more details on Brexit, see BBC report - March 2017

'The BBC is very popular among British people, although it has been criticised for pro-government bias'

such as morphemes, words, phrases, and grammatical classes etc. (Biber et al. 1998:2). With corpus linguistics, the focus is on 'real' language use of naturally occurring texts (Vessey, 2015:1). As such, Baker & Gabrielatos (2008) believe that corpus linguistics is more a methodological than a theoretical approach (ibid.:10) yet, there is consensus that it provides both quantitative and qualitative analysis of actual patterns in use in naturally-occurring, authentic texts (Biber, et al. 1998:4).

As regards this study, the corpus was developed by adopting many of Sinclair's (2005) *Basic Principles* to provide a good practice framework. Firstly, the *criterion* of this corpus was set to include written, rather than spoken texts. Since written corpus can be gathered quickly using the internet (O'Keeffe, et al. 2007:5), news articles published on websites were compiled.

Secondly, *balance* was ensured by varying the selection to give a breadth of opinions, diverse political views, differing ideological positions and different target groups. Accordingly, the Daily Mail, the Guardian and the BBC were selected to ensure such range. According to a survey run by the internet-based market research firm, YouGov UK (2017), the Daily Mail is seen as Britain's most right-wing newspaper. Statistics show its print title and its website reached an average 18.4 million individuals a month, through both its print and digital formats, from July 2015 to June 2016. At the other end of the spectrum, the Guardian is seen as Britain's most left-wing newspaper. The BBC is very popular among British people, although it has been criticised for pro-government bias. Nonetheless, it is still a source of news being read world-wide.

Thirdly, the *size* of the corpus was carefully considered. Size is usually operationalized by the number of running words or 'tokens'. Heterogeneity is also important - essentially, it is how large the corpus is measured as 'word-types' or different parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. (Stubbs, 2004:113). This study is based on a corpus of nearly 20,000 words formed from 20 texts. O'Keeffe, et al. (2007) consider any corpus below five million words as small (ibid.:4), and certainly, when comparing it to other corpora such as the British National Corpus (BNC) – a 100-million-word collection of samples, this corpus is indeed small. Yet, an additional measure of size should be considered, that of 'linguistic influence' (ibid.) or the size of the audience of the texts comprising the corpus. Since this corpus is based on online news articles, which tend to be freely accessible to a vast number of national and international readers, as the aforementioned Daily Mail stats affirm, this corpus can, therefore, be considered substantial in size.

Consequently, the corpus was built by searching each of the newspapers' online archives between the dates of 16 to 22 June 2016, using the search terms 'EU immigration'. So as to avoid any subjective selection and to present a systematic analysis, rather than presenting a covert polemic, all the articles containing 'EU immigration' in the titles only were chosen, instead of 'cherry-picking' the texts which could be seen as proving a preconceived point (Baker & McEnery 2015:5).

In order to make the corpus manageable, articles that contained 'EU immigration' in the body but not in title were discarded. The timeframe of the week immediately prior to the referendum was selected based on the thinking that news coverage would be at its peak during this time, and would potentially yield greater contributions and ultimately clearer findings concerning the topic of EU immigration with which to answer the question posed by this study.

Data Analysis of the Corpus

The data was stored in plain text format, comprising a single corpus of 20 separate files or sub-corpus consisting of 20064 words in total. By using the developed version of AntConc 3.4.4m (Macintosh OSX)2014 and referring to the work of Baker (2006), the analysis of the news discourse has been carried out to explore frequency, concordances and collocates.

Frequency

Frequency is one of the most basic tools of the corpus linguistics. It is used to illuminate interesting findings and provide users with greater understanding of the use of a given word in certain contexts (Baker, 2006:47) In this study, frequency analysis was used to investigate whether there was any variation in the news discourse or it was comparatively homogenous, whilst bearing in mind the different political orientations of each newspaper that comprised the data.

Although many corpus studies discard individual words as units of meaning, and instead investigate them as a part of phrasal units, words are still a good starting point, since 'the more frequent a word is, the more important it is to investigate' (Stubbs, 2004:115-116). This was achieved by obtaining the Word List or a list of all tokens and types, alongside their rank and frequency in the corpus. The initial results show that the corpus consists of 20064 tokens and 3099 types. However, this raw frequency list reveals that the most frequent words in the corpus are 'functional words' - pronouns and determiners, rather than 'content words'- nouns, adjectives or verbs (Baker 2006:53). Usually, functional words are not subject to any further analysis. However, the abbreviation 'EU' (rank:9, frequency: 217) and the content word 'immigration' (rank:12, frequency:165) appeared amongst the highest frequent words in the list shown in table 2 below.

Table 2. List of raw frequency

Rank	Freq	Word
1	1299	the
2	661	to
3	528	of
4	453	in
5	432	and
6	395	a
7	311	that
8	281	is
9	217	eu
10	209	for
11	174	it
12	165	immigration
13	164	on
14	159	from
15	157	are
16	148	we

By clicking on 'Lemmas Word Form(s)' heading to the right of the word list in Table 2, other 'lexical lemmatized forms' that are directly connected to immigration were obtained. Lemmatized forms are defined as 'a set of lexical forms having the same stem and belonging to the same major word class' (Baker 2006:55). These included:

- migration (frequency:83)

- immigrant (frequency: 9)
  immigrants (frequency: 53)

- migrant (frequency: 8)
  migrants (frequency:54)

The high frequency of the abbreviation 'EU', 'immigration' and its lemmatized forms helps to give us a clearer idea about the main focus of the data.

A further consideration of the analysis was 'clusters'. The study of clusters can be understood as 'considering frequency beyond a single word' (Baker, 2006:56). As such, it is useful to obtain a general sense of the portrayal of EU immigration in each of the newspaper texts. This was obtained by using the word list to search for 'immigration' in six-word clusters, as three or two word-clusters did not give any clear idea about the most common patterns in the corpus. The results showed that most clusters occurred with nearly the same frequency. Strikingly, one specific cluster that contains identical words and concentrated on exactly the same idea was common to all three newspapers:

The Daily Mail (3 occurrences)

- immigration to the tens of thousands annually
- immigration to the tens of thousands and
- immigration to the tens of thousands, which

The Guardian (3 occurrences)

- immigration to the tens of thousands of
- immigration to the tens of thousands, which
- immigration to tens of thousands would

The BBC (1 occurrence)

- immigration to tens of thousands featured

Such identical clusters appear to suggest that the number of EU immigrants who have entered or may enter the UK was the one of the main concerns prior the vote. Moreover, other clusters and their repeat occurrences were likewise suggestive of the general attitude of each newspaper. For example, in the Daily Mail clusters such as: 'immigration system is a social disaster', 'immigration, alongside the threat of Islamic terror', 'immigration and the migration crisis' were found. While the BBC: 'immigration threat or opportunity?', and the Guardian: 'immigration should be controlled', 'immigration has hijacked the debate', 'immigration. People are scared'.

As it can be seen, immigration was evaluated negatively in those newspapers, although the negative evaluation tends to be more intensive in the Daily Mail in comparison to the other two newspapers. As such, readers are presented with the disadvantages of immigration and encouraged to make negative associations, especially were the word 'immigration' is clustered with words and phrases such as 'Islamic terror', 'crisis', 'threat', rather than say 'much-needed workforce', which actually does not appear in the corpus at all. Admittedly, the BBC appears to be more balanced by questioning whether immigration is 'threat or opportunity'.

The final stage in frequency analysis involves carrying out a dispersion plot. This provides visual representations of where 'immigration' is located in each text and, in turn, it allows us to compare the occurrences across multiple texts (Baker, 2006:60.). 'Immigration' occurs

'This pointed to the possibility that the Daily Mail had used the repetition as a technique to reinforce the notion that there was no possible way to reduce the immigration number without actually leaving the EU'

at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of most texts. The most occurrences appeared throughout the Daily Mail text of 20 June with 29 occurrences, whilst it was only mentioned once in the middle of the Guardian text of 22 June, even though the article was published one day before the referendum. This pointed to the possibility that the Daily Mail had used the repetition as a technique to reinforce the notion that there was no possible way to reduce the immigration number without actually leaving the EU. This was then verified using the 'View File' feature to extract corresponding sentences from the Daily Mail text of 20 June, such as:

You may be surprised to read that I believe the Prime Minister has done everything in his power to control immigration. The problem is that as the leader of an EU member state, he does not have enough power to control immigration.

On many occasions, in public and private, I heard David Cameron set out his belief that precisely to protect this proud British heritage of welcoming people to our shores, immigration had to be controlled.

Concordances

Concordances are central to a corpus-based approach (McEnery & Hardie, 2012:1). They are useful in conducting more qualitative forms of analysis than simply looking at frequent words/phrases (Baker, 2006:77) A concordance analysis is the most effective technique with which to carry out a close examination of the key words in the corpus (ibid.:71).

By using the concordance function, concordance lines of the search word obtained. Each line contains the search word alongside a number of context words which appear on either side of it in a word string. With the hope of obtaining different sorts of results, the separate searches were carried out for 'EU' in the Daily Mail, then the BBC, and finally the Guardian. By looking at the two words/phrases occurring to the left of ‘EU’ in the 224 concordance lines, the results were as following:

The Daily Mail:

- number of EU
- Colchester, 77,000 EU
- as 270,000 EU
- were 178,000 EU
- at 188,000 EU
- three million EU
- two million EU

The BBC:

- at 188,000 EU
- three million EU
- number of EU
- figure for EU

The Guardian:

- number of EU

Predictably, the main focus of most articles is still on the number of immigrants that clusters analysis showed previously. This gives further indication that the number of EU immigrants was the main source of concern of all the articles. Furthermore, concordances give a deeper insight into how immigrants were measured, with the exact numbers in most cases, in an attempt to provoke alarm over their growing number.

AntConc has a function called ‘wildcard’ which enables searching more than one word at a time (Baker, 2006:75). For example, when adding an asterisk symbol (*) at the beginning or at the end of ‘migrate’, one can retrieve words such as migrants, migrant, migration etc. As for this analysis, * migrate and migrate* were fed into the search bar separately. Examples of concordance lines taken from the Daily Mail text of 22 June are as follows:

We control our OWN immigration: ***Soaring*** *migrant numbers but independent Norway say*

of independence saying it can cope with its ***soaring*** *migration and run its own industries*

when the situation is safer. It has seen ***soaring*** *migration it is a member of the European*

Nevertheless, in order to understand the effectiveness of such concordances in news discourse analysis, it is essential to understand the ‘semantic prosody’ they reveal. ‘Semantic prosody’ is a term used by Louw (1993) to mean a word that tends to collocate with certain other words, phrases or constructions in a particular environment, in a way that they render specific connotative and attitudinal meanings. Stubbs (1995) gives an example of the word ‘cause’ which tends to collocates with ‘accident’, ‘cancer’ and so on, and therefore is associated with negative semantic prosody. While ‘provide’ tends to collocate with ‘food’, ‘help’ and ‘support’, and is thus associated with positive semantic prosody (O’Keeffe, et al. 2007:14-15).

Accordingly, the concordance lines of this corpus reveal that ‘immigration’ and its lemmatized forms co-occurred repeatedly with certain words and phrases, to give negative sematic prosody. They include:

- ‘migrant crisis’
- ‘wave of immigration’ and ‘flood of immigrants’
- ‘soaring immigrant number’, ‘load of migrants’ and ‘increasing number of migrants’ ‘migrant influx’ and ‘queues of immigrants’
- ‘EU immigrants were convicted of 700 crimes a week’
- ‘undesirable migrants’ and ‘anti-immigrant’
- ‘swarm of immigrants’ and ‘jungle, the migrant camp’

On the other hand, ‘skilled immigrants’ was found in the Guardian text of 20 June, which is an instance of positive sematic prosody, referring to EU immigrants through their contributions to the British society. However, the overarching context negates such positivity, and generates negative prosody overall, as shown in the extract below:

Not that the thorny issue of immigration was one that Cox ever sought to dodge. As recently as last week, she wrote a piece for the website Politics Home arguing that Britain had reaped many benefits from welcoming skilled immigrants. But she also acknowledged that, across the country, people faced everyday worries about job security, school places and GP appointments.

Collocates

Baker (2006) distinguishes between collocates – ‘when a word regularly appears near another word, and the relationship is statistically significant in some way’; and collocation – ‘the phenomena of certain words frequently occurring next to or near each other’ (ibid.95-96). Collocation was touched on in the previous section when discussing concordances. However, in the present discussion, this corpus study shall focus primarily on collocates. Echoing Allen & Blinder (2016), the collocates analysis focuses on verbs and modifiers that closely associate with ‘immigration’. As Allen & Blinder (2016) explain, ‘modifiers are words that describe, characterize or intensify something’ (ibid.:7).

On AntConc, one can set 'collocates span' which determines how many words to the left or to the right of the search word to look at. For this analysis, it was set to one word to the left and then two words to the left. That made it possible to find phrasal verbs which could collocate with 'immigration'. AntConc also has a statistical measure which calculates how strong or weak a word collocates with the search word. The search was sorted by 'Stat', the collocation strength measure, that is based on 'Mutual Information' (MI), and the results show that 'Cut' and 'Control' are the strongest collocates associated with 'immigration' while 'future' and 'reducing' are the strongest collocates modifying 'immigration' in the whole corpus, as shown in table 5.

Looking down the list, one can see that most of the collocates tend to produce negative semantic prosody, apart from a few exceptions such as 'defended immigration' and 'fairer immigration'.

In order to explore any possible day-to-day variation, a detailed analysis was carried out to search for all the verbs and modifiers which collocate with 'immigration', as they occurred in every article published on each day of the week immediately prior to the EU referendum. The findings were very interesting, revealing that the Daily Mail tended to use collocates every day, but intensified such use just three days prior to the date of referendum, most of which conveyed negative evaluation. The Guardian published an article on 22 June, containing no collocates, aside from functional words which have not been subject of any analysis. The BBC, on the other hand, seemed to present more balanced arguments over the week, given that some of the occurring collocates were neutral-evaluative verbs such as 'comment on immigration', 'know about immigration' 'debate about immigration' and 'focus on immigration' (see Table 6).

Table 5. The strongest collocates associated with 'immigration'

Rank	Freq	Freq(L)	Freq(R)	Stat	Collocate
1	17	17	0	9.28823	about
2	4	4	0	9.20076	cut
3	2	2	0	8.20076	his
4	2	2	0	8.20076	future
5	11	11	0	8.07523	control
6	3	3	0	7.78572	reducing
7	3	3	0	7.78572	mass
8	1	1	0	7.20076	wider

Table 6. Collocates occurred in each article over the week

	The BBC		The Daily Mail		The Guardian	
Days	Verbs	Adjectives	Verbs	Adjectives	Verbs	Adjectives
16 June	Control end	fairer	Covered Could cut Decline in	Net	Control	Pro-
17 June	No article	-	Want lower Fuelled by Increase	-	No article	
18 June	Control Debate about	-	Control Cut Solve	More Net	Control	Pro -
19 June	Worry about Comment on	Reducing	Push Increase Comment on Focus on	Mass Increasing	Debate on Relate	wider
20 June	Control Defended	Controlling	Meet Control Solve Curb Bring down Decline in	Broken Net High	Control Talk about Increase Think	Low Public
21 June	Lower Control	Mass	Cut Rise in Control Relate increase	Controlling Reducing Mass high	Control Focus on Know about	Controlling
22 June	Control	Mass Controlling	Reduce end Cut Lower Clamp down limit Fuelled by	Mass Net Tough Firm Reducing Soaring		

Final Analysis

The use of techniques associated with CL in carrying out DA is becoming increasingly popular (Baker, et al. 2008:275). DA is well-defined as the observations of the language patterns in use, as well as the context and circumstances associated with it, such as participants, situations, purposes and outcomes. Accordingly, discourse analysts tend to notice patterns systematically and to objectively produce, as far as possible, description, interpretations, explanations of their investigations (Trappes-Lomax, 2004:133). The effectiveness of the synergy between CL and DA has been summed-up by Partington (2003), who explains that: 'it helps to reveal examples of the phenomena that one has already noted. At the other extreme, it reveals patterns of use previously un-thought of. It can reinforce, refute or revise a researcher's intuition and show them why and how much their suspicions were grounded' (as cited in Baker, et al. 2008:285).

As for this study, the overall impression was that a negative portrayal of EU immigration is common to all three news sites – the Daily Mail, the Guardian and the BBC News. Immigrants were frequently quantified and referred to in terms of numbers, which has a rather dehumanising effect. Even the Guardian, which is seen as being a liberal broadsheet reflective of left-wing public opinion, tended to portray immigrants in this manner.

This study likewise found there to be a marked tendency towards immigrants being reported using metaphors of racist discourse. For instance, words such as 'jungle' were used to describe immigration camps, and immigrants themselves were referred to as a 'swarm' - words usually associated with animals and insects. Van Dijk (1987) identifies four classes of topics within the racist discourse, and one of these can be observed in the news coverage which reported that immigrants are involved in negative acts that threatens the British society: 'EU immigrants were convicted in 700 crimes a week' (as cited in Baker 2006:88)

As for 'wave of immigrants' and 'flood of immigrants', Van der Valk (2000) believes such metaphors symbolize the loss of control over immigration (as cited in Baker & Gabrielatos, 2008:15), and thus they can be seen to infer that the only way to control the process is to leave the EU. Other representations refer to the EU immigrants as 'queues' or 'influx', essentially, indistinguishable masses with no identity (Baker, 2006: 88). They are also labelled as 'undesired' and appear alongside words such as 'crisis', in a way that dehumanizes them (Baker et al. 2008:287).

Given these findings, it is worth considering how such negative representations of EU immigration in the press might actually translate into British public opinion.

It is repeatedly quoted that media plays an essential role in our lives. The availability and popularity of social media and online news websites mean that press articles can be easily shared, reaching an enormous number of people. However, despite such wide availability, ordinary people generally have no direct effect on news content and they are not the major actors of news reports, rather this is the domain of the 'elite' such as journalists, scholars, writers and politicians, who have access to public discourses and communicative events (Van Dijk, 1995:12). According to Baker & Gabrielatos (2008), these elites exercise their power by selection, acceptance or rejection of news content according to their agenda (ibid.:9). Consequently, they play an essential role in the reproduction of dominant knowledge and ideologies in society (Van Dijk, 1993). However, newspapers also seek financial interests through sales, which are based on market forces. Therefore, they tend to report issues within the readers' concerns and aim to reflect their views. Readers usually pick up the newspapers that are in accordance with their perceptions and attitudes. Rejection, disbelief or criticism may be obstacles to the elites' access to the minds of the public through media (Van Dijk, 1995:13). For that reason, media tends to employ 'us and them' ideology, which Van Dijk (2006) refers to as 'an ideological square' which focuses on the representations of two groups: ingroup's positive evaluation and outgroup's negative evaluations, emphasising 'our good things' and 'their bad things' and de-emphasising 'our bad things' and 'their good things' (ibid.:734).

This model clearly demonstrates that media discourse has the ability to exert influence over the opinions and actions of its readership, who construct mental representations of the information they digest from new stories. In turn, these representations are influenced by what Van Dijk (1995) terms 'socially shared knowledge' (ibid.:14) or knowledge composed of prevailing beliefs and attitudes shared by the readers' social networks. When encountering news items, readers make use of this shared knowledge along with their own mental constructions in order to digest and make sense of what they are reading. Accordingly, Van Dijk observes that the media has a tendency to manipulate the structure of new items and their content so as to encourage particular mental representations and understandings among their readership.

Such manipulation might involve playing down or playing up the significance of certain information or individuals, giving greater or less coverage to particular people or particular topics, and of course deciding who or what makes it into the headlines.

Conclusion

Although CL helps to enable an understanding of complex and often ambiguous media representations (Baker & Gabrielatos, 2008:33), it is not without its criticism. Whilst it employs computers to objectively count and reveal linguistic patterns, human input is still necessary to interpret those patterns. Such interpretations have the potential to be biased and subjective (Baker, et al. 2008:275), especially since analysis of CL tends to focus on specific words or phrases and disregard their context (ibid.:279), which can give a distorted image of the truth.

Analysing the corpus of this study has not been conducted without limitations. The analysis is based on searching for certain content words and ignored functional words such as 'they', 'it' and 'this' that were repeatedly used to refer to immigrants and immigration. Expanding the search to include these pronouns and determiners may produce additional supportive findings or provide completely different results (Baker, 2006:90). Moreover, unlike many other programs such as WordSmith, AntConc is lacking some tools that produce more thorough analysis. For example, it does not provide 'type/token ratio', which is useful in showing the complexity or specificity of corpus (ibid.:52). Also, it does not have a frequency percentage column, which gives the overall proportion of how a particular word contributes to the whole corpus. Finally, due to the small size of the corpus, the frequency and concordances of most key words/phrases were very low.

References

Allan & Blinder (2016) *'Report: A Decade of Immigration in the British Press'* Immigration Observatory of Oxford University, pp. 1-34, available on http://www.migrationobservatory.ox.ac.uk/resources/reports/decade-immigration-british-press

Baker, P. (2006). '*Using corpora in discourse analysis'.* London: Continuum.

Baker, P, Gabrielatos, C. (2008) *'Fleeing, Sneaking, Flooding: A Corpus Analysis of Discursive Constructions of Refugees and Asylum Seekers in the UK Press, 1996-2005'* Journal of English Linguistics, vol. 36 no. 1, pp.5-38.

Baker, P, Gabrielatos, C., Khosravinik, M., Krzyzanowski, M., McEnery, T. & Wodak, R. (2008) '*A useful methodological synergy?*

Combining Critical Discourse Analysis and Corpus Linguistics to Examine Discourses of Refugees and Asylum Seekers in the UK' Discourse & Society, Vol. 19, No. 3, pp. 273-306. Sage Publications, Ltd. Stable URL: http://www.jstor.org/stable/42889197 Accessed: 05-04-2017 20:49 UTC

Baker, P. and McEnery, T. (Eds.) (2015) The introduction in *'Corpora and discourse studies: integrating discourse and corpora'*. London: Routledge,

Biber, D., Conrad, S. and Reppen, R. (1998) the introduction in *'Corpus linguistics: Investigating language structure and use'*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 1-12

Hunt, A. & Wheeler, B. (2017) *'Brexit: All you need to know about the UK leaving the EU'* Online, London: BBC. available on: http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-politics-32810887

McEnery, T. and Hardie, A. (2012) the introduction in *'Corpus linguistics'*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 1-19.

O'Keeffe, A., McCarthy, M. and Carter, R. (2007) *'From corpus to classroom: Language use and language teaching'*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Semotam, J. (2012) *'Public Perception of A8 Migrants: The Discourse of Media and Its Impact'*, An Outline Review by BEMIS, University of Glasgow, pp. 1-22, available on http://www.gla.ac.uk/media/media_222201_en.pdf

Sinclair, J. (2005). 'Corpus and text: Basic principles'. In M. Wynne (Ed.) *'Developing linguistic corpora: a guide to good practice'*, Oxford: Oxbow books, online version on http://ota.ox.ac.uk/documents/creating/dlc/index.htm

Stubbs, M. (2004) 'Language Corpora' in Davies, I& Elder, C. (Eds.) (2004) *'The Hand Book of Applied Linguistics'* Blackwell Publishing, pp. 106-132

The Statistics Portal available on https://www.statista.com/statistics/246077/reach-of-selected-national-newspapers-in-the-uk

Trappes-Lomax (2004) *'Discourse Analysis'* in Davies, I& Elder, C. (Eds.) (2004) 'The Hand Book of Applied Linguistics' Blackwell Publishing, pp. 133-164

Van Dijk, T. A. (1995) *'Power and the News Media'* (online). In D. Paletz (Ed) *'Political Communication and Action'*. Cresskill NJ: Hampton Press, pp. 9-36. Available on http://www.discourses.org/OldArticles/Power%20and%20the%20news%20media.p\df

Van Dijk, T. A. (2006) *'Politics, Ideology and Discourse'* e-book available on http://www.discourses.org/OldArticles/Politics,%20Ideology%20and%20Discourse.pdf

Vargas-Silva, C. & Amarkaki, Y. (2016) *'Briefing: EU Migration to and from the UK'* Immigration Observatory of Oxford University, pp. 1-10, available on http://www.migrationobservatory.ox.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Briefing-EU_Migration_UK.pdf

Vessey, R. (2015) *'Corpus Approaches to Language Ideology'* Applied Linguistics: Oxford University Press, pp.1-21, doi:10.1093/applin/amv023

YouGov survey (2017) *'How left of right-wing are the UK Newspapers'* available on https://yougov.co.uk/news/2017/03/07/how-left-or-right-wing-are-uks-newspapers/

Classification of English loanwords in business Spanish

Olga S. Beletskaya

The article deals with the phenomenon of linguistic borrowings from English words and phrases into Spanish business language. The author intends to provide a generalised classification of loanwords supported up by examples from Spanish business media. The aim of the article is to identify different groups of loanwords depending on the degree of their assimilation into Spanish, and to analyse their role in Spanish economic discourse, as well as describing some schemes of incorporation and, having done this, to examine this phenomenon in practice by exploring the use of some of the loanwords in the Spanish business press. The article also focuses on the link between globalisation and the spread of Anglicisms in the economic and computer technological terms used in the Spanish language.The purpose of this work is also to study the nature of the loan proces, and its significance in the field of translation.

KEYWORDS: *Linguistic borrowing, loanwords, neologisms, Anglicisms, Spanglish, assimilation, xenismes, calques, false loans, business discourse.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Languages are dynamic, which means they change and grow continuously. Language borrowings are a clear evidence of this change. Linguists acknowledge that change is one of the most important demonstrations of the vitality of a language because it proves its evolution and specific features, as well as the state of its technical, cultural and emotional development. Nowadays, the English language is the main linguistic donor worldwide and Spanish is one of the recipients of this generosity.

The influence of the English language on Spanish, as in many other languages, is profound because English is a global language today and influences the lexicon of international business and economics, scientific and technical discourse and dominates international communication across the world. No doubt it will continue to do so for some time to come. Business language is a good example of this influence, proving that English has become the working linguistic tool of the business world. Consequently, Business Spanish has become one of the language areas where English borrowings are more apparent. It can be explained by the fact that, in early 2000, Spain managed to achieve a rapid increase in wealth among the countries of the euro zone. This influenced the birth of

'The RAE acts as a linguistic referee for the Spanish language, monitoring and updating standardised words and usages with some degree of regularity'

a new generation in the terrain of banking and finance who spoke fluent English and accomplished financial and technological leaps while aiming at expansion into global markets. Specialised Spanish associations, trying to regulate the use of foreign words in business Spanish, propose the use of Spanish equivalents, but Spanish specialists keep on using loan words more frequently than desired for practical reasons. These facts have resulted in the appearance of the linguistic phenomenon of borrowings and adaptations.

At the same time, such excessive usage of loanwords creates a range of problems because, unlike English, Spanish has an international language standard, regulated by the Real Academia Española (RAE), a legislative body with a remarkable status within the Spanish-speaking world. The RAE acts as a linguistic referee for the Spanish language, monitoring and updating standardised words and usages with some degree of regularity. Despite the efforts of translators to find equivalent translation in Spanish, in the areas of finance and business most of the neologisms are actually in English.

2. MATERIAL

For the present article, the theoretical research was based on previous studies of the subject, such as those by Newmark (1988), Baker (1992), Diéguez (2004) and by several Spanish translators such as Russo (2002) and Martínez de Sousa (2002), as well as linguists like Lázaro-Carreter (1988), García-Yebra (1984) and Alcaraz (2002). Another source is one of the basic works of Chriss Pratt, Anglicisms in the Spanish language, published in 1980. A number of issues of the Business Magazine "Emprendedores" were also studied in search of up-to –date examples.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

We can define the process of linguistic borrowing as the introduction of phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic items from one language or variety into another. Borrowing occurs when two languages are in contact. Usually we can observe so-called language contact between two speech communities close to each other geographically but nowadays, such contact does not depend on close geographic position. Our society has become media-based. Thus language change makes use of virtual space to affect the way language speakers use foreign terms in their speech or writing. In this linguistic interaction, the language providing the term is called donor, while the language acquiring the item is called receptor (Sirchel, 1998). So, we speak about the donor language, English, and the receptor, Spanish.

Although most linguists use the term borrowing to describe the incorporation of terms from one language into another, there are some Spanish linguists that consider borrowing an inappropriate term to descrribe a linguistic transaction in which the receptor language does not return the term to the donor language. F. Rodríguez in his book "Functions of Anglicisms in contemporary Spanish" suggested using terms like "foreign word" or "alienism" if we are referring to borrowings.

In spite of this inappropriate semantic connotation, borrowing seems to be the term most used in the literature to refer to this linguistic act. Borrowings from English have also been decribed as Anglicisms, neologisms, calque, and barbarisms. P. Sampedro defines Anglicisms as items taken from English without any modification, and specifies that calques appear when the term taken from the donor language is translated into the receptor language partially or totally (e.g. lista de correo – mailing list) (Sampedro, 2000).

Neologisms are those lexical or semantic items created to name new inventions or concepts (e.g. fax, módem, aplicación).

Barbarisms are those foreign items written or pronounced inappropriately by speakers of the receptor language in their attempts to incorporate them into their language (e.g. savear). However, barbarisms can be replaced by translations that have already been proposed as "correct usage" for the foreign items.

The difference in terminology is reflected in the first classification describing the form taken by foreign words adapted in Spanish. Giralt-Torre describes borrowings at the morphological, syntactic and lexical-semantic level (Giralt-Torre, 1991). Morphological Anglicisms are those borrowings adapting the morphological features of Spanish and eliminating the ones in the source language (e.g. clubes), syntactic adaptations copy the word order, mode or aspect used in the source language, English (e.g. López Editores). Lexical-semantic borrowings are said to be the most frequent ones and consist of vocabulary items adopted in sense or form by the receptor language (e.g. correo-electronico).

'In Spain, towards the end of the 20th century, several linguists studied the phenomenon of Anglicisms in peninsular Spanish'

Montes in his paper "Predeterminación y otros aspectos actuales del anglicismo" presents categories like complete lexical borrowing, translation, semantic transfer or calque, morphosyntactic transfer and phonological transfer (Montes, 1993). The complete lexical borrowing reflects the adoption of the term in form and sense (e.g., internet), the "translation" provides a term that imitates the source word in form and keeps the sense (e.g. computadora), calque refers to the semantic adoption of a term (e.g., aplicación), morphosyntactic transfer consists of copying the syntax or morphology of the source language (e.g. el correo es enviado – se envía el correo), and the phonological transfer copies the pronunciation of the foreign word (e.g. pc - /pi –si/).

The most famous Spanish lexicographer Maria Moliner (best known for her *Diccionario de uso del español ("Dictionary of Spanish Language Usage ")*, first published in 1966–1967) gives the following definition for anglicism: *"Anglicism is an English word or expression used in another language"*, and a bit more specific such as those offered by the DRAE (Dictionary of Royal Academy of Spanish Language) meanings: *"1. manner of speaking in English. 2 own language. m. Word or turn of the language used in other language. 3. m. Using English words or expressions in different languages"*

In Spain, towards the end of the 20th century, several linguists studied the phenomenon of Anglicisms in peninsular Spanish. The pioneer in this field was Lorenzo Criado who published several pieces of research on the topic in the 1950s and continued doing so until the end of the 20th century (1996, 1999). Another significant figure is Chris Pratt who took the decisive step towards undrstanding the modern concept of Anglicisms when he published his innovative and work in the 1980s, he shared many of Lorenzo's views and, like him, concentrated mainly on lexical Anglicisms establishing a solid categorization of English borrowings. The definition of Chris Pratt is "an Anglicism is a linguistic element or group thereof which is used in the peninsular Castilian contemporary and whose etymon has an English model".

Within the specific studies on the issue, Howard Stone brings us to the diachronic aspect of incorporation of Anglicisms in Spanish language through the following definition: "I have considered Anglicisms words used in its English form or derived from English; words that came from other languages into English, and this, in Spanish; or English to Spanish through French; terms and words created by English-speaking people and introduced into Spanish; uniquely Latin words used in an English meaning (semantic loans or contamination); and translations of tropes, complex and English idioms." (H.Stone, 1957)

Spanish linguist Emilio Lorenzo in his book: «Anglicismos en la prensa" ("Anglicisms in mass media") follows the linguistic criteria in order to make the classification, and he examines Anglicisms by their degree of integration into Spanish:

1 – *anglicismos crudos* (crudes Anglicisms, non-adapted) – the borrowing of English words which keep their original orthography and pronunciation, e.x. baby –sitter, sandwich, club, shorts

2 – *anglicismos en period de aclimatacion* (adjusted, adapted Anglicisms) – the borrowing of English words which have been adapted to the Spanish language either in their orthography, or in their pronunciation. E.x. boxer, futbol, filme, folclore

3 – *anglicismos totalmente asimilados* (fully integrated Anglicisms) - borrowing of English words which have been fully integrated into the Spanish language, e.x. turista, rosbif, sueter

4 – *calcos* (calques) – literal translations from English of concepts unknown to the Spanish speaker, e.x. relaciones publicas, rascacielos (skyscraper), perrito caliente (hot dog)

5 – *semantic calques* – Spanish words that due to their close similarity with a corresponding English word receive a semantic meaning that they didn't have before. E.x. romance (amorios) from 'romance', habilidad (competencia) from "ability", heroe (protagonista) from "hero".

6 – false Anglicisms: do not exist as such in the English language. There is an alteration from the original English form. Thus, nouns like *parking* are used in Spanish for *parking lot* or the mingling of a Spanish etyma with an English suffix, as can be seen in *puenting*, from puente 'bridge' plus the -ing suffix, to designate the activity of jumping from a bridge as in bungee jumping.

7 – acronyms and abbreviations.
Examples: B2B – Business to Business; CFO- Chief Financial Officer; CMO- Chief Marketing Officer; GAAP- Generally Accepted Accounting Principles; LLC – Limited Liability Company; SOHO – Small Office / Home Office

Chris Pratt in his book “El anglicismo en el espanol peninsular” (1980) - one of the most important works referring to the Anglicisms - distinguishes between “the last etyma” and “the immediate etyma”. He explains that the last etyma is the one that originally supplies a language; for example, in the case of the Spanish language, the Anglicisms have been adapted from the English language, but at the same time English has taken voices from other languages. Instead, the immediate etyma refers to the language that supplies the borrowing directly to the other language. Chris Pratt writes that sometimes the linguistic facts are not enough to determine an etyma, so the external explanation is the answer to the source of borrowings. According to him, “lexical Anglicisms are subdivided in univerbal lexical Anglicisms, and at the same time these Anglicisms are subdivided into patent Anglicisms which are those that are formed by just one word and the patent can be distinguished; and into non-patent Anglicisms which are divided in two groups”. These are:

Traditional voices or semantic calques which consider the Anglicism as a translation of the English term without any etymological relationship between the English voice and its Spanish translation; for example, channel. Then, the author cites neological voices or absolute neologisms that are compound structures which have suffered a minimum orthographic adaptation according to the Spanish language.

Finally, lexical Anglicisms are subdivided into: multiverbal lexical Anglicisms, which could be: bi-substantive compound Anglicisms; and univerbal bi-substantive Anglicisms.

1) Multiverbal: Anglicisms formed by more than one word.

They can be divided into a) complex bi-noun : razcacielos (skyscraper), momento clave (key moment), coche bomba (car bomb), hora punta (rash hour); fecha limite (limit date), etc; b) composed by colocations : Verb + noun (lanzacohetes), noun + adjective (aire aconditionado), adjective + noun (proximo oriente – Middle East), constructions with prepositions “de”, “en” (campo de concentacion - concentration camp).

2) Univerbal: a) evident Anglicisms: loan word without any change (ranking, Hippy, sidecar) or adapted to Spanish (boicot,

boxear, travelin); b) non-evident: (agenda, agresivo instead of "activo", dramatico instead of "sensacional")

STUDY AND RESULTS

Let's have a look at the practical analysis of the Anglicisms in the Spanish economic press. Different types of economic loan terms are described, and the reasons of their usage are named.

The influence of Anglicisms in the Spanish language has been noted at the end of XX century, and has become more popular in the daily conversations. Anglicisms are used in different areas, such as politics, film, gastronomy, education, sports, music, fashion, and entertainment. For example, in politics, there is a word *lobby* (a group which tries to influence legislation and policy decisions), NAFTA (North Atlantic Free Trade Area), mitin (from meeting). In film, there are the Anglicisms like *casting* (selection process for the actors in a film or art work), *remake* (updated version of a movie), and *western* (movie set in the American West at the time of colonization). In gastronomy, *rosbif* (comes from roast beef), *texmex* (a fusion of Texan and Mexican food), *fast food* (pre-cooked food prepared quickly), *snack* (small quick bite to eat outside), *picnic* (outdoor meal), *pudding* (English dessert made from flour, milk, eggs, and fruit), etc. In education, *coaching, test* (exam), *mid-term* (the middle of an academic year), *campus* (the area where the buildings of a school or college are located). In sports, *basket* (from basketball), *penalty* (punishment imposed for breaking team rules), etc. In music, *DJ, folk music* (traditional music), *New Age* (Electronic music style that causes peace and quiet), and *heavy metal* (hard rock music with a rhythm that is played with very high amplification). In fashion, there are Anglicisms such as *top model*. In entertainment, guest start, *performance* (presentation or public display in theater, film, or music), *late show* (entertainment TV shows or movies usually beginning after midnight).

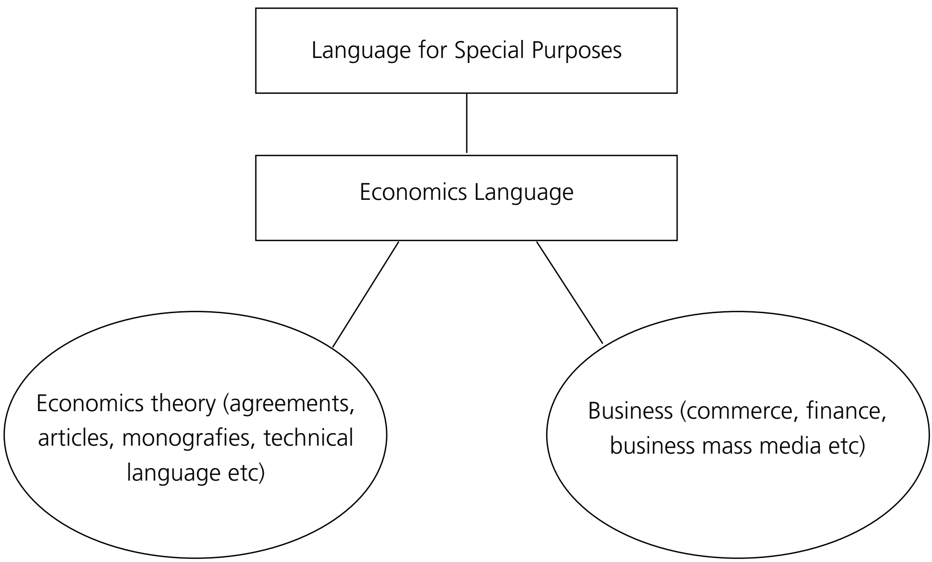
Concentrating more in the Anglicisms which are present in the modern Business

'In the 1980s Spain joins international organisations such as CEE, NATO making the country more influenced by external cultures'

Spanish, we can observe the massive appearance of the economic terms loaned from English at the end of XX and the beginning of the XXI c. It's impossible to analyze this phenomenon without telling some words about the sociocultural factors. In the 1970s (late epoque of Franquismo) Spain starts to collaborate with the USA. New processes of industrialization imported from the USA start, the new medium class appears. Speaking about terrain of Education, we can state the appearance of ESP (English for Special Purposes). In the 1980s Spain joins international organisations such as CEE, NATO makinf the country more influenced by external cultures. And, finally, 1990s show us the democratic freedom and process of globalization with the market economy ahead.

All this has been reflected in the Spanish language. In the 1980s – beginning of the consumerism – such Anglicisms became popular: *supermarket, second hand, self-service*. Such events as Olympic Games at Barcelona and International Exposition at Sevilla in 1992 gave Spain prestigious international dimension and recognition. At the same time, English began to "invade" Spain after the technological revolution represented by the Internet.

Speaking about Spanish Business language, I would like to give some of its characteristics.



The language of economics serves many diverse purposes. It provides the members of an economic community - customers, investors or bankers - with the tools needed to discuss various business issues. Moreover, this sublanguage is not only used by specialists who belong to a restricted and linguistically homogeneous group, since we all take part in economic relations in direct and indirect ways.

That's why it can be said that the language of economics is closely related to general language use. This feature is also stressed by Katamba in his work "English Words: Structure, History, Usage", who states that sometimes the jargon of a specialist group seeps into the common language of the wider community. This is particularly likely to happen where the activities of that sub-group are fashionable or impinge directly on the life of the wider community. (F.Katamba, 2004).

We should remember that goods, techniques or fashions, although very important in intercultural exchange, do not govern the structure of these cultures. It is the language itself which influences not only other tongues but also the way a given populace speaks. The most remarkable sources of these influences are loanwords. That's why so many loanwords appear in the language of economics, which is determined by intercultural contacts as well as by inner communication within a given community.

Also, Spanish Business language is characterized by abbreviations, creation of new terms, neologisms, Anglicisms, impersonal constructions. The following features accompany Business Spanish:

a) Business Spanish avoids polysemy (multiple meanings of one word) as it can create the problems of translation. It's a denotative language; b) In general, the expression is neutral, there are no metaphors, it's a functional language; c) No subjunctive mood is used; d) There are a lot of impersonal constructions; e) Normally a lot of verbs such as: *ser, estar, haber, existir, darse, esperar, exigir,* etc. are used.

Consequently, economic Anglicism is an economic term which comes directly from English .

The following terms were attested in the DRAE (Dictionary of Royal Academy of Spanish Language):

- boicot, devaluacion, planta (from "plant") in 1970

-auditar, balance, bluff, boom, brainstorming, centro comercial, centro editorial, centro industrial, clearing, consultoría, dumping, ejecutivo, establishment, especulaciones, especular, holding, leasing, marketing, máster, staff, stock, trust, truste in 1984

'One of the best-known loan areas is the phenomenon we refer to as a xenisme, a term given for those borrowings that are incorporated into the target language by means of no phonological or morphological transformation'

- analista, consumismo, corporación, crack, deflación, devaluar, inc., lobby, marketing, merchandising, self-made man in 1992;

- crac, deflactar, taylorismo, cheque, dólar en 2001.

In the area of economics and finance, such types of borrowings as *necessary neologisms* and *luxury neologisms* can be found, depending on the reasons for their incorporation. Necessary neologisms are installed in the language out of a need for a new word which has no correspondent in the target language, as it is the case of *joint venture* or *dumping*. This term have to be glossed and explained in Spanish, there is no easy translation for it; luxury neologisms are incorporated for prestige reasons, as – in the area of economics, for example– it is the case of *cash flow, hedge fund* and *call money*, all of which have an equivalent in Spanish (*flujo de caja, fondo de cobertura o de inversión libre* and *dividendo pasivo*, respectively). The original term is considered more technical or influential.

In the specific case of economic discourse, the incorporation of new words is swift and immediate, even more than in other "loan-prone" areas like journalism or even politics, due to the ever-changing, neological character of this type of discourse. That's why, and due to the phenomenal influence of English as the language of international communication, as well as the exceptional mobility of the language of commerce, four types of Anglicisms can be defined in the area of business, the result of a loan process from the source language.

One of the best-known loan areas is the phenomenon we refer to as a *xenisme*, a term given for those borrowings that are incorporated into the target language by means of no phonological or morphological transformation. This occurrence is explained by Newmark in his work "A textbook of Translation": xenismes show the respect of translators towards the source language culture, but in some cases they may become unnecessary, as the translator's task is to translate and, therefore, to explain. (P.Hewmark, 1988). Examples of xenismes:

1. BOOM.;
2. CDS, CREDIT DEFAULT SWAPS;
3. CREDIT CRUNCH;
4. DEALER;
5. DUMPING;
6. GREEN SHOE;
7. INSIDER TRADING.

The next phenomenon is called *adapted loans* or *calques*. An adapted loan, or morphological calque, is a very usual phenomenon in Spanish in the world of business and economics, as for example with the words *suap* for swap, *reitin* for rating, *securitización* for securitization. It happens when xenismes are consolidated and made easier to use, an alien graphism has been transformed into a pronounceable one. Common collocations, names of organisations and the components of compounds like *salto del gato muerto* for dead cat's bounce, *FMI* for *IMF*, or *mercado oso* or *alcista*, for bear market, are examples of these.

After analyzing business articles, some examples on calques can be studied: emantic calques – a word or expression in one language whose semantic components are translations from another language:

Nouns: *Posición* (puesto de trabajo) > *position, firma* (empresa) > *firm, planta* (fabrica) > *plant, canal* (cadena) > *channel, editor* (director) > *editor, encuesta* (investigación) > *inquest, corporación* (empresa privada) > *corporation, bancarización* > *banking,* regularización > *regularization, sesión* (pase) > *session, sociedad* (gente conocida) > *society, tópico* (asunto, tema) > *topic*.

Verbs: *Posicionar* (colocar) > *to position, navegar* (guiar en Internet) > to *navigate, reportar* (depender de alguien) > *to report, asumir* (suponer) > *to assume, aplicar* (solicitar) > *to apply, rentar* (alquilar, arrender) > *to rent, contemplar* (tener en cuenta, considerar) > *to contemplate, explotar* (estallar) > *to explode, acceder* (tener acceso) > *to access, impactar* (influenciar) > *to impact, publicitar* (divulgar, anunciar) > *to publicise*.

Adjectives: *agresivo* (intenso, activo, dinamico) > *agressive, crucial* (decisivo) > *crucial, exclusivo* (especial, selecto) > *exclusive, serio* (importante) > serious, *sofisticado* (elaborado) > *sophisticated, tráfico* (tránsito) > *traffic, prospecto* (perspectivo, de futuro) > *prospective*.

Agenda: the original use in Spanish is "diario" ("dairy"). Nevertheless, this word is used in many articles with the meaning "order of the day" at the business meetings. This term was attested by DRAE as an incorporated loanword with both meanings.

Ex. En esa reunión, el jefe de la diplomacia chilena presentará a sus socios diversas iniciativas "para desarrollar una agenda de diálogo de la Alianza con los demás Estados de la región", anunció hoy la Cancillería.

Doméstico: This terms is widely used in collocations like "domestic flights", "domestic commerce", "domestic communications" ("vuelos domésticos", „comercio doméstico", „comunicaciones domesticas"). In such cases, they just follow English examples, though in English the adjective *"domestic"* refers to something related to the home, family, or internal issues of one country. In this case, it's better to translate the word *"domestic"* as nacional ("national") or interior ("interior").

Ex.: Según destacó el Banco Central en su informe de Cuentas Nacionales, se evidenció una "recomposición" entre ambos factores por una "desaceleración" del consumo doméstico.

Another examples of calques are :

1. BANCARROTA (BANKRUPTCY)
2. MERCADO BAJISTA (BEAR MARKET)
3. BURBUJA (BUBBLE)
4. MERCADO ALCISTA (BULL MARKET)
5. OPA, OFERTA PÚBLICA DE ADQUISICIÓN (IPO, INITIAL PUBLIC OFFERING)
6. OPV , OFERTA PÚBLICA DE VENTA (IPO, INITIAL PUBLIC OFFERING)
7. OPS, OFERTA PÚBLICA DE SUSCRIPCIÓN (IPO, INITIAL PUBLIC OFFERING)
8. LÍNEA DE CRÉDITO (LINE OF CREDIT)
9. ACTIVO TÓXICO (TOXIC ASSET)
10. (BONO/HIPOTECA) BASURA (JUNK BOND, MORTGAGE)

As a general rule, if the Anglicism conforms to the morphological standards of Spanish, the user may decide to translate it literally. In this particular case, we are facing the false transposition of a loanword, also known as a *false friend*. Semi-technical terms in both business Spanish and English are often cognate terms, with a common Latin origin and, in some cases, with totally different meanings in both languages.

This is a rather dangerous area in the translation of business English into Spanish. The difficulty with these words does not lie with the identification of equivalent business/linguistic phenomena, but rather with the misidentification of some words with formal similarity but conceptual difference. For such words, their Latin source would certainly convey an erroneous interpretation. In the area of false cognates we distinguish those words which are dangerous for the unwary speaker or translator, terms like guarantee (*aval*, not *garantía*), bonus (*retribución*, not *bono*) or corporation (*sociedad anónima*, not *corporación*), and numerous others, especially in the area of corporate and contract language, which have a similar morphology in both languages, but convey different meanings. Such terms pose problems for Spanish speakers with little proficiency in English, or those with knowledge of this language but little training in the specialized discourse at hand.

The last area to be identified is that of *false loans* is a phenomenon that happens occasionally, but relevantly, in Business Spanish, and needs to be identified as such by both the linguists and translators that move within the boundaries of business discourse in Spanish- English. Previously, xenismes were identified as loanwords from the source language, including words like broker for the Spanish *comisionista*, or dealer for *agente por cuenta propia*, where a minimum adaptation of graphetics or pronunciation takes place.

On the contrary, false loans are not really borrowings. False loans are a consequence of the status and prestige of an international language such as English. They consist of an erroneous assimilation in the target language of a term that does not exist as such in the source language, but has its morphological and phonetic origins in it as a lingua franca.

False loans are words commonly well settled in the target language, as their original or translation in Spanish has long been forgotten. In opposition to false friends, the false xenisme does not come from a paronym (a word derived from the same root as another word), or common root, of both languages, but its etymology belongs entirely to the source language. Indeed, terms like *leasing, trust* or *holding*, are used in the English version both in oral and written Spanish, both by specialists and non-professionals. Nevertheless, all of these terms have a common feature: the fact that they seldom reflect their true meaning in the source language.

I would like to give as an example the most frequent false loans terms

Some false loans and their correct translation to Spanish

False	**English origin**	**Correct**
loan	*actual*	translation
actual	*agenda*	real, efectivo
agenda	*(to) annotate*	orden del día
anotar	*(to) apply*	comentar
aplicar	*argument*	solicitar
argumento	*(to) assit*	discusión
asistir	*(to) assume*	ayudar
asumir	*advice*	suponer
aviso	*(to) boot*	consejo
botar	*qualification*	autoarrancar
calificación	*candid*	título
candido	*(to) capture*	franco
capturar	*(to) clarify*	captar

False	English origin	Correct
clarificar	*command*	aclarar
comando	*conference*	orden
conferencia	*(to)*	congreso
confrontar	*confrontation*	enfrentamiento
constricción	*constraint*	restricción
conveniente	*convenient*	oportuno
correctitud	*correctness*	corrección
cubrir	*cover*	informar
cuestión	*question*	pregunta
decepción	*deception*	engaño
(por) defecto	*(by) default*	por omisión
desorden	*disorder*	alteración
destinación	*destination*	destino
editor	*editor*	redactor jefe
enfatizar	*(to) emphasize*	recalcar
evento	*event*	suceso
evidencia	*evidence*	prueba
extravagante	*extravagant*	derrochador
falta	*fault*	defecto
fuente	*font*	tipo
gracioso	*gracious*	cortés
honesto	*honest*	honrado
ignorar	*(to) ignore*	no hacer caso
ilusión	*illusion*	irreal
instancia	*instance*	ejemplar
intentar	*(to) intend*	proponerse
largo	*large*	grande
lectura	*lecture*	conferencia
librería	*library*	biblioteca
localización	*location*	lugar
media	*media*	medios

It is important to remark that incorporations are, to a great extent, conditioned by discursive and contextual factors. Nevertheless, the analysis will have to take into account a relevant issue: the context in which incorporations take place. Our focus has been placed upon a sample of specialized financial digital press, addressed mainly to financial user. We can observe that the purest incorporations – xenismes – are to appear in the most specialized press, while the less pure, namely combinations of pure loans+equivalence/adaptation coexistences and calques, shall take place in the semi-specialized sources.

Despite of the fact, that there are a lot of cases when Spanish equivalents can be found, Spanish professionals prefer to use loanword without a mere change. Nevertheless, there are cases when the usage of Anglicisms can't be avoided, as Business English spread immediately all over the world, and often there is no time to set the equivalents in other languages.

Speaking about morphological analysis of the Adapted Anglicisms, we can see the following adaptations: in most cases the changes of accent took place, the change of accent together with the change of some letters, only the change of some letters, and the addition of the letter -e- at the beginning of the word.
As for the results of the analisis we

observe that nouns as well as verbs and adjectives are being adapted in Spanish. But anyway, the biggest number of Anglicisms are nouns. Speaking about the type of Anglicisms adaptation – in the majority of cases there are non – adapted Anglicisms (ex. Business, background, leasing), then adapted phometically Anglicisms follow (ex. Ranking, marketing, parking), semantic calques (ex. Agenda, doméstico, firma), and translated calques ("rascacielos" for highscrappers, "supermercado'" for supermarket, "videoconferencia" for videoconference).

The peculiarity of the Spanish Business language is that the incorporation of new words coming from English is swift and immediate, even more than in other "loan-prone" areas like journalism or even politics, due to the ever-changing, neological character of this type of discourse. That's why, and due to the phenomenal influence of English as the language of international communication, usually it's no time to adapt these loanwords and they are widely used without any adaptation, what represents a quite serious problem for the adherents of the "pure" Spanish language.

CONCLUSIONS

It's important to underline that language is an identity of a country. That's why it would be preferable to use Spanish equivalents in order to avoid excessive English borrowings whose usage implies redundancy, as they coexist with native terms. After reading and analyzing Spanish business printed press, it can be concluded that the presence of English economic terms in Spanish business language is very high. In fact, Anglicisms really shape the current economic lexicon in Spanish. And mass media in general contributes to this phenomenon by all means. One of the main reasons of Anglicisms' presence seems to be the necessity to lexicalize new objects, technics and concepts. One of the other reasons is the use of the Anglicisms for the prestige purpose.

On the other hand, there are situations when rapid growth of economic development makes borrowings necessary just because there are no semantic equivalences in Spanish (ex: as in *bancarización, commodity, joint-venture, leasing, management, swap,* etc.). Within the economic scope, although Anglicisms are attested almost in every field, it is Marketing where they have the strongest influence. Examples of this are *publicitar, merchandising, mailing, DAFO, customizar,* etc.

At the same time, we should observe the presence of Anglicisms in Business Spanish from two philological perspectives: it's natural the process of contact and dialogue between two linguistic codes; and the necessity to enrich Spanish language where it's necessary and inevitable.

In fact, this topic has two sides: one positive and one negative. Referring to the positive one, is that Anglicisms are a good influence in Spanish language due to the help they give us to communicate, especially when we have to use them in fields such as technology, music, travel, education, etc. In addition, it is important to say that Anglicisms are useful when there does not exit the word in Spanish language, so we adapt a foreign loan, in this case Anglicisms. Sometimes, as in the terrain of Marketing, Finance and Commerce the use of economic English loanwords is really inevitable. And translator of this sphere intentionaly opts for choosing loanwords or calque just for practical reasons – to make the terms understandable for the specialists. On the contrary, referring to the negative side, it can be said if a word exists in Spanish language and is not applied in any field, it is better to use the loan in Spanish.

References

Barbero, Andres, El Español de los negocios y el ingles: convergencias y divergencias. Universidad de Cantabria, El espanol en contextos espicificos: ensenanza e investigacion.pp 270-285

Bernal-Labrada, E. (1989). Influencias anglicanizantes en el español contemporáneo. Boletín de la Academia Colombiana, 1989, pp. 164-165, 139-146

Bielenia-Grajewska, M. "Linguistic Borrowing in the English Language of Economics". Universidad de Gdańsk, Polonia. 2009. Disponible en http://www.academia.edu/824055/Linguistic_Borrowing_in_the_English_Language_of_Economics

Bravo García, Eva. 2008. El español internacional. Madrid: Arco Libros.

Cramer, Kathryn. 2004. Reseña del Diccionario de la Real Academia Española: a propósito de la lexicografía en la era posmoderna. Estudios de Lingüística del Español 31.

Capuz J.G. El préstamo lingüístico. Valencia, Universitat de València, 1998.

García Yebra V. El buen uso de las palabras. Madrid: Editorial Gredos, 2003.

Gonzales, Rafael. Influencia del vocabulario economico ingles sobre los textos de economia espanoles posteriors a la II Guerra Mundial", Universidad Computense de Madrid, 1993

Gonzales Alejo, R. (2001): Influencia del vocabulario econymico ingles sobre los textos de economia españoles posteriores a la II Guerra Mundial. Madrid: Universidad Complutense de Madrid, 2002

Herrera Soler, H. (1988): Angloamericanismos en el lexico economico. Madrid: Universidad Complutense de Madrid. Facultad de Ciencias Economicas y Empresariales.

Kaplan, R., & Baldauf, R. Language planning: From practice to theory. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters, 1997

Lopez Zurita, P. Economic Anglicisms: adaptation to the Spanish linguistic system, Iberica 10, стр 91-114

Lorenzo, E. El anglicismo, problema hispánico. Boletín de Filología, 1996, pp. 261-274

Lorenzo, Emilio, Anglicismos en la prensa, Primera reunión deAcademias de la Lengua Española sobre el lenguaje y los medios de comunicación. Madrid: Real Academia Española, 1997

Martínez de Sousa, J. (2002) “Neologismos en el Diccionario de la Academia” 1st International Conference : “ El español, lengua de traducción”, held in Almagro, Ciudad Real, Spain. At http://europa.eu.int/comm/translation/events/almagro/index_es.htm

Millán, J. Internet, una red para el español. Paper presented at Primer Congreso Internacional de la Lengua Española, Zacatecas, Mexico. Available: http://jamillan.com/internet.htm (October, 2000)

Medina Javier, El anglicismo en el espanol actual, Madrid, Cuadernos de lengua espanola.

Moliner, Maria, Diccionario de uso de Español, Gredos.

Morgenthaler García, Laura. 2008. Identidad y pluricentrismo lingüístico: hablantes canarios frente a la estandarización. Frankfurt/Madrid: Vervuert/Iberoamericana.

Orts-Llopis, M.A. Neological Patterns in Spanish Legal Discourse; the Phenomenon of Mobbing. LSP and Professional Communication, 2005, Vol 5,2., pp 48-59

Orts-Llopis, M.A. La influencia del inglés empresarial en la terminología jurídicomercantil en español. Paradigmas de incorporación léxica. In Carmen Balbuena Torezano and Ángeles García Calderón (Eds.), Traducción y Mediación Cultural. Reflexiones Interdisciplinares. Granada: Atrio, 2005, pp. 339-356

Orts Llopis, Maria, An approach to the Spanish economic discourse of the crisis: Translating the untranslatable. 2002

Orts Llopis, Maria, Neological Patterns in Spanish Legal Discourse, the Phenomenon of Mobbing , LSP and Professional Communication Volume 5, N 2, October 2005, ISSN 1601-1929, LSP Centre

Pratt, Chris: El anglicismo en el español peninsular contemporáneo. Madrid: Gredos, 1980

Russo, A. Préstamos del inglés en la jerga económica: ¿Es posible evitar el sobreendeudamiento lingüístico? Paper given at the I International Conference: “El español, lengua de traducción”, Almagro, Ciudad Real, Spain, 2002. http://europa.eu.int/comm/translation/events/almagro/index_es.htm

Subirats Rüggeberg, Carlos. 2007. La lingüística en España. Estudios hispánicos: perspectivas internacionales ed. by Luis Martín-Estudillo, Francisco Ocampo, and Nicholas Spadaccini, 169-178. Hispanic Issues On Line 2 Subirats Rüggeberg, Carlos.

Valle, José del (ed.) 2007b. La RAE y el español total: ¿esfera pública o comunidad discursiva? La lengua, ¿patria común? Ideas e ideologías del español, ed. by José del Valle, 81-96.

Woolard, Kathryn A. 2007. La autoridad lingüística del español y las ideologías de la autenticidad y el anonimato. La lengua, ¿patria común? Ideas e ideologías del español, ed. by José del Valle, 129-142.

“Business English. Como reacciona el castellano ante los terminos/neologismos ingleses de caracter financiero”, 115-123, en Philologia Hispalenses, XI. Sevilla: Facultad de Filologна.

“Cuando el inglés usurpa la riqueza léxica del español”, ABC, 27-04-2014, http://www.abc.es/cultura/20140427/abci-anglicismos-201404261644.html

Diccionario de la Real Academia de la Lengua (2001): Madrid: Gredos.

Reviews

Intercultural Communication – An Interdisciplinary approach: when neurons, genes and evolution joined the discourse. (2017)

by Dr Mai Nguyen-Phuong-Mai
Reviewed by Philip Williams, Intercultural Communications Coach, Creative Language Coaching Limited

In the preface to this book, Dr Mai Nguyen-Phuong-Mai describes how as a journalist she was always struck by the emphasis people put on cultural difference and, on entering the field of intercultural communications as an academic, she felt this was repeated in her new field of study. Indeed, she points out later on in the book how the discipline of intercultural communications was founded in the context of the Cold War and an environment of conflict, which led to a focus on difference and obstacles between cultures rather than similarities.

Driven by a desire to find what different cultures could share rather than stress their differences, Dr Mai explains how she went on a journey to explore the subjects of biological evolution and cultural neuroscience – neurons, genes and evolution. This book is her summary of that journey. The book is a penetrating and wide-ranging tour of intercultural communications through the prism of these new disciplines.

The book is written in a style that will appeal to both academic readers but also practitioners. Each chapter highlights at the beginning the objective of the chapter and then concludes with a summary not just of the theoretical points made but also practical action steps, which will be of great help to readers and students to come to terms with her wide-ranging arguments and concepts that may well be new to many.

As well as introducing new disciplines to the study of intercultural communications, Dr Mai's book is characterized by her promoting non- mainstream cultures in order to counter what she sees as the dominance of US and European views in intercultural communications. She achieves this through her use of extensive case studies taken from non-mainstream cultures, her wide- ranging citations and marvellous use of compelling visuals to support her arguments. A list of her where her visuals come from illustrate this point well. It includes: Papua New Guinea, India, Mexico, Tunisia, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Norway, Tunisia, Japan, Libya, Yemeni, European

Union, Egypt, Dubai, Lebanon, Oman, Sri Lanka, Malawi, Malaysia, N Korea, Vietnam, Philippines, Bhutan, Pacific Islands, Finland, South Africa and Pakistan.

Dr Mai opens her book with a chapter which acts as the foundation stone for the rest of the book. The autor gives the reader a whistle stop tour through the role genes, neurons and evolution have in determining culture and behaviour. Drawing on her extensive research of these subjects and citing a wide range of sources including the highly infuential "Wired for Culture" by M Pagel, Dr Mai explains how humans evolved from surviving through genetic evolution like other animals to short-cutting this process by developing social learning or culture and that culture should, therefore, be defined as a strategy for survival that is unique to humans and that with our capacity for social learning we no longer have to rely on very slow moving genetic improvement like the rest of the animal kingdom.

Having defined culture thus, Dr Mai then asks a key question, "Why then do we have Cultural Diversity" ie why is there not just one culture but instead a huge number?

First, Dr Mai looks at the relation between environment and culture and the argument that environment is the main cause of there being different cultures. Citing Aristotle, Darwin's environmental determinism, Jared Diamond and others, she settles on the work of Julian Steward and his theory that the relationship between environment and culture is a dynamic one and that culture is not a consequence of nature but rather a "strategy to interact with nature".

Dr Mai then goes on to explain that environment cannot, however, explain the existence of different cultures where the environment is identical. To answer this question, Dr Mai quotes Pagel's argument that in essence the cause of diversity is a result of cultures seeking to protect themselves from having their ideas and knowledge stolen ie that by creating a distinctive culture, knowledge could be safeguarded and that cultural barriers allowed knowledge to be shared in a more regulated and controlled way with groups that were not part of a given cultural group. Above all, language is the barrier that was created to create this regulation and control.

Dr Mai argues that the complexity of our culture must be seen from a bigger angle, one that involves the physical and genetic make-up of our body as well as the interaction between environment and culture. Building what she calls diversity pathways ie the factors other than environment that contribute to cultural diversity, she looks in turn at the role of genes, brain and behaviour.

First, genes; Dr Mai argues that the power transition that has taken place in humans from genes to culture described above is not one way ie just as genes are crucial mechanisms for turning useful cultural values into genetic traits so the opposite is the case and that this is crucial to understanding human diversity. She illustrates this with a fascinating case study of the relationship between the so-called "depression gene" and East Asian cultures.

Next Dr Mai turns from looking at genes to looking how the brain creates diversity pathways, introducing the key notion of brain plasticity ie that our neural machinery system is intrinsically malleable. She concludes from this – and this is critical to rest of the book – that the plasticity of the brain and the idea that the brain recreates itself and that there is no fundamental core identity in the brain means that we can train the brain and learn new tricks, adapt to new environments, adopt new cultures and reshape and discover many different aspects of our identities and personalities. It is this argument that underpins Dr Mai's faith in humans ability to adapt and embrace cultural difference.

Finally, Dr Mai introduces the notion of behaviour as an influencer of cultural diversity. She points out that we now know that behaviour can help shape the brain and that repeated behaviours reinforce specific neural pathways. She shows through case studies that behaviours by groups or individuals can influence and change cultural systems.

Dr Mai concludes this chapter with what in some ways seems to be a contradiction to her arguments to date. She argues that as well as creating cultural and linguistic diversity as a tool to create regulation between groups, humans also are the only animal that can extend care beyond kinship to unrelated individuals. She points to research in the neurosciences, biology and psychology as challenging the self-interested model of homo economicus and argues that humans are naturally cooperative.

It is this impulse, she argues that leads to human beings evolving into larger groups and communities and the phenomenon of globalisation. Turning to neuroscience, she argues that as humans are exposed to different cultures, our brains can become culturally tuned with new neural activities which enables us to adapt to different cultures. She concludes with the view that "if culture is a strategy then it will be the survival of the most cultured."

Having established her foundations in Chapter one, Dr Mai goes on in subsequent chapters to look at a number of wide-ranging issues relating to intercultural communications. In chapter two, she looks at the issue of how culture evolves, in chapter three she covers stereotyping, chapter four, non- verbal communication, chapter five, a taxonomy of diversity, chapter six, intercultural competence, and chapter seven, diversity management. The remainder of this review will focus on chapters three, five and six to attempt to give the reader a broader understanding of the book's main arguments.

"The Evolving Culture." In chapter 2, Dr Mai turns her attention to how culture can evolve, continuing to lay theoretical ground for her arguments. She posits that since culture is such a dynamic force, in order to analyse different cultures effectively, we need first to agree on some generic frameworks that will help answer how to deal with the complexity and dynamics of culture. To do this, Dr Mai chooses a framework expressed as the metaphor of a tree to reflect what she sees as the three major components of culture:
the roots of a tree, representing the fundamental concerns and evolutionary root of a culture ie the universal elements of a culture such as politics, art, religion; second, the branches of a tree representing values which she defines as "our attitudinal positions on the fundamental concerns of a culture; thirdly, the leaves of a tree representing outward expression ie the objects, symbols and behaviours that are the outward expressions of fundamental concerns and values.

Using this model, and the perspective of evolutionary biology and neuroscience, Dr Mai then looks at the varying schools of thought with regard to the important issue of the speed and nature of change within cultures, arguing that fundamental values are stable, values are dynamic and outward expressions change fastest of all. She argues above all that neuroscience tells us to adopt a non-binary, dynamic view of cultural change and one that can embrace paradox as normal.

Introducing a second framework which she calls the Inverted pyramid model, Dr Mai also challenges what she calls the "skewed focus on culture as a purely group phenomenon" She uses her inverted pyramid model to look at culture at three levels of analysis: universal, collective and individual.

"Stereotype: a necessary evil." The third chapter is one of the most detailed with regard to looking at how our brains affect us and, in this case, cause us to stereotype. Dr Mai describes clearly how our brains are wired to stereotype – our evolution means that stereotyping has evolved as a survival mechanism that allows our brains to make snap judgments – particularly useful when our habitat was that of the bush and all its accompanying external threats. However, this threat detection mechanism is carried out by the amygdala and does not allow the split second slower neo-cortex to provide a more nuanced picture. Hence we tend to being naturally biased and tend to categorization and worse, prejudice and discrimination.

Having explained this, Dr Mai goes on to outline practical strategies for living with stereotypes and reducing prejudice. She points out that most patterns of stereotyping are socially constructed by our cultures, which means that we can change the patterns and train our brain. This chapter is complemented by the last chapter of the book which looks at diversity management and at practical ways to promote diversity.

"A Taxonomy of Diversity." In chapter five, Dr Mai takes on looking afresh at some of the key taxonomies used historically by intercultural theorists to understand the complexity of culture. In particular she looks at the taxonomies of group attachment (ie individualism v collectivism), hierarchy acceptance, gender association, uncertainty avoidance and time orientation. By drawing on neuroscience and evolutionary biology but also applying her inverted pyramid lens of the individual, collective and universal perspectives, and rich case study material, she sheds interesting new light on these much debated areas, challenging static models, stressing the importance of context and challenging non-binary thinking, arguing in place that it is important to embrace paradox at all times.

Intercultural Competence- creating yourself. My favourite chapter of the book, personally, and in my opinion, perhaps, the most important is Chapter six.
For much of this chapter Dr Mai looks in depth at the different stages of acculturalisation using M Bennett's DMIS framework and also highlighting how Cultural Intelligence (CQ) is not just a matter of cognitive awareness but is also motivational and behavioural.

However, having done this, she then draws on how the notion of a malleable and evolving sense of self rather than a rigidly set one can help develop cultural intelligence. Referencing post-modern thinking, Buddhism and the writing of Professor Michael Puett and Christine Gross-Loh in The Path, she stress how modern neuroscience favours this more fluid concept of personality ie that it is possible to have multiple selves. However it requires work and breaking set and fixed patterns of behaviour that often start very young.

As Agata Szkiela states on the back cover of the book, this book offers a fresh perspective on many well-known models of culture nad will no doubt prove invaluable to academics and practitioners alike. TLC

Language, Education and Neoliberalism: Critical Studies in Sociolinguistics

by Mi-Cha Flubacher & Alfonso Del Percio (Eds)
Mulitilingual Matters (2017)

Language is an enabling tool. It is what gives you a unique selling point. It puts you ahead of the competition in the search for a job. Depending on the languages you speak, you can have a place in the globalised market place or stay in the backwaters. Education helps you get the diplomas you need to be recognised as a qualified language user. It is these diplomas that make you more attractive to the market. Therefore, education is a service industry that sets people on the road in their careers. These are some of the notions that form the received wisdom that is explored in this work.

The book provides a wide ranging and, possibly to some eyes, eclectic mix of scenarios that consider and critique the view that the market place and attendant neoliberal ideologies have become the driving force behind education in general and language education as the specific focus of this volume. The collection covers a range of contexts from higher education institutes to secondary education, migrant programmes and the work of volunteers. Perhaps fittingly for a book that explores neoliberal ideologies and their impact, the studies are truly international, ranging from the US to China via Mexico, Korea, the Philippines and Switzerland.

There are recurring themes: the commoditization of education; language as product; language hierarchy. Similar impacts are described: the devaluing of plurilingual competence because it is not in the right language; a sense of shame among plurilingual speakers; the increasing precariousness of employment for those in education. For those of us working in education (the reviewer is a university lecturer in London) much of this feels very familiar.

It is not just that the systems established in the international market place have altered how education is structured, it is that the discourse has been changed to reflect this, which in turn reflects the beliefs that are held by many and reinforces neoliberal ideology. This is set out in the first chapter with three areas of resignification: education, language and the self. The current discourse places value on measurable results that can be put to use in the market place. We all are or have capital (human, social, linguistic). We therefore should invest in ourselves in order to remain competitive. To do so we need to capitalize on the resources we have at our disposal.

Each chapter offers insightful commentary on their particular scenario. What makes these commentaries perhaps more illuminating is the use of ethnographic methodologies. Extracts of first hand interviews with those involved - from company CEOs to the victims of language policy decisions - gives a clear idea of the attitudes that shape the debate and brings the challenges and problems into sharp relief.

The book comprises 12 chapters. Clearly readers can focus on scenarios and themes that are of greater interest to them, but there is value to be gained by taking the book in its entirety. All chapters are equally accessible.

Chapter 1 defines and discusses the concepts in the title and serves as an introduction to the studies that follow Chapter 2 chronicles the rise of private English language tuition in China since the 1990s and compares this to the expansion of the teaching of Mandarin and the strategy of establishing Confucius centres. Both of these are presented as part of a neoliberalist marketisation in the country. Chapter 3 takes us to Mexico and the challenges faced by a particular minority language community. Here the issues of language hierarchy are raised: the lack of value placed on bilingual competence when the competence is not between two 'important' languages; the impact on education policy; the appropriation of cultural symbols.

Chapter 4 Talks about the coke-i-fication of bilingual education – taking the US as the context – where bilingual competence has been embraced as a commodity in itself and has been appropriated by the dominant groups in society to the exclusion of minority, often immigrant communities. Chapter 5 Describes the situation of EMI in South Korean higher education. Once again the question of language hierarchy is raised; the need to speak English well; the massive investment on a national scale to achieve this; the increase in EMI as part of an internationalisation strategy. Yet at the same time there is a national anxiety about never being good enough.

Chapter 6 takes the case study of Brazilian university students sponsored to attend English medium instruction in STEM subjects in Canada. Once more we see national investment in equipping future generations with competences for the global market place. Students' responses to the experience is documented and we see that what was learned was not necessarily what was intended. The hurdle of second language mastery had not been fully understood by the policy makers.

Chapter 7 Looks at the NGO sector and what is described as ELT aid. It takes the case study of the US Job Enabling English Proficiency project in the Philippines, where task based learning using CALL (on an annual renewable license) either replace or supplement existing language training. The validity of the system itself and the wider question of return on investment are questioned.

Chapter 8 takes the notion of the individual learner investing in their own human capital and examines the context of migrants in Italy through an EU funded project designed to train entrepreneurship. Migrants are trained to become self starting farmers. However, access to the course is determined by language ability rather than farming experience and no participants set up their own business as a direct result of the course.

Chapter 9 stays with migrant communities and considers how refugee children are evaluated in a US school. This is set against the wider context of the No Child Left Behind Policy and the need for schools to hit annual yearly performance targets which are measured by success in tests, with the possible sanction of closure of the school if targets are missed over a number of years. How one school chose to respond by outsourcing its English language training and the impact of this on the refugee children is detailed.

Chapter 10 returns to universities and the way resources are used in the provision of EAP programmes, specifically the growing tendency to reduce costs, resulting in what are termed blended professionals who are required both to manage and to teach and whose job security is constantly under threat.

Chapter 11 examines two institutions in the Swiss higher education sector, again looking at language hierarchy

– this time with German as the high status language – and the experiences of Italian speakers study Law at a German speaking university. The mechanisms to attract students (language courses, different conditions for examinations) are set against the challenges they report.

Chapter 12 draws threads together, summarises the discussions and raises questions.

Although the studies cover a broad spectrum, there is much agreement and commonality. Neoliberalism is described as slippery and difficult to pin down, but Brown's (2015) statement that it extends a specific formulation of economic values, practices and metrics into every sphere of human life, cited by Tabiola and Lorente (p123) resonates through all the studies. Issues of language hegemony and its consequences find echoes in the work on English imperialism (Phillipson, Bunce et al). The notion of human capital and the individual investing in themselves through learning a language resonates with work on learner autonomy (Benson, Dickinson, Nunan etc) as well as with the idea that individual progress can be seen differently in different cultures. Language policy is rightly described as an assemblage where consequences are not always forseen. Perhaps more importantly the notion that we have all bought into the same myth is amply demonstrated in all scenarios, policy makers, providers and learners alike.

In common with many works from a critical perspective, this collection does not offer many solutions. Those that are documented are at the level of local resistance to marginalisation as a consequence of policy decisions. However, this is an important collection in that it shows the interconnectedness of all aspects of language education. It shows how any new pedagogical development can be turned into a market, and how the discourse surrounding that market creates illusions for us to consume.

It is a thought – provoking cry for an alternative discourse where the values of language as a vehicle for social cohesion, as a means of preserving heritage and identity reclaim ground usurped by a mantra of market forces. Perhaps, as the book suggests, this has to start at the local level.

ICC News

By Michael Carrier

ICC board member

25th Annual ICC Conference 4-6th May

This year's annual conference was held in the glorious surroundings of Santorini. Glorious for many reasons. Not only is the island stunning, but the actual conference setting was spectacular and was the perfect backdrop to two days of thought provoking presentation and debate. The conference brought out the best in the ICC – blending the political, academic and practical to give us all a more complete picture of the challenges for language education when faced with teaching refugees and migrants.

Challenges and solutions?

We were honoured by the presence of Dr Asaf Hajiev, whose intervention about the problems in the Black Sea region, showed how geographical position and wider political and economic considerations impact on the movement of people. Bessie Dendrinos argued passionately for a change in the way we teach. Tuncer Can and Irfan Simsek told us about the difficulties of inclusion beyond refugee camps. But for every challenge we were shown possible solutions. Michael Carrier showed a range of low cost technical innovations that are being used across the world to great success. Elizabeth Mickiewciz presented a range of support initiatives currently used in the UK that could give some ideas elsewhere. Kostas Korozis and Michaelis Karakontantis showed us how at classroom level they were engaging with the students. Myriam Fischer showed us how EUROLTA teacher training could be adapted to suit the needs of volunteer teachers.

Tears, Music and Laughter

One of the highlights of the conference was the presentation by Luke Prodromou and Vicky Sarantidou, whose enactment of their teaching journey with a group of refugee learners and in particular their presentation of the learners' own voices, moved a number of the audience to tears. But on the up side we had songs in English and Greek, music and dancing and much joy and laughter over dinners, round the hotel pool and on the bus transits from place to place. Perhaps it was this mix of emotions that helped make the conference special.

Farewell Mr Fitz

This was also the occasion where our founder, Tony Fitzpatrick, decided to take a back seat from the ICC. As was only normal for the person who founded the ICC and spent a large part of his working life running it, this was a moment of mixed emotions. Rob Williams led the tributes to him, including messages from those who were not able to attend, and Tony gained a standing ovation.

First impression feedback from the delegates echoed the sense that we had almost turned into a community within three days - we had time to get to know each other. This and the fact that every presentation and intervention linked together and built on what came before contributed greatly to the success of the event.

We now look forward to next year's conference and to continuing the spirit of the association that Tony Fitzpatrick created.

Conference Feedback

"The ICC- conference 2018 in Santorini was brilliant! Was it because of the volcano? First, thanks to Ozlem Yuges and Ifigenia Georgiadou for organising the logistics. The location (Butari) and excursions could not have been better chosen. Thanks to Myriam Fischer and Ellinor Haase and to all the members from the board, especially to Tony Fitzpatrick. The exchange of experiences and knowledge during the conference was amazing. Every plenary speaker, every presentation showed new aspects and highlighted different challenges for language teaching.

The discussion was always lively and creative, huge problems were handled carefully. Sharing not only knowledge but friendship. The variety of the participants made the conference a success. We had many interesting conversations, from the first moments at the airport in Athens till the end of the conference. Even during lunchtime, the discussion did not stop. The conference was very inspiring. I had the impression that everybody was highly interested and engaged and we will spread this knowledge. These contacts were more than business exchanges, we felt close to each other. Special thanks to the Greek colleges working in the camps: Michael, Kostas, Ifigenia, Vicky and Luke. I will not forget your essential work, and I will not forget the song we sang together." - Elke Bissinger, Teacher Trainer, Basel (CH)

RUDN University News

By Elena N. Malyuga, RUDN University

And joint managing Editor TLC

On April 19-20, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia hosted the **8th International Research Conference Topical Issues of Linguistics and Teaching Methods in Business and Professional Communication**. The conference was organised by the Foreign Languages Department of the Faculty of Economics with contributions from both Russian and international participants representing various universities all over the world. The conference was supported by the Russian Foundation for Basic Research and was attended by the representatives of the Mexican Embassy in Moscow, Cambridge University Press, the French Institute in Moscow, "CampusFrance" French National Agency for the Promotion of Higher Education, the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), London Metropolitan University, University College London, Rezekne Academy of Technologies, the University of León, the University of Rome Tor Vergata, The Moscow-Taipei Coordination Commission on Economic and Cultural Cooperation, Language.Prosveshcheniye Ltd.

The researchers and practising professors had an opportunity to exchange views on a number of issues concerned with applied linguistics, profession-oriented translation, integration of emerging information technology into the educational process, intercultural communication, and the methodology of teaching foreign languages at a non-linguistic university. The meeting revealed the scope of work accomplished since the previous conference in the context of business and professional communication. The plenary sessions and seminars held in the course of the conference provided an excellent platform for productive suggestions, which can later on be implemented through the assistance of the entire linguistic community.

Various issues of professional communication and specialised translation warranted in-depth discussion that proved extremely productive and far-reaching. Conference participants noted the emerging need to develop innovative pedagogical ICT technology and emphasised the persistent importance of cultivating the research and practical component of profession-oriented teaching. The issues having to do with the strategy-based teaching of specialised translation at non-linguistic universities also ranked high on the agenda. The trends and problems discussed at the conference aroused keen interest on the part of researchers and teachers at Russian universities and obviously call for further theoretical and practical reflection and justification.

We greatly appreciate the productive contribution of all participants over the two day conference and are looking forward to fruitful cooperation in the future.

RUDN Rector Vladimir Filippov met the best graduates of the University of 2018. Out of 57 young specialists - doctors, agronomists, lawyers, environmental experts, programmers, linguists, engineers ... 32% are foreigners from 18 countries.

The Rector's meeting with the best graduates of the year is a tradition of RUDN University. This is an illustration of the informal slogan of the University "We are different! We are equal! We are leaders!". Geologists, philologists, dentists, journalists and pharmacists, no matter what country they come from, all have a record of excellent performance and an active social position. Many of them have already started their professional or scientific career. Most of them are presidents and chairmen of student associations. There are athletes and stage stars among them.

Multidisciplinarity is not the only value underlying the principles of RUDN University. Multinationality and international cooperation are what RUDN University has been famous for since 1960. It is important not to lose contact and keep in touch with classmates and friends. Among the best graduates of 2018 are students from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Guinea, Kazakhstan, Cuba, Latvia, Mali, Nigeria, Palestine, Syria, Ukraine, Chad, Sri Lanka, Ecuador and Ethiopia. Out of 57 young professionals, 18 are foreigners, that is, one out of three (31.58%).

A conversation on equal terms with the Rector is an opportunity to ask even very daring questions. Improvement of the conditions for internships, financial support for the scientific achievements of students, the need for a simplified procedure for obtaining a residence permit, preferential terms for educational loans were all topics of conversation and, off course, many were interested in career prospects.

“I love the university and since the first year I have had an active public position. Now I am entering a post-graduate course and I want not only to continue my studies, but also to start a career in Russia. Is it possible to do this in RUDN University?“- a graduate of the Faculty of Economics Marias Villavincio Mario Andres from Ecuador asked. For foreign graduates of bachelor and master programmes in RUDN, there are two options to start a career at the university: enrol in a full-time post-graduate course, in addition to the academic scholarship there will be significant bonuses (the amount will be more than 40,000 rubles a month), and they teach in faculties, institutes and the academy.

In April in Austria (Graz) the Agreement on cooperation in the field of science and education between RUDN University and the University of Applied Sciences FH Joanneum (Institute of International Management) was signed.
Cooperation will take the form of:

- exchange of students and graduate students;
- exchange of scientific and pedagogical workers;
- joint research projects conducted by researchers from both universities;
- exchange of information and publications;
- organization of conferences and seminars.

RUDN University was represented by Candidate of Economic Sciences, PhD, Associate Professor of the Department of National Economics of the Faculty of Economics Cherniaev Maxim Vasilievich.

Subscriptions to TLC

TLC is published four times a year online and is included in your membership subscription.

Individuals: €50

Single institutes (refers to schools or training centres established and operating from single premises): €250

Groups of institutes (refers to schools or training centres established and operating from multiple premises): €500

Organisations not eligible under the above points may become associate members. They have no vote in the general assembly: €250

For non-ICC members the following terms and conditions apply:

Library subscription – 4 issues per year, €100

Individual subscription – 4 issues per year, €60

Individual issues – per issue, €20

SPECIAL OFFER! You can get our first eight issues free of charge as a non-member. Simply send an email to i**nfo@ICC-languages.eu** to receive your free copies of Issues 1 to 8.

Print copies:
If you would prefer print copy please contact Mark Rivlin at Create Services, who will advise on print and postage: **mark@createservices.co.uk**

Training Language and Culture

The quarterly journal of

ICC
(The International Language Association)

and

RUDN University
(Peoples' Friendship University of Russia)