TRAINING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

'We should learn languages because language is the only thing worth knowing even poorly'
– *Kató Lomb*

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Introduction to Issue 3(4)

by Elena Malyuga

Joint Managing Editor TLC

Welcome to Issue 3(4) of Training, Language and Culture. This issue will examine an array of problematic areas of study concerned with intercultural competence, virtual exchange, the task-based approach to L2 teaching, language for work, politeness strategies, translation of field-specific terminology from French into Russian, and the language of social media and status messages.

First on the agenda is *Teaching intercultural communicative competence through virtual exchange* by Monika Hřebačková – a vivid account of virtual exchange processes enhancing multiple literacy practices and transferable skills framed by foreign language courses. The paper not only gives a selection of motivational practices in teaching intercultural awareness and a foreign language through virtual exchanges but also brings insights into key concepts of intercultural communicative competence and a brief overview of the history of virtual exchange in education. It considers different variables in virtual exchange practice and points out the inevitable changes in the traditional role of a teacher. The author shows how virtual exchange tasks enable students to move from more routine in-class concepts and techniques to activities outside the classroom and get students involved creatively by supporting critical thinking, individual commitment, teamwork and the distribution of roles within the team. The paper proves that despite the challenges they may entail, virtual exchange tasks are highly motivational and should be more systematically implemented in language teaching.

Another teaching-oriented article entitled *Applying a task-based approach to authentic texts: An example of teaching a poem to lower level students of Greek as L2* by Maria Skiada-Sciaranetti and Ifigenia Georgiadou explores the theoretical frame for the integration of authentic texts into tasks, emphasising task authenticity criteria and

task typologies for authentic texts. Of note is a teaching scenario suggested by authors and showing how authentic materials and task-based learning can be implemented in teaching literature to lower level students, who are the least exposed to authentic language input in the classroom. The paper clarifies the benefits of using authentic texts as a vital component of the task-based learning approach in language acquisition.

In *Language for work matters* Matilde Grünhage-Monetti and Alexander Braddell seek to give evidence why L2 for work matters: they highlight the interdependency of work, technology and communication and the central role of communication and language, understood as social practice, in today's workplaces. The paper illustrates the language requirements and needs for migrant workers, offers examples of how to support work-related L2 learning in formal, non-formal and informal learning environments. The authors draw on research and practices across Europe collected and further developed by the Language for Work (LfW) project which refers to two European projects and an international network sponsored by the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML), an agency of the Council of Europe. The paper concludes with an invitation for researchers to investigate how digitisation will impact communication at work and for work and how people react to it, in order to develop a proper offer for formal, non-formal and informal L2 learning.

Turning to the topic of never-ceasing interest, Elena B. Kuzhevskaya lays out her view of *Politeness strategies in business English discourse* by analysing the pragmatic effect produced by a variety of politeness strategies in the course of business interaction. Specific notice is given to the statistical analysis and the distribution of the four strategies of politeness and their respective substrategies in English business communication. The study contains comparative statistical data illustrating manifestations of different strategies of politeness in modern Business English and provides a description of the most common cases of their implementation. Raising awareness of politeness strategies and acquiring practical skills can help both the speaker and the listener to understand implied meanings conveyed in different communicative situations and adjust their speech behaviour to achieve the aims of communication, which en-

sures success in business.

In *Translating cheese production terminology from French to Russian: Challenges and pitfalls* Vera V. Kucherova looks at cheese production terminology and the appropriate ways of its translation from French to Russian. The paper analyses French texts related to cheesemaking, describes the corresponding terms registered in the two languages, and looks into the specifics of French-to-Russian rendering of the corresponding terms. Specific attention is paid to equivalent translation, transcription, transliteration, calquing and descriptive translation as methods of translation most appropriate in cases where cheese production terminology is concerned. The author encourages translators to create a system of priorities for each individual translation case and abide by the generally accepted rules that can be applied in translating terms related to cheese production in any given set of source and target languages.

Last but not least in the original article section of the issue, in *Self-representation through social network status messages: Psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic and gender aspects* Svetlana V. Gribach, Victoria V. Sibul and Evgeniya V. Kolosovskaya reveal the issues of expanded understanding of self-presentation viewed as an integral component of any communicative act, as the socio-cultural behaviour, and also as a means of controlling the impression a person makes on others in the process of interaction. As communication through social networks is becoming an increasingly common element of modern culture, it is thus becoming an increasingly important means of self-representation. By looking into people's status messages on social networks one can identify the main cultural aspects used in the process of their self-presentation. By analysing status messages posted on social networks, the study reveals the approaches to self-presentation used by people of different age and sex groups. The article presents an analysis of gender and age characteristics of the use of self-presentation tactics and reveals differences in the choice of topics for the status messages.

This issue also offers reviews on two recently published books: *Cross-cultural management: With insights from brain science* by Mai Nguyen-Phuong-Mai (Routledge International Business Studies 2019), and *Critical global semiotics: Understanding sustainable transformational citizenship* edited by Maureen Ellis (Routledge 2019).

As is customary, the issue also comes with recent news from ICC, EUROLTA and RUDN University.

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Teaching intercultural communicative competence through virtual exchange

by Monika Hřebačková

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Due to the current changes in the globalised world and its markets, traditional ways of teaching and learning need to be reconsidered to better equip students with employability skills for their future careers. This paper reflects some of the processes for enhancing multiple literacy practices and transferable skills framed by foreign language courses. In this respect, virtual exchanges create an excellent opportunity to foster these skills. They open space for increasing intercultural awareness, developing communication and collaborative skills, and enhancing information communication technologies. The paper not only gives a selection of motivational practices in teaching intercultural awareness and a foreign language through virtual exchanges but also brings insights into key concepts of intercultural communicative competence and a brief overview of the history of virtual exchange in education. It considers different variables in virtual exchange practice and points out the inevitable changes in the traditional role of a teacher.

KEYWORDS: *intercultural communicative competence, task category, transferable skills, virtual exchange*

1. INTRODUCTION

Higher education has fundamentally shifted as a result of technological development, demographic changes and globalisation, as well as due to the way we interpret and present knowledge. The basic requirements new generations have to meet include transferable skills that enable them to continuously adapt. We describe transferable skills as those versatile skills that we can apply and make use of in a number of different roles in the workplace. The list is wide and includes several categories such as interpersonal skills, technological skills and organisational skills. In language education, there is a strong potential to provide pathways for students to acquire especially some of these skills needed for various professions and the global workplace (including information, media and digital literacy, critical thinking, collaboration, communication, creativity, flexibility and adaptability, organisational skills, social and intercultural competence, leadership and responsibility).

Taking the perspective of Czech employers, research carried out in the Czech Republic (Doležalová, 2014) confirms similar priorities described by more than 150 Czech employers. Communication skills (oral and written), flexibility and team work were placed on top of the list among the most frequently required soft business-related skills of university graduates in the tertiary sector. 83% of employers agree on the rapidly increasing desire for language competence, as they expect a new hire's ability to use language to express himself/herself effectively inside and outside the organisation. However, they often find these competences, which include not only theoretical knowledge but also practical skills and international experience, deficient.

Various approaches are integrated in teaching and learning to develop these skills, one of which is the multidisciplinary approach involving different types of work and knowledge, for example, collaboration on a common task in multinational teams combining several areas of study and

integrating data, tools and theories from several disciplines. In other words, teaching a foreign language becomes the linchpin in a multidisciplinary learning system to consolidate other complementary transferable skills.

Taking the multidisciplinary approach to better prepare graduates for modern workplaces, MIAS School of Business at the Czech Technical University in Prague (CTU) has redesigned and innovated some foreign language courses by implementing virtual exchange practice as *'the application of online communication tools to bring together classes of language learners in geographically distant locations to develop their foreign language skills and intercultural competence through collaborative tasks and project work'* (O'Dowd, 2011, p. 342).

Thus, students cooperate with their mates from a foreign partner university using English as a lingua franca in a variety of in-class as well as out-of-class task-based activities. In the intercultural dialogue they face multiple challenges, such as communication barriers, different levels of politeness, respect, tolerance and working styles and having to recognise and deal with cultural stereotypes and local bias. However, going beyond the apparent visible cultural values, they reveal different perspectives that affect the synergies of culturally mixed virtual teams. With the assistance of the teacher they discuss them and try to deal with them.

The following two sections bring an insight to some concepts of intercultural communicative competence and give a brief overview of virtual exchange development in language teaching and learning. Then the paper classifies virtual exchange tasks into three general major categories and describes the implementation process. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors are considered. Finally, teachers' and students' reflections help to indicate the future trends and new horizons in language education.

2. CONCEPTS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

The estimate of approximately 400 million native speakers out of 1.75 billion users of English means that most English language interactions take place among non-native speakers of English. While communicating through English opens the door to the global market and better jobs, the language is also the carrier of *'cultural heritage of all those individuals and communities who use English in their everyday lives, each of them giving it a distinct identity of their own'* (Medgyes, 2017, p. 3). With reference to Byram's (1997) work and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), effective intercultural communicators have the ability to perform appropriately in various contexts, complementing the competences and skills defined as intercultural communicative competence (ICC). ICC recognises the influence of our own culture and the way we view ourselves and others, knowing how to relate and interpret meaning, developing critical awareness, knowing how to discover cultural information and knowing how to relativise the values, attitudes, and beliefs of others. Deardorff (2006) refers to intercultural competence in a broader sense as *'possessing the necessary attitudes and reflective and behavioural skills and using these to behave effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations'* (Deardorff, 2006, p. 242). In foreign language education, ICC offers an additional dimension as it requires acquired competence in attitudes, knowledge and skills related to intercultural competence while using a foreign language.

In terms of methodology, strengthening the ICC component of a foreign language course may ideally become a content and language integrated model of learning, where the content is intercultural and the language is developed simultaneously. With increasing internationalisation, mobility programmes and enrolment of foreign students, the trend is, however, to teach in English, i.e. to use English as a medium of instruction (EMI) as a common solution in an international classroom. In addition, EMI is often believed to improve students' English proficiency, and therefore contributes to a workforce that is more fluent in English. Simply, it is expected to give students a

double benefit: knowledge of their content subject, and fluent English language skills. Contrasting EMI with content and language integrated learning, Morgado and Coelho (2013) found that EMI does not offer support to simultaneous content and language development. Although students are more exposed to the language, there is a major concern that there is less language progress with EMI than in traditional language courses and the teachers of EMI admit they simplify the curricular content according to the students' language difficulties. In our empirical experience, this model works well with good independent users of language (from B2 CEFR level and up) while learners at an A2-B1 CEFR level seem to be limited to more simple tasks based mostly on a straightforward, predictable exchange of information in familiar contexts such as daily routines, time schedules, eating habits, holidays, and traditions. The outcomes of their critical intercultural reflection may remain less evident at these lower levels of English and, from the teacher's perspective, their intercultural communicative competence may seem less apparent as they cluster around the surface layers of cultural values.

Nevertheless, as the student feedback questionnaires show, even students at lower levels note both a benefit from the intercultural dimension and improvement in global competences, such as open-mindedness and awareness of otherness. These results suggest that, when setting objectives for intercultural communicative competence, the language component should be involved. The areas covered may include, for example, language development in modal verbs, question formation, and negation, dealing mostly with functional language use related to corporate and educational cultures, register, politeness conventions in different contexts, and meta-communication.

3. VIRTUAL EXCHANGE OVERVIEW
3.1 ICT and VE

The application of Information Communication Technologies (ICT) in foreign language learning and teaching has become a commonplace and everyday reality of the 21st century both as part of

'VE belongs to a fast-developing area of CALL with great educational potential'

curricular and extra-curricular practice. Foreign language education is shaped by the technologies available and their ever-increasing and changing repertoires of use. Since the advent of computers in educational settings in the 1960s, the term Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has been adopted to embrace a wide range of ICT applications and approaches to foreign language learning and teaching (Levy, 1997).

In this context, VE belongs to a fast-developing area of CALL with great educational potential. The term itself has become established only recently (O'Dowd, 2018, p. 3), and researchers and literature have used other terms covering similar educational concepts such as telecollaboration, online intercultural exchange or internet-mediated intercultural foreign language education. VEs require an online interaction between two or more learners with similar language and intercultural communicative learning objectives. In almost thirty years of existence as an educational tool, VE has been subject to changes reflecting the rapid advance of ICT and the corresponding learning/ teaching needs.

At the beginning, VEs took the form of e-pal writing and were used particularly in primary and secondary school settings. These were email exchanges between foreign language learners and/or foreign language learners and their native speaking counterparts to, on the one hand, mutually foster mainly their reading and writing skills and, on the other hand, learn more about their respective partner's countries, culture and life-style, and make friendships. Additionally, the so-called 'e-tandems' (O'Rourke, 2007), which first appeared in the early 90s, have been used predominately in academic contexts connecting two native speakers of complementary target languages involved in mutual language learning activities and collaboration.

The increased interaction and integration of people across the globe in the last two decades

Table 1
VE task categories

VE TASK	DESCRIPTION	TYPE OF VE	OUTCOMES	SUPPORTED LEARNING	POTENTIAL PITFALLS
1. INFORMATIVE EXCHANGE					
a) Personal cultural profile	Students create their own profile based on cultural values and dimension. They create a pie chart or visual presentation or a short video shared online accompanied with a written description about what influences them most	Asynchronous In-class/out of class	Introduction online through own profile, search for interesting team partners, learning about others	Individualised, focus on personal priorities, choice of interests and own design	Can easily turn into a stereotypical introduction without challenging input
b) Online meeting	Students arrange an online kick-off meeting to get to know each other, share ideas for project tasks and plan means of cooperation. Only general framework is given, students are free to decide about day/time and priorities on the meeting agenda	Synchronous Out-of-class	Meeting and greeting after reading and sharing online cultural profiles, practice of communication, small talk, planning of team work, writing of meeting minutes	Students take full responsibility for both planning and execution of online session	Can easily turn into a chit-chat without challenging input, requires teamwork among students
2. COMPARISON AND ANALYSIS					
a) Creating facts/ knowledge-based quiz questions	Students create a set of T/F or Y/N quiz question in teams covering geographical, political, economic and cultural areas of their home countries or the country of their study	Asynchronous In-class/out-of-class	Sharing, comparing and answering online the team quizzes, online debate on the content, form and language issues	Independent fact finding, choice of questions based on students' interests, self-discipline, peer language feedback, learning beyond the classroom, spoken and written interaction	Requires a follow-up (debate and reflection), teamwork, negotiations, tends to reduce the exchange to an information exchange
b) Carrying out an opinion poll	Students prepare 2 questions about local and global artefacts and ask foreign students in an opinion poll	Interviews, meeting new people, semi-structured communication, spoken interaction	A written report comparing and analysing the findings, generating ideas for creating team videos	Choice of respondents, questions, method, out-of-classroom work, individual time management	Students tend to research on visible issues (food, fashion and folklore)
3. COLLABORATIVE					
Creating a team video	Students in international teams work together to produce a video on local and global artefact of their own choice. The joint multimedia product is assessed in a students' contest	Asynchronous, out-of-class (creation); and synchronous, in-class (contest)	A multimedia product (a video), developing ICT literacy, ICC, negotiation of meaning, criteria-based assessment	Choice of topic, technology, story board, own management, vote for the winning video, decision making	Requires technology-savvy S in each team, negotiation and teamwork, off-task involvement

has intensified the importance of foreign language learning with respect to the development of multiple literacies responding to complexities of social and intercultural encounters (Guth & Helm, 2011). Nowadays, the great richness of ICT opens up space for multifaceted forms of VEs in which learners, through virtual communication, cooperate in decision-making and problem-solving processes and present joint project outputs (e.g. research reports, videos, blogs, websites, business plans). Content-wise, currently many VEs in tertiary education focus on the fields of study of the involved parties, thus enabling them to foster both expert knowledge and soft-skills acquisition. Despite its potential, until recently, VEs had been implemented into courses only sporadically and very often only as an extra course activity undertaken by volunteer educators and their students. The remarkable step forward for VEs as an educational tool is that at present, they are considered as synergistic and complementary to physical exchange study programmes for young people (Erasmus+ Virtual Exchange). Simultaneously, the joint efforts of VE researchers and practitioners together with official bodies of the European Commission are aiming for recognition of VEs as a valid and effective pedagogical approach that would thus be integrated into standard curricula.

3.2 General VE task categories and the implementation process

Three virtual exchange task categories have been primarily used, varying according to their level of difficulty/complexity: information exchange tasks, comparison and analysis tasks, and finally, collaborative tasks (see Table 1).

An informative task provides online virtual partners with information, for example, about personal profiles of their counterparts (communicative, listening, social, cultural). Unlike the personal profile, which is highly individual and shared online mostly asynchronously and in writing, oral communication is practised through holding a synchronous online meeting. In addition to spoken interaction, this requires some collaboration and organisational skills such as setting up a chair and

following rules (e.g. who is going to speak and for how long). Comparative and analytical tasks are seen to be more demanding as they go a step further and include interactive comparisons such as exchanging quizzes, carrying out an opinion poll, and analysis (e.g. of the opinion poll results). These tasks have a significant cultural and linguistic focus. Collaborative tasks are the most challenging and complex, yet they are also often the most enjoyable and fulfilling. They aim at producing a joint outcome based on co-authoring (storyboard) and co-production (shooting a video), and always require a great deal of planning, coordinating and negotiating to reach agreement and finalise the multi-media product.

In virtual exchange activities students not only practise their communication and listening skills and the application of appropriate language use while engaging ICT skills by using tools to work with in Web 2.0 (Zoom or Skype for online meetings and Google Classroom for sharing). They discover new, potentially unfamiliar purposes and are compelled to look back, review situations, or view them from a different perspective. Moreover, focusing on the process as well as the outcome enables them to keep better control, engage more, and maintain a detached view. They are encouraged to decide and act autonomously within the well-defined framework while planning, organising and presenting individual steps which, in synthesis, always lead to the completion of an online exchange task. In short, they naturally apply their technological skills, learning and innovation skills (collaboration, creativity and communication), as well as career skills (social competencies, leadership and responsibility). The flow of the implementation process is as follows:

– in-class introduction of topics and tasks (managing the team; brainstorming; agreeing on action steps; linked tasking);

– in-class and out-of-class work (work on practical issues and tasks such as on-line meetings, quizzes, video, reports; consulting including language, content, and management issues; assessment through confirmation/modification);

– briefing and debriefing (strategy review; im-

pact and risk assessment; practical issues; action steps; results manifested in outputs and reports; lessons learnt; feedback through questionnaires).

4. VE FRAMEWORK AND VE TASK CATEGORIES AT MIAS CTU

4.1 General observations

VE practice at MIAS CTU has been implemented firstly into English for Intercultural Communication Courses (EICC) within the project Intercultural Communicative Competence – An Advantage for Global Employability (ICCAGE 2015-2017) and later applied to General English and Business English Courses using similar VE framework. In this paper, we focus primarily on EICC. The one semester courses have been run for resident, Erasmus and overseas students in higher education. Following a brief theoretical introduction of cultural models, values and dimensions students are provided with a framework which serves as an organised plan and enables them to get insight into instructional strategies, learning activities and assessment. It defines the basic content, tasks and criteria which students are supposed to consider on their learning path. As a guideline, it offers an adequate learning context to boost motivation and a friendly atmosphere helps to clarify objectives and set up strategies and a general time schedule for completing the tasks successfully. Thus, work and progress are easier to monitor. The framework offers solid ground, especially to uncertain and inexperienced students (and teachers) who are used to highly structured routines.

4.2 VE task categories

Although EICC aims primarily at raising intercultural awareness and the acquisition of openness to cultural differences through communication, comparison and negotiation, the VE framework also fosters the analytical and critical thinking skills of students, especially through self-reflection and the evaluation process.

In an attempt to organise the online VE tasks according to a level of difficulty and complexity, we use the categorisation offered by O'Dowd and Waire (2009) in Table 1 above, which divides into

'The remarkable step forward for virtual exchanges as an educational tool is that at present, they are considered as synergistic and complementary to physical exchange study programmes for young people'

information exchange tasks, comparison and analysis tasks, and collaborative tasks. General VE task categories and VE types in Table 1 match a specified VE task description, outcomes, and pitfalls of selected tasks implemented into the MIAS EICC courses. Table 1 also shows in which areas they support and develop learner autonomy, which builds on the idea that one of the functions of education, including foreign language learning, is to support learners in taking a more active role in participatory partnership. The descriptions in Table 1 are tailored for EICC, nevertheless, they can be modified to match a Business or General English course setting. The tasks work well both in heterogeneous and homogenous classes, however, the students' approach may differ according to these and other factors arising from their cultural, institutional and political backgrounds.

4.3 Informative tasks

The first informative task provides online virtual partners with information about the personal biographies (Table 1, Task 1a) of their counterparts. In their own personal profiles, students try to think and learn about themselves, their values, and corresponding cultural values and dimensions related to family, friendship, religion, education, gender, authority, attitude to space or time, and other. Meeting online (Task 1b) also functions as an extended introductory and networking activity.

4.4. Collaborative and analytical tasks

Comparative and analytical tasks (2a, b) include comparisons of 20 fact-oriented quiz questions of students' own choice on selected cultures (2a) and an analysis of 20-40 opinions collected in an opinion poll and summarised in opinion poll reports (3b). The relatively extensive number of

quiz questions and poll respondents were aimed at B2 language level and help students to search deeper and go beyond the easy and visible aspects of culture. The linguistic focus is on the formal register of report writing, including the use of the passive voice, reading numbers, or reported speech. A potential pitfall may arise when students underestimate the effort required for proper planning and preparation and the task may thus result as a simple information exchange.

4.5 Collaborative tasks

Collaborative tasks in the EICC course focus on identifying global and local artefacts in the country of students' study. Teams co-produce and shoot joint videos as their own digital story with which they join a school video contest. The videos are assessed by both students and the teacher.

The tasks offer different educational environments and create different learning opportunities. Thus, the learning process takes various forms using mostly semi-structured scaffolding format (agenda, report and debriefing templates) and common technologies (Skype, Zoom, Facebook, Google classroom and Google+) with attention to developing awareness of different types of learning strategies, individualising pace and time and cultivating the ability for continuous self-learning. In informal exchange (1a) students decide on individual chart design and selection of relevant personal priorities based on a set of illustrative examples. Organising and chairing an online meeting (1b) builds on the knowledge gained in project management majors. Thus, in 1b students are fully responsible for the planning and execution of the online meeting. However, they are provided with meeting minutes and report templates to better deal with various degrees of openness and awareness of the process. The templates also help learners later on to be able to complete similar tasks independently and avoid shallow summaries and conclusions.

4.6 The importance of debriefings

Linguistic factors, including grammar, spelling, and punctuation are often seen as marginal or de-

'Each virtual exchange may entail considerably different variables of extrinsic and intrinsic forces influencing its character'

motivating by students and thus indicate one of the weaknesses of using English as lingua franca. In comparison and analysis tasks (2a, b) as well as in collaborative tasks (3), a great deal attention is given to debriefings. Debriefings are more learner-centred and focus on student reflections on overall strengths and weaknesses. Observation and first-person narratives are commonly used and provide rich descriptions. Questions such as 'what did you think' and 'what did you feel' effectively demonstrate the interpretative approach and help to reveal emotional and rational layers of judgements. They also show to what extent one has the capacity to successfully apply autonomous learning skills to language learning. Semi-structured interviews used in opinion polls (2b) allow for spontaneity and flexibility and encourage students to examine their thought processes and describe their own experience. Participant observations (Tasks 2 and 3) are popular techniques which involve taking notes, mostly in the form of analytical memos.

Besides the choice of VE tasks which correspond with the target group of learners, there are other significant factors that may affect the nature of VEs. The following sections analyse the external and internal influences in the VE and discuss whether these have an impact on soft skill development.

5. EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL INFLUENCES ON VE

Each VE may entail considerably different variables of extrinsic and intrinsic forces influencing its character. Diverse institutional and organisational conditions such as the number of collaborating partners, the choice of partner teacher/s and class/es, the number and composition of students (culturally homogeneous or heterogeneous) in each

class, differences in the organisation of the academic year, time-zone disparities, and unevenness of design, content, requirements and assessment in the courses where exchange takes place, determine the background of a VE and need to be taken into account prior to the exchange itself. In addition, there are intrinsic aspects, such as personal traits, skills and knowledge, international and team work experience, cultural values, and language proficiency of each interacting individual which influence the overall nature of a VE.

As an example of how VE can be combined, VE practice between two university courses is now described. Over a period of eight to ten weeks, the intercultural VE was implemented in a Business English-Language course at Budapest Business School (BBS) in Hungary and in a course of English for Intercultural Communication at the Czech Technical University in Prague (CTU) in the Czech Republic. The university courses each had approximately 20 students, creating two parallel inter-university groups. One inter-university group was made up of second-year M.Sc. students of Project Management at MIAS School of Business at the CTU studying in the Czech Republic. The other was formed by 1st-year B.Sc. students at the Faculty of International Management and Business (BBS). Both inter-university groups were culturally mixed, mostly composed of local and Erasmus+ students studying at the CTU and BBS respectively. The cultures involved included the Czech Republic, Slovakia, South Korea, Russia, Portugal, Finland, Mexico and Taiwan, which enabled a range of varied and culturally rich perspectives. The local classes were divided into teams of 3 to 4 students, with the constant cooperation of two designated liaison teams from the partner universities. Each team appointed a team leader to be responsible for submitting the completed tasks, sharing information, sticking to deadlines, and communicating with their respective teachers.

The students used the Google+ community platform as a formal and monitored space for uploading all project outputs for their classmates and teachers to access and check. The teams also held three or four synchronous virtual meetings for the

initial team introduction and socialising moments as well as the decision-making processes as the module progressed. Team communication and virtual exchange with partners also occurred without monitoring in a wide range of applications chosen by the students and, due to differing university schedules. in-class debriefing sessions followed each VE activity, although activities such as writing and exchanging the knowledge quizzes, writing the reports collaboratively, and designing and creating the video together were done outside of class.

Although the students differed in age and study experience the differences in the cultural setting of the parallel groups did not seem to affect task completion or project results substantially. Despite initial barriers to communication caused by different perspectives and thought patterns with respect to hierarchy and approach to learner autonomy, students were highly motivated to complete the tasks once they understood their responsibilities. On the other hand, the empirical observations of over 15 VE implementations carried out at MIAS CTU between the years 2016-2019 confirm that the activities make heavy demands on the teacher's role. Unlike traditional teaching methods, university lecturers need to be able to act as facilitators, guides, monitors and e-moderators (Dooly, 2010). Their approach requires a higher level of flexibility, openness towards others and effective communication. In addition, the nature of VE calls on the teacher's ability to skilfully operate a variety of ICT applications and platforms.

6. CONCLUSION

VE tasks enable students to move from more routine in-class concepts and techniques to activities outside the classroom and got students involved creatively by supporting critical thinking, individual commitment, teamwork and the distribution of roles within the team.

The videos' effectiveness in collaborative tasks (Table 1, Task 3), measured through student perspectives, makes learning motivating and enjoyable and reveals related skills, from interpersonal to organisational. By filming live-action, real life and

experience are brought into the classroom. Introverted students admitted, however, that it was hard to accommodate their learning styles and abilities since they were forced to step out of their comfort zone just to find and perform a role that would not be overly stressful. As these students occasionally pointed out, they had preferred to work independently and carry the responsibility for completing the given tasks individually.

Students' comments are presented in the following samples that were provided in the final debriefing sessions as well as in their feedback questionnaires and final reports:

'It made me more curious.'

'The video project was fun and enabled us to be creative.'

'It was a great opportunity to work in a multinational team and with students from a different country.'

'Proactive approach to learning!'

'The most important thing – it was different, it wasn't just another subject with many power point presentations.'

'The language barrier and cultural differences were obstacles that we faced with our own local team as well as with the Hungarian partner team, especially at the beginning. But they were not insurmountable. We learnt to be more patient and polite. Furthermore, communicating virtually can take longer and be more challenging than communicating face-to-face.'

'The main finding is that no matter from which country we are, we were able to cooperate with one another. We were able to work on the same tasks. We were able to listen to and support one another.'

'We learnt that we needed to describe what we mean very thoroughly to get what we needed for our video task. But we all wanted to join the contest and were willing to work hard and finish what we set out to do.'

'I've learnt something about myself… that I am very direct… and that to be the team leader does not always mean to be respected as a leader.'

In general, the impact of the controlled use of VEs on learning is explicitly beneficial and enhan-

'The impact of the controlled use of VEs on learning is explicitly beneficial and enhances the learning process'

ces the learning process. Collaborative videos in particular, as a natural part of the contemporary learning environment, appeal to the senses and help students to process information. Another important consequence is that, unlike passively sitting in a traditional lecture, when students actively engage in this ICT-based activity, proposing their own product or performance, they enjoy a greater degree of satisfaction with the course and the subject itself.

Although students may report or even complain about different institutional requirements, different online behaviour of their team partners (different approach to time, deadlines or authorities, which need to be dealt with sensitively), we assume that they should not be protected from them. Different perceptions undoubtedly influence macro and micro management of the VE work and output, yet, if reflected critically, with provided guidance, they can contribute to learning from their own experience. Most students confirm in their final reflections that successful completion of tasks increases their motivation, brings a great deal of satisfaction and strengthens their confidence regardless of their origin.

Foreign language study that is designed within a multidisciplinary approach developed through virtual exchange enables students to explore real-life work understanding, knowledge and exposure. Additionally, communicating online across cultures in a foreign language is a notable transferable skill that is sought after to meet the current industry needs. Furthermore, through collaborative projects with other subjects, students better understand the utility of language education beyond classroom walls. Finally, virtual exchanges promote a wide variety of technological skills. Therefore, despite the challenges they may face, they are highly motivational and should be more systematically implemented in language teaching.

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Applying a task-based approach to authentic texts: An example of teaching a poem to lower level students of Greek as L2

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Authentic texts are a vital component of the task-based learning approach in classroom language acquisition. As they derive from the real-world they constitute a richer source of input and have the potential to raise learners' awareness of a wider range of discourse features. These qualities of authentic texts are aligned with the contemporary, broadest notion of task, which is not limited to meaning-focused activities and meaningful communication but encompasses focus on form and consciousness-raising of linguistic structures and processes as well. Authentic texts, as real-life input, containing cultural and linguistic information, can respond most effectively to one of the main objectives of task-based instruction, which is to provide a situational and interactional context for activating the language acquisition process. The emphasis on task modelled on real-world language expressions and on authentic response and the engagement of the learners also advocates the use of authentic texts as a source input for task-based language learning. In this article we explore the theoretical frame for the integration of authentic texts into tasks, emphasising the task authenticity criteria and the task typologies for authentic texts. At the end we present a teaching scenario showing how authentic materials and task-based learning can be implemented in teaching literature to lower level students, who are the least exposed to authentic language input in the classroom.

KEYWORDS: *task-based approach, authentic text, task authenticity, task typology, literature, L2*

1. THE NOTION OF TASK
1.1 The definition of task
The contemporary notion of task as pedagogical model is methodologically based on the frame of the communicative approach and is theoretically empowered by the findings of Second Language Acquisition research, especially by those theoretical models where appropriate language input, language output, negotiation of meaning, verbal interaction and implicit learning are considered vital to language acquisition. A task was initially described as *'a goal-oriented communicative activity with a specific outcome where the emphasis is on exchanging mean-ings, not producing specific language forms'* (Willis, 1996, p. 36). A similar precedence for meaning over form is given by Ellis (2003) in his definition of task as *'a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed'* (Ellis, 2003, p. 21). Language acquisition is, therefore, enabled by engaging learners in such tasks that require them to negotiate meanings, to involve authentic, relevant and real-life communicative interactions for meaningful purposes (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 223; Guariento & Morley, 2001, p. 349; Candlin, 2001, p. 233).

With time, as the ability of meaning-based language teaching alone to foster acquisition was called into doubt (Skehan, 1996, p. 40-42), language study was readmitted in the communicative approach and focus on form was embraced, particularly as consciousness-raising of language structures. This adjustment reflected the view that learners have many pedagogical needs which often demand engagement in more psycholinguistic and metalinguistic processes, such as repeating, noticing forms, hypothesising and conceptualising rules, which have been found by research as being conducive to language acquisition. In this context, task-based instruction ceased being perceived as *'an alternative to instruction which focuses on form'* (Bygate et al., 2001, p. 3) and in the pedagogy of today the notion of tasks, without losing their value as *'realistic communicative motivator'* (Skehan, 1996, p. 42), has been broadened to encompass personal and divergent tasks as well as more practical ones (Mishan, 2005).

1.2 Tasks taxonomy and skills

Nunan (1989) distinguishes between two types of tasks: real-world tasks and pedagogical tasks. The former is designed to exercise those skills that learners need to have so they respond effectively in the real world. This means that they *'require learners to approximate, in class, the sorts of behaviour required of them in the world beyond the classroom'* (Nunan, 1989, p. 40). In contrast to real-life tasks, pedagogical tasks are intended to engage learners in tasks they are unlikely to perform outside the class. They serve to prepare students for real-life language usage, acting as a bridge between the classroom and the real world (Long, 2015). Furthermore, they emphasise particular vocabulary and verb forms and, therefore, focus on skills within a narrow context. An example of a real-world task might be to read a classified advertisement and use the telephone to ask for more information about it and the corresponding pedagogical one would be to fill in an information gap exercise on it (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 231).

'Language acquisition is, therefore, enabled by engaging learners in such tasks that require them to negotiate meanings, to involve authentic, relevant and real-life communicative interactions for meaningful purposes'

In recent literature, Ellis (2003) makes a similar distinction of tasks into unfocused tasks and focused tasks. The unfocused tasks *'may predispose learners to choose from a range of forms but they are not designed with the use of a specific form in mind'* (Ellis, 2003, p. 16). Their aim is to create in the class conditions and opportunities for natural communication which can activate implicit learning processes and lead finally to language acquisition. In contrast, focused tasks, are employed to *'induce learners to process, receptively, or productively, some particular linguistic feature, for example, a grammatical structure'* (Ellis, 2003, p. 16). Of course, this processing must occur as a result of performing activities that satisfy the key criteria of a task, that is, that language is used meaningfully to achieve some non-linguistic outcome. Therefore, focused tasks have then two aims: *'one is to stimulate communicative language use (as with unfocused tasks), the other is to target the use of a particular predetermined target feature'* (Ellis, 2003, p. 16).

In any case, implementation of tasks requires the integration and combination of skills. The skills involved in carrying out these tasks are called by Nunan (1989) 'enabling' skills in the sense that they actually enact the tasks. The skills described can be receptive or productive, skills required to deal with the different media of input and output (reading, listening, speaking, writing), skills specific to the task (e.g. skimming and scanning of written texts required by extraction tasks), or collaborative and communicative skills, such as negotiating meaning, agreeing and disagreeing, exchanging instructional and explanatory input and so on (Mishan, 2005, p. 92-93).This combined engagement of different skills involves in turn combina-

'Tasks should reflect and be consistent with the authentic communicative purpose of the input text that they frame'

tions of linguistic and cognitive processes and this is the critical feature which makes the task model inherently authentic, for it replicates in the classroom these sorts of authentic combinations observed in real life where skills are not only deployed in isolation.

2. TASK AUTHENTICITY
2.1 Definition of task authenticity
As McGrath (2002, p. 114) puts it, *'the narrow concern with text authenticity that characterised the early years of the communicative movement has since given way to a concern for the nature of tasks'*. This shift of the attribute of authenticity from text to task was prepared by Widdowson (1983) and Van Lier (1996) and their concept of authenticity. Both recognised that authenticity lies more on the interaction between the learner and the input text, rather than on the input text itself. It depends on the learner's response to it. This assumption has critical implications for the pedagogical context, as it implies that authenticity depends more on the tasks devised by the teacher and performed by the learner around a text, rather than its having occurred in a 'real' environment. In other words, *'authenticity is basically a personal process of engagement'* (Van Lier, 1996, p. 28), a factor of the learner's involvement with the task.

2.2 Task authenticity criteria
Within this context six criteria of task authenticity can be determined (Mishan, 2005, p. 75-83).

2.2.1 Retention of the original communicative purpose
The communicative purpose refers to what people want to do or accomplish through speech (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983, p. 13). Tasks should reflect and be consistent with the authentic communicative purpose of the input text that they

frame. Reference to the literature on text genres (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990), shows – roughly – that there are texts intrinsically intended to inform (news broadcasts), to persuade (advertisements), to interact (oral/electronic dialogues), to provoke (newspaper articles) or to engage (poems). Since communicative purpose is not the sole factor in identifying genre, a set of communicative intents are often identified and deployed within the same text. As Swales points out, the obvious communicative purpose of a news broadcast may be informative, but elements of persuasive intents may be included as well – for instance, to influence public opinion (Swales, 1990, p. 47). Retaining the authenticity of an authentic text means retaining its inherent communicative purpose(s) through tasks which correspond to what one is expected to do with the text (Grellet, 1981, p. 9). For instance, in the case of a newspaper article whose original intention is to provoke, the task assigned should involve responding to this provocation: e.g. writing a letter on the article to the editor, or, in the case of a poem whose inherent purpose is to cause engagement, the tasks devised should trigger emotions and imagination (Mishan, 2005, p. 80). Anyway, the use of an authentic text exclusively to teach a specific language form (e.g. the use of a weather forecast only to teach the future tense morphology), constitutes a false use of the text which largely undermines its authenticity.

2.2.2 Appropriacy
The first criterion can be realised by ensuring appropriacy of the task to the input text. For example, asking learners to sing a song is an appropriate task, whereas inserting comprehension questions when narrating a humorous anecdote is probably inappropriate. Equally, answering questions, particularly when the questioner already knows the answer is an inauthentic and mechanistic process, more suitable to classroom management than to pedagogy (Long, 2015, p. 45). Especially when dealing with literature, maintaining appropriacy means devising tasks which respect all affective implications and stay sensitive to the emotions that this text genre may evoke. Furthermore, the con-

cept of task appropriacy has to do with the deployment of language skills, similar to those applied by native speakers when processing language input (e.g. skimming, scanning, etc.) This emerges out of the view that partial comprehension is an entirely authentic cognitive situation and that often a word-to-word study of a text is an inappropriate procedure. For instance, it would be artificial to require detailed comprehension of a page of classified advertisements. What is, therefore, needed is the development of strategies corresponding to the true purpose of learners' interactions with a given text type (Grellet, 1981, p. 4).

2.2.3 Response and engagement

Tasks should ensure and activate an authentic response to the text by the students. Respecting the authentic communicative purpose of a text implies eliciting in the class a response adapted to this original purpose, that is similar to the one performed by native speakers in the real world. This expectation of a personalised, genuine response to a text, means also designing tasks which prepare and equip the learners to deal with the language and the content of a given text. This response may be either internal, affective/ cognitive (pleasure/curiosity), or external (action). In any case, it implies some level of involvement or engagement which, in the language acquisition context, is vital to task authenticity (Guariento & Morley, 2001, p. 350-351). In other words, authenticity lies in great measure in the hands of the learner who performs the task. Consequently, a failure of engagement in the task equals failure in its authenticity.

2.2.4 Activation of learners' existing knowledge

Since learners do not enter the class as tabula rasa, either linguistically nor culturally, tasks should activate their existing knowledge of the target language and culture. For this purpose, a kind of pre-task, intended to 'milk' learners for prior knowledge of the subject or the language (vocabulary/grammar) of a text, are employed. On a linguistic level such tasks are highly beneficial since they alert students to the context of the new input

and equip learners with some of the language/concepts included in it. On an affective level, these pre-tasks, by certifying prior knowledge, encourage the learners and strengthen their incentives to proceed. Furthermore, when implementing a task, the learner's native culture is inevitably interfered with, and this interference should be seriously considered when designing tasks. This awareness is essential as, in the end, *'authentication of the task by the learner is in part a factor of the cultural baggage, both native and foreign, that they bring to it'* (Mishan, 2005, p. 74).

2.2.5 Approximate real-life tasks

Tasks should approximate real-world behaviours (Nunan, 1989) and have a *'clear relationship with real-world needs'* (Guariento & Morley, 2001, p. 350). In this context, tasks should help learners rationalise and replicate, in a very conscious and explicit way, activities that native speakers are performing subconsciously. Therefore, tasks which externalise experiences which for native speakers are internal can be said to be authentic. For instance, listening to or watching the news and, at the same time, writing down the main issues, main characters etc.

2.2.6 Purposeful communication

Tasks should involve genuine, purposeful communication between learners when pursuing the task goal. In other words, tasks should *'engage learners in the authentic, practical and functional use of language for meaningful purposes'* (Candlin, 2001, p. 233). These purposes can range from practical activities, such as replying to an Email, to ones associated with the specific context of the language classroom. Even if tasks which are implemented within a classroom are not equivalent to tasks which serve real life goals, they still require structured simulations.

3. TASK TYPOLOGIES FOR AUTHENTIC TEXTS

Advocating the bond between the Tasк-Based Approach and authentic texts, Mishan (2005) delicately describes it as a 'felicitous marriage; in that

both derive from the real world. It is true that authentic texts, defined as *'a stretch of real language by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort'* (Morrow, 1977, p. 13), are a vital component of task-based instruction. They provide *'a much richer source of input in the classroom and have the potential to raise learners' awareness of a wider range of discourse features'* (Gilmore, 2011, p. 791). In this sense, they *'afford students opportunities to communicate meaning through real-life*

artefacts containing informational and linguistic input' (Widodo, 2012, p. 249).

3.1 Task types for authentic texts

Based on the theoretical background of the task-based model, a set of tasks types for authentic texts can be generated. The set presented in the table below is a combination of the typologies proposed by Maley (1994) and Mishan (2005) and is specifically conceived for integrating authentic texts into tasks (Table 1).

Table 1

Task types for authentic texts based on Maley (1994) and Mishan (2005)

TASK TYPE	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLES
Expansion/Reduction/ Prediction	Add or remove something from the text, predict the development/outcome of event or situation presented via language input	Add or remove specific language items (e.g. adjectives, verbs), sentences, paragraphs. Add comments, combine sentences, identify with a character in the text and develop characterisation
Response/Reaction	Response or reaction (written, oral or kinaesthetic) to input of an emotive or non-emotive nature	Make/alter plans on the basis of a weather forecast, listen
Transference/Reformulation	Transference (translation or paraphrase) from one medium, genre, or culture to another. Express the same meaning in a different form, rewrite the text in a different style, mood or format	Transfer prose into a visual form. Turn it into a poem or a screenplay. Turn a poem into prose or create an advertising slogan from it. Turn a headline into a proverb or tell a story in a different format. Retell a story from notes/memory/keywords
Reconstruction	Restore coherence/completeness to an incomplete or defective text	Remove sentences which do not «belong» in the text, insert appropriate words/phrases into gapped texts, reorder jumbled words, lines, paragraphs etc.
Analysis	Awareness-raising of linguistic forms and functions and of the emotive/figurative/subjective use of language	Analyse conversational strategies on the basis of dialogues in interviews or films
Matching	Find a correspondence between the text and something else	Match text with a visual representation, a title, another text, voice, music
Interpretation/Inferencing	Engage with the text, relating it to personal knowledge/experience, interpreting and inferring, information or concepts	Associate text with ideas, images, formulate questions for the text's author, infer the setting, basic story etc.
Comparison/Contrast	Identify points of similarity/difference between two or more texts	Identify, compare common words/expressions/ ideas/facts in both texts
Creating Text	Use the text as a springboard for the creation of others	Use the same story/outline/title to write a new text or write a parallel text on a different theme
Extraction	Extract factual information (including cultural indicators) from the text	Extract factual information (e.g. price, unique features of product) from advertisements

3.2 Discussion

This typology reflects the contemporary permutation of the task-based approach and its progressive course from a meaning-focused orientation to a gradual encompassing of focus on form and the consciousness-raising of linguistic structures and processes. The task types proposed require cognitive processes such as extracting, comparing and then reformulating information which encourage *'constant effort by learners to deploy their language resources in the classroom'* (Prabhu, 1987, p. 93), to use language purposefully and exercise language skills. This illustrates the communicative background of this typology. At the same time, the inclusion of a task type dedicated to linguistic analysis reveals the embrace of language study within this existing communicative frame. Moreover, this set of task types implements the criteria for task authenticity, drawn up above, emphasising the adherence to the intrinsic communicative purpose of the input text and the eliciting of the learners' response to it. This means that each task type appears on the table as a result of a procedure where the various communicative purposes of texts were identified and 'realistic' ways to serve these purposes were devised. More specifically, every task type answers this question. Which activity would induce a genuine response on behalf of the learners to the language input, similar to that performed by native speakers in the real-world? For instance, a TV news bulletin whose communicative function is to inform would be harmonised with an extraction or inference task type. Or, the response to a piece of literature with an overt engaging intent would be best illustrated by response or interpretation task types which involve interaction with the text through one's own experience.

Certainly, the intrinsic communicative function of a text doesn't constrain authentic response to it to a single task type. Each communicative purpose may stimulate a number of potential responses, all equally authentic (Mishan, 2005, p. 91). In other words, a poem whose implicit purpose is to engage, can activate a plethora of authentic responses and interactions in the form of tasks. Finally, there are many cases in the classroom where the

'Each communicative purpose may stimulate a number of potential responses, all equally authentic'

boundaries between task typologies don't remain so distinct. Indicative is the case of Analysis, a task type focused on language study, which could be equally well integrated into the frame of another task. Language issues can emerge naturally in any of the tasks and either these will be clarified on the spot, or later in a dedicated language focus lesson (Mishan, 2005, p. 93).

4. AUTHENTIC TASKS FOR LITERATURE
4.1 Teaching 'The City' by C. P. Cavafy to lower level students of Greek as L2

What follows is a detailed teaching scenario based on the task typologies for authentic texts as described above. The input text is a poem and the tasks were chosen on the basis of reflecting the learners' response to it, in alignment with its primary communicative function. In order to elicit an authentic response, similar to native speakers, and to fulfil the original engaging intent of a poem, tasks should create favourable conditions for stimulating a personal reaction (intellectual or affective) to the text. They should care for engagement which, in real life may be unconscious or implicit, but within the class can be externalised in different ways, such as writing down the feelings awakened in the reader by the poem, discussing feelings with others, drawing a picture etc. Other affective genuine responses to literature may be as well pleasure, outrage, tears or even silence. As Bassnet and Grundy (1993) wrote, *'there are silences which it is not appropriate for anyone, teacher or learner, to fill'* (Bassnet & Grundy, 1993, p. 6).

Constantine Peter Cavafy is one the most famous Greek modern poets. He was born and brought up in Egypt of Greek parents and died in Alexandria in 1933 at the age of 70. He was a journalist, a civil servant and, what he is most remembered for, a poet. The poem is reproduced below (The City by C. P. Cavafy, translated by © 1975, 1992 Edmund Keeley and Philip Sherrard):

You said: 'I'll go to another country, go to ano-ther shore,
find another city better than this one.
Whatever I try to do is fated to turn out wrong
and my heart lies buried like something dead.
How long can I let my mind mould in this place?
Wherever I turn, wherever I look,
I see the black ruins of my life, here,
where I've spent so many years, wasted them, destroyed them totally.'
You won't find a new country, won't find ano-ther shore.
This city will always pursue you.
You'll walk the same streets, grow old
in the same neighbourhoods, turn grey in these same houses.
You'll always end up in this city. Don't hope for things elsewhere:
there' s no ship for you, there's no road.
Now that you've wasted your life here, in this small corner,
you've destroyed it everywhere in the world.

4.2 Task-based learning activities

Following the guidelines for task authenticity and using task typologies as a point of reference when dealing with a poem, some of the potential task types could be the following (see also Mishan, 2005):

– response: visualisation of audio input (e.g. identify and visualise the voice of the characters introduced);

– extension: empathise with the characters involved (e.g. draw a portrait of them or build their profile);

– analysis: analyse lexical features of the poem and their imaginative effect (e.g. choose one part of speech – adjectives, adverbs, verbs – and change, by substituting others, each of the chosen parts of speech within the poem);

– analysis: use linguistic and cultural knowledge to fill gaps (e.g. give the start of the text and learners imagine the rest);

– analysis: to consider implications of lexical choices (e.g. produce a strategically gapped version of a suitable poem, give two feasible alternatives, see the impact of the choice on the text);

– inference: infer poetic voices (e.g. infer who is speaking or mark the words of each speaker);

– transference: engage with a poem by interacting with it (e.g. draw a picture, or series of pictures (cartoon), write a dialogue, sequel or prequel);

– extension: engage with poetry through its themes (e.g. write a dialogue illustrating the theme of the poem, write a poem or piece of prose on the theme of the poem).

4.3 Working with levels of lower proficiency

Especially when it comes to lower proficiency levels (the levels most deprived of authentic input), literature texts should be approached through non-threatening tasks: kinaesthetic (e.g. choral reading, acting, miming), non-verbal (e.g. drawing) or single word responses. In the teaching scenario proposed, in order to facilitate learners' access to the poem, so called pre-tasks were implemented at the beginning of the teaching process. These tasks aimed at detecting and activating existing knowledge (linguistic and cultural), in order to prepare learners regarding the content of the text and to equip them linguistically before exposing them to it. This way, an initial level of comprehension was assured, capable of stimulating a genuine response:

(1) Warm-up/Prediction: Content and language preparation in two parts.

i. Present a painting which gives a hint of the content/atmosphere of the poem. Attentive/Creative observation through questions (D. Perkins Model). What are you noticing? What does it make you think? How does it make you feel? Does it re-

mind you of another painting/melody? Is there something missing? How do you describe the person in the painting? Where is he? What is he doing? Where was it before or where will it go afterwards? Which are its thoughts/feelings?

ii. Text production in groups. Give to each group a set of words included in the first verse of the poem. The person in the painting can speak. Use some of these words (the lonely man, spent, city, land, chance, I'll go) and write in the first person what he said.

(2) Reception/Response/Interpretation in three steps.

FIRST VERSE

i. Audio reception of the first verse twice.

ii. Response. Did you like it? Did you understand its words? Was it positive or negative? First thought/picture? Did you keep a word? Were you expecting this? Was it close to your story?

iii. Silent reading (first part of the poem).

iv. Interpretation. Content analysis questions. What's the hero's strong desire? Why does he want to leave? Where to? Did he try to leave? Which words in this verse match to the verbs 'feel', 'think', 'see'? What is the hero looking for? Why will the new city be 'better'?

v. Extension. Are you familiar with the mind state of the hero? Are you identifying yourself with this dilemma? Could the hero be one of us? Work in groups and create this profile.

vi. Who says this 'you said' at the beginning of the poem? Who does the hero address? How would you answer him?

SECOND VERSE

i. Audio reception of the second verse.

ii. Silent reading (second part of the poem).

iii. Response/Interpretation. How did you find the answer that the poet gave to the hero? How close was your answer? Is there a new city waiting for him? Why will this city always follow him? In which way will the city follow him? Who is responsible for his destroyed life? Which words in the last line are creating an intensive antithesis?

iv. Analysis. Which grammatical types are creating an atmosphere of inevitable, eternal repetition?

'Especially when it comes to lower proficiency levels (the levels most deprived of authentic input), literature texts should be approached through non-threatening tasks: kinaesthetic (e.g. choral reading, acting, miming), non-verbal (e.g. drawing) or single word responses'

TOTAL REPONSE TO THE WHOLE POEM

i. Audio reception of the whole poem.

ii. Reading in chorus or in two groups. One reads the first verse (the statement) and the second one reads the second verse (the answer).

iii. Inferencing. Give a title to the poem. What does the city symbolise? What is your relationship with your city? Which characteristics of your city are you carrying inside you? Are you identifying yourself with the feelings of the hero? Where would you like to escape from?

iv. Transference. Write a dialogue out of the poem. Associate the poem with one of the paintings. Make a drawing out of the poem, put a melody to the poem. Retell the poem as if it were a fairy tale. Acting out the poem, find one with a similar subject in your language.

v. Creating new text. Write a letter to the poet.

vi. Analysis. Gap filling exercise.

5. CONCLUSION

The teaching example presented here show how the task-based learning model can enable authentic texts to be used successfully with lower level students of a foreign language. In the specific teaching example presented, besides the task-based learning model, upon which the whole lesson was structured and developed, methodological elements derived from Aesthetic Response and Perkin's Model were also incorporated. Aesthetic Response Theory gives overt priority to the readers' response to texts and not to the texts per se or to their meaning (Iser, 1991, p. 26). The quality ingredient of this response is the autonomy of the learner, who is heading towards a creative reading

process driven by predictions, denials, language decoding and reflection. According to this principle, the poem's approach was completed in three levels of reception and through tasks which reconciled learners' experiences and expectations with their language proficiency level and the original communicative purpose of the text.

On the other hand, the Perkins Model (1994)

pursues learners' stochastic and linguistic activation through art. Based on this pursuit, the pre-tasks devised for this specific poem, involved the exploitation of an Edward Hopper painting, with the intention of activating – through observation and reflection questions – the cultural and linguistic background of learners, preparing the access to the authentic input text.

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Language for work matters

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As migration increases worldwide and European economies are increasingly dependent on migrant workers, the issue of language skills development in the language(s) of the host country (L2) is of growing importance. Migrants need work-related L2 skills to find suitable employment, participate in work and society, and progress. Employers need L2-competent employees to offer quality products and services for the benefit of the whole society. Work-related L2 development is a democratic, social and economic imperative: it is an issue of social justice and peace as well as economic development for individuals, economies and whole societies. This paper seeks to give evidence why L2 for work matters: it highlights the interdependency of work, technology and communication and the central role of communication and language, understood as social practice, in today's workplaces. It illustrates the language requirements and needs for migrant workers. It offers examples of how to support work-related L2 learning in formal, non-formal and informal learning environments. The paper draws on research and practices across Europe collected and further developed by the Language for Work (LfW) project. LfW refers to two European projects and an international network sponsored by the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML), an agency of the Council of Europe. It concludes with an invitation for researchers to investigate how digitisation will impact communication at work and for work and how people react to it, in order to develop a proper offer for formal, non-formal and informal L2 learning.

1. INTRODUCTION

This article discusses research into ways to support adult migrants developing the majority language of the country of residence for work, at work, and through work in the context of their linguistic integration in Europe. It draws on work sponsored by the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML), an agency of the Council of Europe, in connection with two Language for Work (LfW) projects (LfW, 2019a; LfW, 2019b).

The first part of the article examines the rationale for supporting work-related second language (L2) development by adult migrants. It considers the role of language in and at work (including today's demand that employees at all levels be effective communicators); the role of migration in relation to recent structural changes in work and society, and why support for labour market integration of adult migrants is seen as a democratic, social and economic imperative for most European countries. It concludes by analysing the understanding of language and language learning that underpins the LfW work and its implications for those who support work-related L2 development inside and outside educational settings. The second part of the article reviews learning from the two LfW projects and looks forward to future developments.

2. WORK, COMMUNICATION AND TECHNOLOGY

2.1 Why support work-related language development for adult migrants?

Work – productive activity – and communication are two fundamental and deeply interconnected aspects of the human experience, at the level of both the individual and society. As an essentially collaborative activity, work is hardly possible without communication among people, between people and machines and artefacts. Likewise, 'work', in the sense of purposeful, collaborative activity, provides both the context and object of much of our communication. In turn, both work and communication are deeply informed by a third human fundamental, the use of technology.

Throughout the various industrial eras, as historians of work point out, technological innovations have transformed not only work activity and its organisation but also workplace communication (Boutet, 2001). These technological transformations have been so radical that scholars speak of 'industrial revolutions', three or four of them, according to different perspectives. The centrality of work has meant that the changes ushered in by these various so-called 'industrial' revolutions have extended far beyond the immediate production of good and services to the whole society, including education, welfare, and the basic organisation of social life.

The long phase of the first industrial revolution – covering the 18th and the 19th centuries – was based on mechanisation and steam power. Workplace communication was centred on oral exchanges to communicate duties and regulations. From the late 19th century on, we have witnessed a sharp acceleration in technological development, accompanied by the rise of new economic and industrial models based on large factories like the Ford car plants, ushering in the second industrial revolution. Mass production, assembly lines, electrical energy, and vertical forms of work organisation transformed industry including production and services. A dichotomy in the organisation of work and in the use of language at work transformed the long-standing distribution of written

and oral communication. *'Speaking and working were antagonistic activities. Talking wastes time, distracts, hinders focus on the actions to be done. In a certain sense, at managerial level where work was conceived and organised the written form prevailed, on the shop floor, where it was carried out, silence'* (Boutet, 2001, p. 17).

From the second half of the 20th century, electronics and information technology have brought about the third industrial revolution, characterised by globalised economic systems, underpinned by automation, standardisation and service industries, and engendering a raft of radical changes to in work activity, work organisation and workplace communication. Communication and language – as a subset of communication – are now central to work. Oral and written language skills are now requested by all employees, in all sectors and positions as part of vocational competence.

Today, the fourth revolution is underway, developing at an exponential pace. It has been characterised as a 'merging technology' – Cyber Physical Systems (CPS) – that blurs the lines between the physical, digital and human spheres: the internet of things and networks (including communication between machines and human beings). *'With information and communication technology informing modern work through the use of microelectronics, new technologies and digital media, a new epochal industrial development stage has been reached. Its main feature is the online networking of machines, equipment and logistics systems via Cyber-Physical Systems (CPS), in principle worldwide. People, machines, means of production, services and products communicate directly with each other. Ultimately, Cyber Physical Systems network the virtual computer world with the physical world of things'* (Dehnbostel, 2018).

In their extent and depth, these changes are a sign of transformations in the entire production, management and governance systems, including communication. Work sociologists, VET researchers and others follow with extreme attention the transformations in this rapidly changing world, in order to identify the future of work and the technical and communicative skills that tomorrow will

most probably demand.

2.2 Language and communication at work today

In today's workplaces, with their prescribed and audited regimes of quality control and compliance with safety legislation, their focus on teamwork and customer service, communication and language are clearly central to work, constituting the linguistic part of the work. Literacy skills for so-called mother-tongue and second language speakers have thus become vocational skills. In France they are recognised as such by law.

The following examples illustrate how work organisation, legislation and new technologies have created new communicative practices in the so-called 'post-Fordist' workplace (Grünhage-Monetti & Kimmelmann, 2012). They are taken from interviews carried out by the study group of the Deutsch am Arbeitsplatz (German in the Workplace) research project, sponsored by the Volkswagen Foundation.

Table 1
Feedback on work organisation and communication

WORK ORGANISATION	COMMUNICATIVE PRACTICES	THOSE CONCERNED SAY …
Decentralised forms of work organisation	Communicating and explaining decisions and solutions to colleagues and management	*'The employee has to make independent decisions at night. He also needs to justify his decisions'* (Operations manager)
Quality assurance	Communicating changes in work processes	*'We have so-called 'five-minute talks' every morning to discuss quality assurance'* (Operation manager)
	Reading and writing documentation	*'Every handshake [detail] has to be documented'* (Worker)
Certification / auditing	Describing and explaining own error management	*'The auditor addresses the worker, points to the defect-catalogue and asks what they would do in case of such an error'* (Head of personnel)
Automation, robotisation, new technologies	Reading displays Communicating changes/errors	*'You cannot rely on work routines. Sometimes there a minor change – you have to read it thoroughly every time'* (Skilled worker)
	Reporting and recording	*'We upload reports on all our clients contacts to an online system'* (Social worker)
Health and safety	Reading and writing short records Understanding training (compulsory and legally binding)	*'The cleaning and disinfection of the kitchen are also written down by the workers and signed'* (Kitchen worker)

Such practices require literacy skills in reading, writing, speaking and listening: a challenge and a hurdle for many low-skilled workers, in particular for speakers of other languages. It is here that the dimension of today's migration interplays with the communicative requirements of the workplace and gives momentum to the issue of language for and at work.

2.3 Migration, employment and language

Although migration has been a key feature throughout Europe's history, in the last few decades immigration flows have considerably changed the socio-demographic structure of many European countries, posing challenges in the light of the changed work structures and requirements.

According to Eurostat, on 1st January 2018 the

'Improved goods and services through better language skills are an asset for the whole society, not only for employees and employer'

'number of people residing in an EU member state with citizenship of a non-member country was 22.3 million, representing 4.4 % of the EU-28 population. In addition, there were 17.6 million persons living in one of the European Union member states with the citizenship of another EU member state' (Eurostat, 2019a). Within a population of 508 mln (Eurostat, 2019b), the distribution of non-nationals varies considerably. Germany has the largest number of non-nationals with 9.7m; Luxembourg – the highest rate of 48%, while Poland and Romania (0.6%) and Lithuania (0.9%) have the lowest (Eurostat, 2019c).

If we consider Europe, as constituted in the Council of Europe, in 2017 its population included just under 78 million international migrants – that is, people who were living in a country other than their country of birth. In the world ranking, Germany takes the third place with 12 mln, the UK fifth with 9 mln; France seventh with 8 mln, and followed not far behind by Spain and Italy, each with 6 mln (United Nations, 2017, p. 6). The large majority of these migrants, particularly upon arrival, are of working age (United Nations, 2017, p. 17), and work is typically the first context that migrants mention when asked about their use of L2 (ISTAT, 2014; Braddell & Miller, 2017).

At the same time, and very much linked to these developments as well as to demographic change, migrants have come to play a crucial role in many economies. Taking into consideration the language requirements of today's workplaces, this reliance on migrant labour, particularly in lower-paid sectors, poses communicative challenges for all concerned. Labour market shortages in the less attractive sectors often lead to the recruitment of migrants with quite limited communicative skills in the language of the host country. Yet, in most cases, formal support for language learning ends when migrants gain employment. For many, particularly those with limited, interrupted or no formal education, long hours and low pay discourage further participation in formal language learning – leaving many in a 'low-pay, limited-language trap', with negative consequences for the individuals and the economy of the country of residence (Sterling, 2015). Improved goods and services through better language skills are an asset for the whole society, not only for employees and employers.

2.4 Reconceptualising language: the social turn

Not only have language requirements changed, but so too has the understanding of language and language acquisition, taking a social turn (Ortega, 2009; Ellis, 2008). Language is not only a formal system of grammar and lexis to be learnt in the classroom, or a vehicle to exchange information. Today it is conceived as an instrument to construct social realities, including the vocational.

Communication is an interactive process, involving all who are party to the process. Negotiation of meaning, likewise, is bi- or multilateral and depends on more than just linguistic form. In any act of communication, therefore, all those involved share responsibility for mutual understanding. In relation to the linguistic integration of adult migrants, this understanding that responsibility is shared points helpfully towards the support that L1 speakers can give to migrants. In the context of work, this includes employees, employers and colleagues as well as labour market administrative entities and trade unions. All actors and their language artefacts are responsible for effective and efficient communication at work (LfW, 2019c).

3. LANGUAGE FOR WORK
3.1 Background
Between 2012 and 2018, the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML, an agency of the Council of Europe) sponsored work to create a European professional development network for professionals supporting work-related L2 learning by adult migrants and ethnic communities: *Language*

for Work 1: Developing migrants' language competences at work and Language for Work 2: Tools for professional development (LfW, 2019b). Over the course of seven years, the Language for Work (LfW) projects brought together some 120 professionals from over 30 European countries, as well as the Russian Federation and Canada, to explore issues related to work-related L2 language learning by adult migrants and ethnic communities, at a series of seminars and workshops held at the headquarters of the ECML in Graz in Austria. Actors in these events included researchers, language learning providers, policy makers, trade unionists and others, including many with personal experience of work-related language learning as adult migrants themselves.

Together, these actors established a professional development network with a website available in English and French to hold resources (in many languages) related to support for work-related language learning by adult migrants and ethnic communities (LfW, 2019a). Collectively, LfW professionals also developed a number of evidence-based resources themselves, over the course of the two LfW projects, including:

– quick guide on how to help adult migrants develop work-related language skills (available in 14 languages);

– collection of practice examples, illustrating diversity of ways developed across Europe and beyond to support work-related L2 learning;

– checklist of competences useful for different actors to support work-related L2 development;

– communicating with migrants: a guide for staff in job centres and public services.

All are available through the LfW Network website (LfW, 2019a). The remainder of this paper considers the outcomes of the LfW work between 2012 and 2018.

3.2 Collecting examples of practice

Over the course of its two projects, LfW sought out and recorded numerous examples of diverse practice, through its network of practitioners (i.e. researchers, teachers, policy makers, etc.).

By collecting examples of ways to support and

'Over the course of its two projects, Language for Work sought out and recorded numerous examples of diverse practice, through its network of practitioners (i.e. researchers, teachers, policy makers, etc.)'

promote work-related L2 development, LfW pursued three goals: documenting different practices; identifying how these support learning in different contexts and the key actors involved; and gathering data to deduce competences helpful to the key actors to put in place specific forms of support.

Ultimately some 35 examples were chosen to give an overview of the wide spectrum of educational offers in the various European countries and Canada, from innovative provision in more 'traditional' educational contexts like vocational schools to completely new arrangements in companies, integrating formal, non-formal and informal learning (LfW, 2019d).

A set of categories were developed to describe the practices, aiming to capture their main features, including the type of support offered, for whom, how, and where. When analysed in this way, key actors emerge, brought together in different constellations to support work-related L2 learning, in various different settings, including language and VET classrooms, community learning centres, workplace training rooms, on the job (i.e. at work stations), and online – or in several of these settings simultaneously.

As with all models, the LfW categorisations offer generalised constructs. Nor are these descriptions and models of practice intended to be exhaustive. There must be many other practices LfW is not aware of – not least because new forms of work organisation and freelance employment models are taking hold, such as the so-called 'gig' economy, in which migrants are over-represented. Similarly, they are over-represented in the fields of domestic help and care of elderly, often working alone in the homes of their employers, with or without contracts.

3.3 Identifying competences for different supporters in different settings

Drawing on the compilation of practice examples and on the expertise of the network members as teachers, teacher-trainers and researchers, LfW constructed a checklist of skills helpful to the various supporters of work-related L2 learning (LfW, 2019e).

The competences are organised by supporter, in the range of settings where opportunities exist for different combinations of actors to support work-related L2 learning. The following example for a language teacher shows the specific type of skills indicated, when working outside of the standard educational domain. The teacher will be (1) familiar with ethnographic methods and instruments to identify the language and communication needs of learners and employers; (2) able to develop a realistic curriculum on the basis of the needs analysis, language level of the learners and structural conditions (e.g. time); (3) willing to raise awareness of workplace actors for the role of language as part of vocational competence (LfW, 2019e).

3.4 Developing guidance

LfW developed two practice-oriented guides. A 'Quick guide' is a guide to help adult migrants develop work-related language skills and offers practical information and tips to practitioners supporting L2 development for work, at work and through work. Communicating with Migrants is a guide for staff in job centres and public services which addresses both managers and front-desk staff interacting with clients with limited language skills in order to ensure a more effective delivery of services. It describes practical strategies and advice for managers on how to support their own staff in meeting communication challenges in today's increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse working context, and it gives tips to all staff on how to communicate more efficiently. Both guides are practice-oriented and illustrated by thumb-nail case studies, with some explanation of the research-based theoretical understandings that underpin the guide.

LfW network members have translated these guides into a range of different languages (LfW, 2018; LfW, 2019f).

4. CASE STUDIES

4.1 Revisiting teaching and learning practices

The structural and technological changes in globalised work (and society), as described above, are blurring the traditional distinction between first, second and foreign language(s). New language skills are demanded by all employees across different sectors and positions. If understood as social practice, language use, language learning and teaching in and for the new work order raise ethical issues as well. Both language teaching and learning should be 'revisited' in order to cater for language learning provision and support meeting the changed and changing needs and requirements. The following case studies give an idea of the wide spectrum of challenges facing employees, language practitioners (i.e. teachers and providers) as well as researchers. They draw on personal experience and the contribution of the LfW network members.

4.2 Social care in Sweden

In care of the elderly, digitisation and quality management systems have been changing documentation requirements. In Sweden, for example, documentation is mandatory, and must follow specific rules. The single entries make up digital journals, which can be read by managers or relatives. They must contain facts, and not subjective opinions. Instead of writing *Lisbeth was sad*, which is a judgment, the carer must write what s/he has observed, as in *Lisbeth said that she was sad*. Instead of *Sven was angry and aggressive towards the nurse – Sven reacted actively and struck the nurse.* These new demands require cognitive and linguistic skills: the worker must evaluate their own perceptions, to distinguish facts from judgments, and then choose suitable language.

4.3 Logistics in Germany

In Germany the great majority of couriers are young migrant men with limited L2 skills. They are

taught the relevant basics in a German crash-course, alongside a technical induction (Werthenbach, 2018). This proves sufficient to cope with the communicative requirements of a properly functioning system of parcel registration and delivery. But as soon as technical problems occur, they must deviate from the routine, read and understand the error message on the scanner and follow the instruction provided. The language chunks learnt in the crash course are often not sufficient to master the stressful situation of error management, as a customer reports in a telephone interview with Cathrin Thomas at AWO Bielefeld:

'I helped the courier with the error messages of the system. He was panicking because he didn't understand the instructions on the scanner and couldn't explain the problem. It wasn't until I looked at the device myself and showed him where to type on the touchpad that he was able to solve the problem and deliver my package. A huge difference to the job of the good old postman of ten years ago!'

4.4 Call centres: An issue of ethics and language

To reduce salary costs in western countries, huge back-office centres are rising dynamically in less privileged or still developing regions. This development provides enormous demand for employees with specific and high language skills.

According to King (2009, p. 1), *'call centres involve connecting service-seeking customers from wealthy countries with service-providing workers from more multilingual, less economically powerful states or regions'*. Globalisation and digital communication are deeply changing the way languages are conceptualised. Languages lose their meaning as a mean of communication. They are rather treated as a commodity that can be sold to a richer business partner. Language practices are conceptualised as separated from the 'speaker'. They are reduced to means of production, and to a product (Urciuoli & LaDousa, 2013).

In a pilot study, Bobowska (2018), master student at the university of Luxemburg, investigates one of the biggest Swiss global bank back office

located in Wrocław, Poland, to illustrate the complex and the contradictory use of languages for professional purposes in nowadays labour markets.

In order to deliver services for the headquarter in Zurich, investment banking offices in London and New York as well as IT services for Singapore and Hong-Kong, the Polish call centre employees need high oral and written competences in German and English. They all have a Master and often a Doctor title, while none of the employees in the previous call-centre in Switzerland had a university degree, not even a Batchelor. To comply with the wishes (and avoid the complaints) of many private Swiss customers they are supposed to speak 'Switzer Dütsch' with them.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Work-related language skills can be defined as the skills people need to find suitable employment, to participate in work and learning, to progress professionally and to learn and develop. Typically, these skills are context-specific and constantly evolving. They reflect not only the various communicative requirements of particular fields of work and different roles within them, but also social norms related to work, both generally and in specific settings.

Language learning is the process through which a learner acquires communicative ability in the target language. This process occurs over a period of time, and in a variety of ways, of which the most important is interaction in the language. The process takes place within the learner and in constant interaction with his/her environment. Moreover, it is embedded in social contexts, which, in turn have an impact on success in learning.

This learning can be supported in a variety of ways – as the LfW collection of practices show – including formal, non-formal and informal learning arrangements. Support for work-related L2 learning by migrants seeking employment or in employment is most likely to be effective when it is based on a realistic understanding on how adults learn, what their needs and the needs of the working environment are. As to work-related L2

development, there are many opportunities for different actors (including employers and colleagues at work) to support learners in different ways, as the LfW collection of practices shows (LfW, 2018; LfW, 2019d).

Looking ahead, it is clear that communication at work will continue to evolve, as technology develops and social changes occur. Mass migration is one of the most widely foreseen consequences of climate change, while artificial intelligence is predicted to revolutionise the landscape of employment.

Looking ahead, it is clear that communication at work will continue to evolve, as technology develops and social changes occur. Mass migration is one of the most widely foreseen consequences of climate change, while artificial intelligence is predicted to revolutionise the landscape of employment.

Meanwhile, communication in mixed virtual and real workplaces continues to develop. Literacy and cognitive skills such as reflective practice are of growing importance for all employees, including those in low-skilled positions (see also case study 1). There is evidence that non-formal and informal learning is more effective when built into work, if professionally supported.

Digitisation offers new chances for blended and hybrid forms of learning in virtual spaces. Less optimistic prognoses envisage a loss of jobs and/or dramatic changes with risks of de-skilling and re-

mote working, such as the couriers who support internet retail (see case study 2), and the domestic workers and or live-in carers employed informally (*interna* in Spain, *badanti* in Italy).

A further issue which needs more research has been voiced by a courier delivering food to the clients' homes in an interview for the television report Kuriere am Limit – Heisse Ware per Fahrrad: algorithms are their supervisors, not human beings. What consequences does this have for the attitude to work and the opportunities of (language) learning? The suggestions of LfW which assumed structural opportunities like teamwork must be revisited under this new emerging reality.

The issue of communication is just emerging in research on the future of work and leaning for and at work.

So far there seem to be no research on how digitisation will impact on language and communication and which requirements and learning needs will emerge. Such research is urgently needed in order to develop evidence-based L2 teaching and learning for work and at work.

Whatever developments lie in store, the LfW network is committed to continue its work to support language learning for some of the most vulnerable members of our societies. We invite colleagues wherever they may be to join the LfW network. Cooperation and the sharing of experience can trigger innovation and lead to more effective local solutions.

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Politeness strategies in business English discourse

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Conversational strategies are an important element of any modern English language syllabus. Much attention is paid to teaching these strategies in Business English classrooms. A crucial component of conversational strategies in business is politeness strategies. Awareness of linguistic politeness as a strategy of speech behaviour allows interlocutors to maintain a felicitous pattern of communication and prevent conflict. The present research focuses on politeness strategies realised in business English discourse. Within the framework of the study a corpus of cases was subjected to a comparative analysis in the course of which their overall pragmatic effect on the interlocutor was revealed. Considerable attention was paid to the statistical analysis of the distribution of the four strategies of politeness and their respective sub-strategies in English business communication. The study contains comparative statistical data illustrating manifestations of different strategies of politeness in modern Business English and provides a description of the most common cases of their realisation. Raising awareness of politeness strategies and acquiring practical skills can help both the speaker and the listener to understand implied meanings conveyed in different communicative situations and adjust their speech behaviour to achieve the aims of communication, which ensures success in business.

KEYWORDS: *conversational strategies, politeness theory, face, politeness strategies, business communication, positive face, negative face*

1. INTRODUCTION

Conversational strategies have long been the focus of attention for many linguists (Brown & Levinson, 2014; Fraser, 1990; Haugh, 2007; Ide, 1989; Kádár & Haugh, 2013; Lakoff, 1973; Leech, 1983; Mao, 1994; Matsumoto ,1988; Savić, 2014; Spencer-Oatey, 2008; Spencer-Oatey, 2011; Watts, 2003) especially those whose interests lie in the study of business communication (Fletcher, 1999; Holmes & Schnurr, 2005; Holmes & Stubbe, 2015; Lakoff ,1989; Mullany, 2007). Teaching correct speech behaviour is an important element of any modern English language syllabus. A crucial component of conversational strategies in business are politeness strategies.

This research provides an analysis of Brown and Levinson's (2014) politeness strategies and their manifestations in business communication. The study seems topical for several reasons. First,

linguistic politeness as a strategy of speech behaviour aims to establish and maintain a felicitous pattern of relationship between communicants and prevent conflict. The success of any business activity depends on the success of extensive business contacts with partners, potential customers, suppliers and numerous organisations, which, in its turn, is ensured by the strategic correctness of business communication. The paper sheds light on whether there is a link between a businessperson's communicative needs and the use of certain strategies. Besides, the study of verbal behaviour in terms of communicative strategies reflects the attention of modern linguistics to the process of functioning of language in context. Awareness of politeness strategies helps understand not only what is being said but also what is being implied, which is crucial for business. The overall objective of the present research is to study politeness strate-

gies in modern business conversations obtained from authentic Business English textbooks.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

For centuries, politeness has been viewed as a set of norms prescribing how to behave and communicate with others (the social norm view). This approach *'assumes that each society has a particular set of social norms consisting of more or less explicit rules that prescribe a certain behaviour, a state of affairs, or a way of thinking in a context'* (Fraser, 1990, p. 220). Since the 1970s politeness has been the centre of attention in the fields of pragmatics and sociolinguistics and has generated extensive research. Looking back at the evolution of politeness research, it is possible to divide it into two domains (Kádár & Haugh, 2013; Savić, 2014). The first is associated with the pragmatic approaches suggested by Lakoff (1973; 1989), Leech (1983), Brown and Levinson (2014), which are predominantly influenced by the classic pragmatic theories by Austin (1975) and Grice (1975).

Lakoff (1973; 1989) who was the pioneer of the maxim-based approach to politeness, proposed two rules of pragmatic competence: be clear and be polite. The first one supports Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle (CP). The other one, suggesed by Lakoff (1973; 1989), forms the Politeness Principle (PP) consisting of the following three maxims: (1) don't impose; (2) give options; (3) make the other person feel good, be friendly. Lakoff (1973) notes that the rules of clarity and politeness are not always compatible, with the latter being more often respected because *'it is more important in a conversation to avoid offense than achieve clarity'* (Lakoff, 1973, p. 297).

Leech's (1983) more detailed Politeness Principle described in terms of the Maxims of Tact, Generosity, Approbation, Modesty, Agreement, and Sympathy posits two sets of interactional goals: to effectively convey information and *'to maintain the social equilibrium and the friendly relations which enable us to assume that our interlocutors are actually being cooperative in the first place'* (Leech, 1983, p. 82). Including a social di-

'For centuries, politeness has been viewed as a set of norms prescribing how to behave and com-municate with others (the social norm view)'

mension in speech act realisation, Leech (1983) envisages several scales: cost-benefit, authority and social distance, optionality, as well as indirectness, along which degrees of politeness can be measured. He also posits that different situations require different levels of politeness depending on how immediate illocutionary goals interact with the long-term goals of maintaining smooth social relations and avoiding conflict. Leech (1983) also makes a distinction between what he calls Relative Politeness depending on the context, and Absolute Politeness, where the context is irrelevant. Absolute Politeness incorporates *'some illocutions (e.g. orders) that are inherently impolite, and others (e.g. offers) that are inherently polite'* (Leech, 1983, p. 83). The most influential pragmatic model of politeness is Brown and Levinson's (2014) face-saving approach, which set the research agenda for many years ahead.

In the early 2000s politeness was marked by the relational shift (Kádár & Haugh, 2013). Research focused primarily on interpersonal relations and individuals performing politeness, which was then correlated with *'interpersonal relations as variables'* (Spencer-Oatey, 2011, p. 3565). Some of the approaches that took up this line have remained loyal to some of the theoretical considerations of first-wave theories of politeness, such as Spencer-Oatey's (2008) theory of rapport management and Holmes and Stubbe's (2015) neo-politeness theory. Neo-politeness theory (Mullany, 2007; Holmes & Stubbe, 2015) build on Brown and Levinson's (2014) notions of politeness, such as mitigation or avoidance of threatening face, locating the analysis in specific social contexts, and using contextual knowledge to interpret social meaning. Holmes and Schnurr (2005), Holmes and Stubbe (2015) concentrate on the social context of the workplace and introduce the term 'rela-

'Relational practice includes friendly, positive, or supportive verbal behaviour, which considers people's need to feel valued, including linguistic strategies and non-imposing distancing linguistic behaviours which show respect for others'

tional practice'. Fletcher (1999) defines relational practice as *'a way of working that reflects a relational logic of effectiveness and requires a number of relational skills such as empathy, mutuality, reciprocity, and sensitivity to emotional contexts'* (Fletcher, 1999, p. 84). Relational practice includes friendly, positive, or supportive verbal behaviour, which considers people's need to feel valued, including linguistic strategies and non-imposing distancing linguistic behaviours which show respect for others. Spencer-Oatey's (2008) rapport-management theory inherited much from earlier research in the field: it draws on Goffman's (1955) notion of face, adopts Leech's (1983) cost-benefit scale as one of the components of equity rights (Spencer-Oatey, 2008, p. 16), and elaborates on Fraser's (1990) conversational contract introducing sociality rights and obligations. Taking into account the approach to politeness of the Japanese critics of Brown and Levinson (Matsumoto, 1988; Ide, 1989; Mao, 1994), who emphasise the importance of interpersonal and social perspective on face in Eastern cultures and discard the notion of negative face, Spencer-Oatey (2008) replaces the notions of politeness and face-work with rapport management – the management of harmony-disharmony among people (Spencer-Oatey, 2008, p. 13) containing three interconnected elements: (1) face management; (2) management of sociality rights and obligations; (3) management of interactional goals. Spencer-Oatey (2008) distinguishes three groups of factors determining the choice of rapport management strategy: rapport orientation (based on the interlocutors' relationship goals), contextual variables, pragmatic principles and conventions.

The other approach to politeness is associated with critiques of the traditional view of politeness (Eelen, 2001; Watts, 2003). These studies take a discursive turn in politeness research, which means that politeness begins to be understood as constructed in discourse rather than in isolated units of speech. These approaches are generally known as either postmodern (Haugh, 2007; Culpeper, 2011), or social constructivist (Pizziconi, 2006). Eelen's (2001) critical review of traditional politeness theories provided a foundation for a new discursive approach to politeness that focuses not only on speakers' choice of politeness strategies, but also gives equal attention to listeners' interpretations conducted dynamically in an on-going interaction.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The paper studies politeness strategies in modern business conversations obtained from authentic Business English textbooks: Brieger and Comfort's (1993) Business Management English Series: Personnel; Brieger and Comfort's (1992) Business Management English Series: Marketing; Hughes and Naunton's (2007) Business Result: Intermediate Student's Book; Hughes and Naunton's (2008) Business Result: Upper-Intermediate Student's Book, as well as Internet sources. Within the scope of the study the conveyed or contextual meanings of polite utterances are analysed and compared with their literal meanings, considerable attention is given to statistical analysis of the distribution of the four strategies of politeness in English business communication. The study is based on Goffman's (1955) and Brown and Levinson's (2014) theories of positive and negative face, Grice's (1975) conversational maxims and Brown and Levinson's (2014) theory of politeness universals. Brown and Levinson's (2014) classification of politeness strategies (bald-on-record, negative politeness, positive politeness, and off-record) is applied to the present analysis of authentic business conversations.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS
4.1 Bald-on-record politeness
Brown and Levinson (2014) treat the bald-on-

record strategy as speaking in conformity with Grice's Maxims, which characterises maximally efficient communication. The speaker (S) wants to achieve maximum efficiency more than they want to protect face. In cases of urgency, desperation or in noisy environments where this is mutually known to both the speaker and the listener (L) no face redress is necessary. Non-minimisation also occurs where the FTA (face-threatening act) (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 98) is performed in L's interests (advice, warnings, granting permission). Welcoming/greetings, farewells and offers which are actually oriented to face also go bold-on-record. Another reason for bald-on-record behaviour is S's reluctance to maintain face. Direct imperatives stand out as clear examples of bald-on-record usage.

4.2 Positive politeness

Positive politeness is *'redress directed to the addressee's positive face, his perennial desire that his wants (or the actions/acquisitions/values resulting from them) should be thought of as desirable. Redress consists in partially satisfying that desire by communicating that one's own wants (or some of them) are in some respects similar to the addressee's wants'* (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 101). Positive politeness strategies include statements of friendship and solidarity, compliments, hedges which aim to avoid conflict or giving offense by highlighting friendliness.

Strategy 1: Notice, attend to L (their interests, wants, needs, goods) (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 102):

Ms. Anderson: Yes, that sounds fine.

Customer: That's great. How do I access my account?

Customer: That's fantastic! Can I trade stocks and bonds?

Customer: It all sounds very good to me.

Customer: That sounds fine.

S shows that they approve of the listener's opinion and position, like their belongings, clothes, etc. Even if S is not sincere, they want to be amiable, to be liked and try at least to satisfy L's positive face. The passages of positive politeness *that's*

great, that sounds fine, that's fantastic, it all sounds very good to me which satisfy the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others look like compliments and are expected to sound pleasant. These passages demonstrate S's positive attitude towards the interlocutor's ideas, opinions, wants, interests and needs.

Strategy 2: Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with the listener) (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 104). Can be observed in a business conversation between two colleagues discussing the company's new marketing strategy and incorporating a response such as *Yes, I think, you'll make an excellent team.* Using the adjective *excellent* that has a highly positive connotation, S expresses their approval and praise for L's activities. S wants to express their positive attitude towards the team.

In a conversation taking place in a dining room, Mrs. Anderson wants to place an order for her dinner menu. Janet, the waiter, takes the order and makes a few recommendations: *Excellent choice, and for your first course?* Using the phrase *excellent choice* Janet expresses her approval of Mrs. Anderson's choice and shows that she believed Mrs. Anderson has good taste. In another example, the director uses *that's impressive* to show his praise and approval:

Director: What kind of margin does that represent?

Assistant: The gross operating margin is at 24% for the year.

Director: That's impressive. That's up from last year, isn't it?

Notably, examples explicating Strategy 2 are scarce in our corpus, which prompts us to conclude that exaggeration as a strategy of positive politeness is rather rare in business communication.

Strategy 3: Intensify interest towards L (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 106). This may be done by either using the 'vivid present' or exaggerating facts:

A: Communication has become a nightmare. Do you know what I mean?

Comparing communication with a nightmare (exaggerating facts), S is trying to involve L in the

conversation, make them interested in the information being delivered.

Strategy 4: Use in-group identity markers (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 107). Allows S to claim the common ground with L by using in-group address forms, language and dialect, jargon or slang, as well as ellipsis, as in *How do you feel about the merchandise we're pushing*. Using *to push the merchandise* (business jargon), S demonstrates close relationship and mutual confidence with all the members of the group because this expression is to be understood by all the members of the team or by the members of the team solely.

Strategy 5: Seek agreement (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 112). Allows S to find ways in which it is possible to agree with L by choosing safe topics for conversation or repeating part or all of what has been said to show that they have heard correctly or stress their agreement with the utterance. In the proposed example, the sales manager quotes the manager's specification of the necessary professional skills that the potential employee should possess to show that he shares the manager's opinion:

DM: I just want to add one thing. The person has to have good keyboard skills.

SM: Okay, I'll add as essential good key board skills. Fine.

Strategy 6: Avoid disagreement (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 113). In business communication manifests itself in the use of pseudo-agreement, as in: *Well then. I'd like 75 units by the end of the month. Could I get an estimate before placing an order?* According to Brown and Levinson (2014), pseudo-agreement in English is the use of *then* as a conclusory marker, which indicates that S draws a conclusion to a line of reasoning carried out cooperatively with the addressee. *Then* is a manifestation of the desire to avoid disagreement but it does not necessarily show real intentions.

Strategy 7: Presuppose/raise/assert common ground (Brow & Levinson, 2014, p. 117). Realised through gossip and small talk, point of view operations, personal-centre switch, place switch and different presuppositions. For example, in *We haven't been very successful in our branding ef-*

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forts, have we?, S speaks as if L's knowledge were equal to theirs, or as if L were them (personal-centre switch). Using the tag *have we*, S presupposes the idea of mutual understanding and seeks L's support. They want to convince L that they are on the same team and appeal to their mutual efforts.

Strategy 8: Joke (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 124). Since jokes are based on mutually shared background knowledge and values, they should be used to stress the shared background values. Joking is a major positive-politeness technique. However, it is infrequent in business in many countries although something of a cliché in British business.

Strategy 9: Assert or presuppose the S's knowledge of and concern for L's wants (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 125). No examples of this strategy were registered in the course of the analysis.

Strategy 10: Offer, promise (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 125).

Robert: I suggest we break up into groups and discuss how we can improve our message.

Chairman: Unfortunately, we're almost out of time. I suggest you submit your ideas on marketing, and we can discuss the best next week.

In both examples S chooses to stress their cooperation with L. They allow L to begin and continue the conversation, which presupposes that they will support the conversation. S expresses their interest in the discussion, although it could be insincere.

Strategy 11: Be optimistic, a polar opposite of the previous strategy 'the other side of the coin' (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 126). S expresses their wants in terms that assume that L wants it too. S is sure that L will cooperate with them because it is in their mutual shared interest. This strategy helps minimise the size of the imposition of FTAs presupposing the idea that some facts

should be taken for granted, as in *Hopefully, the shareholders won't veto any further R&D allocation.*

Strategy 12: Include both S and L in the activity (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 127). Rather frequent in business communication, especially when introduced by the phrase *let's say* suggesting that everybody should come to a common conclusion. This way, S includes all the participants in the activity and want to unite efforts suggesting that everyone should act together and find a solution that suits all. S relies on their common experience and wants everyone to see their goodwill.

Following the quantitative analysis of the distribution of positive politeness strategies in business communication, the most wide-spread strategy of positive politeness is Strategy 12 which allows S to demonstrate that they are acting in the L's best interests and are ready to include L in the activity, to unite efforts, ideas and find a solution suitable to both. Strategy 10 comes second on the list with a considerably smaller number of examples, however, this allows us to conclude that it is common in business to rely on cooperation and discuss important issues. Strategies 1, 4, 5, 6, 8 and 11 have comparable frequencies. They are used in business communication, although not very often. This shows that business partners use professional language, like jokes, try to look optimistic and support their partners. The number of examples explicating Strategies 2, 3, 7 and 9 is negligible, which prompts us to conclude that they are highly infrequent in business communication.

4.3 Negative politeness

Negative politeness is *'redressive action addressed to the addressee's negative face: his want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded. It is the heart of respect behaviour, just as positive politeness is the kernel of 'familiar' and 'joking' behaviour'* (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 129). Unlike positive politeness, the negative counterpart is indirect. According to Brown and Levinson (2014) any utterance that contains some implication is a manifestation of indirectness. Indirect speech acts are certainly

the most significant form of conventional indirectness which has received a good deal of attention from linguists. In communication, negative politeness is realised through several strategies.

Strategy 1: Be conventionally indirect (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 130). Consists in the use of indirectness (including conventional – specific expressions that have additional or implied sense/connotation) and shift of tenses.

I'd like to go over some of our restructuring ideas with both of you… Do you think we could meet earlier?

Susan and George are discussing the company's new marketing strategy. The use of conventional indirectness sounds ambiguous and gives L the opportunity to interpret what is being said in a way which is preferable in the situation, thus giving them freedom of choice. In the situation above Susan, evidently, wants to meet George again and discuss restructuring ideas. Using *I'd like to* she shows her desire and simultaneously leaves it to George to decide and take the final decision, which signals respect for his opinion. Susan puts an indirect question to stress her respect for George's opinion. She asks not only about a possible meeting but also if George is interested in it.

Another conversation takes place at a restaurant. Ms. Anderson is talking to Janet, the waitress. Janet makes suggestions.

Good evening, madam. I trust you've had a pleasant day. Would you like to see the menu?

Would you like to begin with something from the bar?

Would you like to see the wine menu?

Would you like to order your dessert now, madam?

Janet's suggestions satisfy Ms. Anderson's negative face wants, give her a chance to either agree or disagree. Ms. Anderson's freedom of action is unhindered. Janet puts her questions in the form of asking for permission using the modal auxiliary *may*.

Very good, madam. May I bring you an appetizer as well?

May I suggest the linguini al pesto?

In fact, the waitress is not asking for permission,

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she is rather making suggestions / recommendations. Indirectness allows her to avoid imposing opinion on L, which is obvious in view of her status/role in the situation.

Another manifestation of the same strategy implies the shift of tenses. For example, in *Yes, could I have a dry martini?*, *could* and *would* are used instead of *can* and *will* accordingly (shift of tenses) to make the utterances politer. S shows that they respect L's opinion and gives L a chance to make recommendations.

Strategy 2: Question, hedge (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 145). Derives from the want not to presume and the want not to coerce L. S expresses their point of view in such a way as to give L freedom of action. S avoids direct answers, direct expression of their attitudes to the topic, any direct descriptions or unequivocal statements. This is hedging behaviour. A major way to hedge is to use *I think, I guess, In my opinion* or their synonyms. They allow S to emphasise the idea that their words are only their own opinion and that L has a certain degree of freedom as to how to interpret them. Moreover, S does not insist that L should necessarily share their point of view. Apart from the above-mentioned hedges there exist other types which Brown and Levinson (2014) classify into three groups: (1) hedges on illocutionary force, (2) hedges addressed to Grice's Maxims, and (3) hedges addressed to politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 146-170).

Susan and George are discussing the company's new marketing strategy. Each of them wants to disclaim responsibility for the final decision, they stress that their opinions are not stated facts, that it is necessary to further discuss the issue. They are trying to hear each other out and state their opinions in the mildest way possible.

George: You know that I'm working with Anne

on changing our image, don't you?

Susan: Yes, I think you'll make an excellent team.

Susan: How do you feel about the merchandise we're pushing?

George: In my opinion, the products we're offering are fine.

In my opinion allows George to stress that what he's saying is his own opinion, not a generally accepted fact. Consequently, to assess the situation with merchandise they find it necessary to have other people's points of view. George's reluctance to give a direct answer allows him to avoid taking responsibility for the decision. At the same time, George wants to participate in the development of the new marketing strategy for the company. He suggests a few ways of increasing the company's market share:

George: I think we should concentrate on expanding our market share in the young adult market.

Susan: I'm afraid I already have an appointment.

George suggests meeting at four, however, Susan has already made another appointment. To attenuate the negative imposition/force of her refusal, Susan uses the hedge *I am afraid*, which means that she is sorry.

Grice's (1975) Maxim of Relevance (be relevant) presupposes that S is expected to stick to the subject and not to misuse L's time and attention. If S strictly follows this Maxim, it is bold-on-record politeness, the most straightforward and unconditional kind of politeness. However, interlocutors often change the topic of conversation, especially in business communication for different reasons. Any change of topic has a high rank of imposition on L's face because S can never know for sure if L is willing to discuss it or not. To signal the change S uses hedges addressed to Grice's Maxims as in:

In fact, I got one before our last meeting. By the way, what's it called again?

Here S wants to receive some additional information and, therefore, asks a question. To soften this transition from narration to the question and, consequently, to a different topic, S uses *by the*

way. This sounds as if they emphasise that this is just a short intrusion and that they are not going to intervene with the course of conversation. *Anyway* can be used for a similar purpose, allowing S to bring in some new ideas and do so in a maximally soft and polite way:

Anyway, I think you know pretty well what type of people you want. I'm really just here to bounce ideas off, if you need to.

Strategy 3: Be pessimistic (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 173). Gives redress to L's negative face by explicitly expressing doubt that the conditions for the appropriateness of S's speech act obtain and has three important realisations: the use of the negative (with a tag), the use of the subjunctive, and the use of remote-possibility markers.

In Brieger and Comfort (1993, p. 189-190), the sales manager (SM) and the directing manager (DM) are preparing a person specification for the position of the team leader. They are discussing personal characteristics and professional skills of a potential team leader. Among other suggestions SM says, *But don't you need someone who's logical, too?* SM thus makes his suggestion in the form of a negative question, as if he were not sure (pessimistic) about what he suggests and leaves it to the interlocutor to take the final decision. This question form allows SM not to sound intrusive or abrupt.

Strategy 4: Minimise the imposition (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 176). Used when S estimates the perceived danger of performing a speech act in a particular setting as high and wants to redress it. The use of *just, a little, a bit, a little bit, just a second, for a moment, merely* minimises the intrinsic imposition of speech acts, as in *Can we talk for a moment?* or *I'll explain in a minute*. In such a case S wants to soften the imposition of what is being said in situations where they have to make L waste time. S wants to assure L that this period of time will be short.

Strategy 5: Apologise (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 187). Observed in our corpus only once, which prompts us to conclude that it is hardly registered in business communication.

Strategy 6: Impersonalise S and L (Brown & Le-

vinson, 2014, p. 190). Allows s not to impinge on L by phrasing utterances as if the agent were other than S. There are a number of ways of avoiding the pronouns *I* and *you*, for example imperatives (without *you*), impersonal verbs, passive forms, the use of reference terms instead of *I*, point of view distancing and others. For example, by saying

These expenses seem too much, S expresses the idea in a less categorical way as if they express someone else's opinion rather than their own.

Among negative politeness strategies, Strategies 1 and 2 occupy top positions and considerably outnumber the rest of the strategies which don't seem to be frequent in business communication.

4.4 Off-record politeness

A communicative act should be regarded as off-record if it is impossible to attribute a single clear-cut communicative intention to it, which generate multiple possible interpretations, because S does not commit themselves to just one particular interpretation of the act and leaves it up to the addressee to decide how to interpret it. Brown and Levinson (2014) classify strategies of off-record politeness per kinds of clues S presents to L to derive the intended inferences from as to how to interpret the act.

Strategy 1: Use contradictions (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 221). Consists in violating Grice's (1975) Quality Maxim (speak the truth, be sincere). By stating two things that contradict each other, S makes it look as if they were not telling the truth. They thus encourage L to look for an interpretation that could reconcile the two contradictory propositions. Sandra, the company's sales manager, and Bryan, the canteen manager, are discussing the problem of the staff turnover in the canteen:

CM: But that's tremendously high. It means that

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almost a third of the staff left during the year.

SM: Well, yes and no. I should say at this point that this method as a little suspect because it doesn't take into account length of service, nor does it show how many left at the time of induction. So, the picture may appear a little distorted (Brieger & Comfort, 1993, p. 195-196).

By using *yes and no* the sales manager avoids giving a straightforward response, and just hints at it instead.

Strategy 2: Be ironic (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 221). Another violation of Grice's (1975) Quality Maxim. By saying the opposite of what they mean, S may indirectly convey the intended meaning, if there are clues that signal that their intended meaning is being conveyed indirectly. These clues could be either prosodic, or simply contextual, as in the ironic *Well, we don't need a genius in that position, but let's say above average* (Brieger & Comfort, 1993, p. 189-190).

Strategy 3: Use rhetorical questions (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 223). According to Brown and Levinson (2014), to ask a question with no intention of obtaining an answer is to break a sincerity condition on questions – namely, that S wants L to provide them with the indicated information.

Strategy 4: Overgeneralise (Brown & Levinson, 2014, p. 226). Aims to give L an idea as to whether the general rule applies to them or not. In the following example, a few interlocutors are discussing the process of personnel selection in the company:

We mustn't forget our basic premise: that no one selection method is perfect (Briege & Comfort, 1993, p. 197-205).

By saying that *no one selection method is perfect*, the manager suggests that all the participants of the discussion should think well and find a solution to the complicated problem.

Examples of off-record politeness are scarce in our corpus, which shows that businesspeople tend to avoid hints, irony, metaphors as well as over-gene-alisation. They express their ideas in such a way as to ensure that the exact meaning of what they say could be explicitly understood. Clarity and succinctness are crucial for business.

'A communicative act should be regarded as off-record if it is impossible to attribute a single clear-cut communicative intention to it, which generate multiple possible interpretations, because the speaker does not commit him/herself to just one particular interpretation of the act and leaves it up to the addressee to decide how to interpret it'

5. CONCLUSION

The aim of the paper was to apply Brown and Levinson's (2014) Theory of Politeness Universals to the analysis of politeness strategies in English business conversations. A wide range of authentic business texts have been studied and thorough statistical analysis has been carried out, which yielded the following results.

Bald-on-record as a conversational strategy is infrequent in business communication, which is not surprising, given its straightforward and unequivocal character. However, even in business there are situations where bald-on-record rather than other strategies of politeness best meets the interlocutors' needs.

Positive politeness, attending to the interlocutors' positive face, is common in business, however not as common as negative politeness. While communicating and negotiating ideas businesspeople seek to find common ground with the partner/partners, include all the participants into the activity to unite efforts and opinions. They suggest that everyone should act together to find a solution suitable to all. The speaker wants everyone to see their goodwill. The frequent use of offers and promises as positive politeness strategies shows that businesspeople consider them to be a positive sign. The same should be expected of the partners. Business partners find it necessary in certain situations to use professional terminology and jokes to look optimistic and support their partners. If they want to be liked, they use a lot of linguistic means to seek agreement and avoid even the least pos-

sible conflict. At the same time, business people are used to talking about things as they are, without exaggeration or intensification. Ideas are expected to be presented in the most concise and succinct way possible. Businesspeople prefer not to give or ask for reasons, hear their partners out and do not like to be asked a lot of questions.

Thorough statistical analysis of negative politeness strategies in our corpus enables us to say with a great degree of certainty that they are typical of business communication, more common than positive and bald-on record politeness strategies. Businesspeople avoid making direct unequivocal statements of their views and opinions. They attend to the listener's negative face rather than their own. They prefer to leave a certain degree of ambiguity, hear out the interlocutors' opinions be-

fore they express their own and approach the final decision step by step. They give their partners freedom of action and share responsibility with other participants of the discussion. Both the wide range of linguistic means and rich idiomatic vocabulary allow speakers to achieve goals in business.

Off-record politeness is rarely used in business communication. There are only a few occurrences in our corpus. It means that businesspeople do not use such strategies as hints, irony, metaphors and over-generalisation. They prefer to express their ideas in such a way as to make the meaning of what they are saying explicit. By avoiding direct answers, they encourage the interlocutor to be the first to express their opinion, but they do it explicitly without rambling, hints or metaphors, for business is all about clarity.

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Translating cheese production terminology from French to Russian: Challenges and pitfalls

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This article is concerned with cheese production terminology and the appropriate ways of its translation from French to Russian. The paper will analyse French texts related to cheesemaking, describe the corresponding terms registered in French and Russian, and look into the specifics of French-to-Russian rendering of the corresponding terms. Specific attention is paid to equivalent translation, transcription, transliteration, calquing and descriptive translation as methods of translation most appropriate in cases where cheese production terminology is concerned. The following methods used in translating cheese production terminology are reviewed: replacement of the French term by the Russian term bearing the same meaning; equivalent translation; transcription; transliteration; descriptive or explanatory translation; calque translation. The author encourages translators to create a system of priorities for each individual translation case and abide by the generally accepted rules that can be applied in translating terms related to cheese production in any given set of source and target languages.

KEYWORDS: *term, terminology, translation, calque, transliteration, transcription, cheese, French, Russian*

1. INTRODUCTION

A French proverb claims *'Un fromage par jour de l'année',* meaning that there is a different cheese for each day of the year. France is the only country with such a wide range of cheese products exported all over the world for decades. The cheesemaking tradition is so overwhelming here that Charles De Gaulle once said: *'How can anyone govern a nation that has two hundred and forty-six different kinds of cheese?'*

This European country is well-suited for cheese production. The influence of microclimates has created an array of cheeses so magnificent that they required their own course at dinner. For the French cheese is more than just food: they don't eat cheese with the other courses, but instead, the cheese plate comes at the end and is a sacred tradition of the national cuisine. Interestingly, the canonical trinity of most French tables consists of bread, cheese and wine (Pilcher, 2017, p. 32).

Today, European cheese producers want to see Russian cheese in their shops and on their market, partly because Europe does not produce enough cheese yet to satisfy the demand. For years, Russian creameries have been expanding their production and taking an active part in international cheese exhibitions. The Altai Territory in Russia has become the platform for the International school of cheese making. It will be established following the agreement between the local administration and French regional council of Franch Comté. Together they plan to engage modern technology to organise research and produce innovative cheese varieties, which demonstrates the ties between the two nations as regards food- (and particularly cheese-related cooperation.

This article intends to identify appropriate techniques in translating cheese production terminology from French into Russian and detail Russian and French equivalent terms in the sphere of cheese production. France is one of the leading countries in cheese production, which is why the

language is replete with cheese-related terms. It usually serves as a resource of supply to the Russian terminology system. As Russian food processing industry assimilates new methods of food production, the language is taking in the corresponding terminology, including the cheesemaking one. This article will analyse French texts related to cheesemaking, describe the corresponding terms registered in French and Russian, and look into the specifics of rendering the cheesemaking terms from French into Russian.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Material for the study is represented by dictionary entries related to cheese production and open online resources covering the peculiarities of this topic. The extracted examples are analysed against the background of existing translation procedures and approaches to ultimately describe these procedures and approaches in the context of and as applied to French-to-Russian translation of cheese production terminology.

3. TRANSLATING CHEESE-RELATED TERMS: METHODOLOGY

3.1 General observations

A term is a word or expression that has a precise meaning in some uses (Bowker, 2015, p. 304). It denotes a concept in a particular science, profession or activity (Wang & Lin, 2019, p. 282). Terms are often associated with professionalisms and are context-free, i.e. their meaning does not depend on the context (Kockaert & Steurs, 2015, p. 202). When common words become terms, they lose their connection with synonymous units registered in the general language, and the main feature of a term is its ability to define a notion of a certain field (science, technology, culture, etc.) precisely and quickly (Wei, 2018, p. 263). Emotional colouring or personal evaluation are out of the picture when terms are used within their proper field (Robinson, 2019, p. 98).

Translating terms might seem as an easy task considering all possible information resources at hand, such as dictionaries, glossaries, encyclopaedias, online sources, etc. However, abundance in

'Translating a term is not about replacing a foreign word with a word of the target language'

this case may lead to confusion.

Translating a term is not about replacing a foreign word with a word of the target language: choosing an erroneous word combination can cause difficulties in text apprehension. Terminology represented in dictionaries is usually arranged in alphabetical or keyword order, i.e. to find a required combination of words one will need to look up a keyword. For example, to translate the compound term *fromage non affine* one will have to look up *fromage* (*сыр* / *cheese*) first. The corresponding dictionary entry will offer an attributive group corresponding to *сыр, не требующий стадии созревания* (*unripened cheese*).

Another important step is to 'recognise' a term in the text, i.e. differentiate it from the elements of common-language lexis (Colina, 2018, p. 111). In most cases difficulties arise because of homonyms – words that sound alike but have a different semantic structure. This happens because terminological status ends up attributed to a common lexical unit or to a former term, and also because of the word's 'transparent' inner form (Baker & Saldanha, 2019, p. 604).

Homonyms are defined more easily among terms taken from other languages but they, in turn, cause difficulties for translators. Such terms might be false cognates, i.e. false friends of a translator, and the issue gets more challenging when it comes to the native terms of a foreign language. Most of these terms, being elements of the corresponding terminological system, have a rather 'transparent' inner form, thereby giving the wrong idea to a translator. Difficulties in recognising a term also have to do with the fact that it can be used in its non-terminological meaning or a common word can prove to be a term (Yolkina, 2018, p. 59).

As a rule, translation of terms implies replacement of words with lexical units of the same category, meaning that a term is translated with a

'Homonyms are defined more easily among terms taken from other languages but they, in turn, cause difficulties for translators'

term (Antia & Ianna, 2016). Obviously, this principle can only be implemented in practice if an equivalent term exists in the target language, and it is up to the translator to not only be aware of its existence, but to be familiar with its accurate form. The equivalent term will have to completely correspond to the term in the source language regarding its subject content and its use with the same meaning in the corresponding knowledge domain. A translator is not supposed to rephrase terms in the target language, but is expected to find the adequate equivalent terms in the target language and use them in their currently accepted form (Wæraas & Nielsen, 2016).

Contrary to common belief, terms might have more than one meaning, which means that they can be understood differently depending on the scope of application. In other words, some terms can simultaneously belong to multiple terminological systems (Boase-Beier, 2017, 199). For example, viewed as part of cheese terminology, *la croûte* means **сырная корочка** (*cheese rind*). But the same term has a variety of meanings in other terminological systems:

Military – **завеса; прикрытие** (*screen; shelter*);

Geology – **кора** (*crust*);

Leather industry – **мездра** (*scrapings*);

Cookery – **пирог** (*pie*);

Medicine – **струп, круста** (*scab*);

Chemistry – **нагар** (*carbon deposit*).

Again, as part of the terminology system related to cheese, the word *le talon* is translated as **сырная кромка** (*cheese brim*). In other terminology systems, it has the following meanings:

Leather industry – **пята; каблук** (*heel*);

Automobile – **борт шины** (*tire bead*);

Machinery – **буртик** (*integral collar*);

Metallurgy – **реборда; фланец** (*flange*);

Oil and gas – **наконечник** (*jet pipe; nose piece*);

Paleontology – **каблук прирастания** (*cicatrix of attachment*);

Welding – **притупление кромки** (*root face*);

Architecture – **каблучок** (*cyma reversa; talon*);

Technics – **насадка** (*nozzle*);

Finance – **корешок в чековой книжке** (*counterfoil of checkbook*).

One of the essential conditions for adequate term translation is the process of comparison between a translated word and the terminology system (Gentzler, 2016, p. 31). Thus, the French language does not distinguish between the notions of **горячий** (*hot*) and **тёплый** (*warm*), and so both are translated as *chaud*.

In cases where similar terms require differentiation, translators should resort to descriptive constructions or explanations:

Ou dans le chaudron quand on fait le fromage à chaud.

Или в котёл пока сыр не нагреется (*Or into the kettle until the cheese warms up*).

Les fromages gras sont de nature chaude et de saveur salée.

Сыры с высоким содержанием жира мягкие и имеют солёный вкус» (*High-fat cheeses are soft and have a salty taste*).

L'égouttage se fait dans une salle plus chaude.

Выделение сырной сыворотки происходит в помещении с тёплой температурой воздуха (*Milk whey draining is conducted in a warm room*).

3.2 Descriptive translation

Descriptive or explanatory translation is a method of rendering non-equivalent vocabulary, revealing meanings of foreign lexical units by means of enlarged phrases. These phrases should reveal the features of phenomena rendered by these lexical units (Hermans, 2019).

Thus, for example, the term *persillé* often causes difficulties for Russian translators, because

there is no appropriate word in the Russian language which can serve as an equivalent. In French, *persillé* means a process of blue mould appearing in the cheese pulp. The most suitable approach to be taken here is to resort to descriptive translation:

Les fromages persillée sont fabriqués à partir de lait de vache, de brebis ou de chèvre.

Сыры с голубой плесенью производят из коровьего, овечьего или козьего молока (Cheeses with blue mould are made of cow's, sheep's or goat's milk).

Hense, *persillé* is translated as *с голубой плесенью (with blue mould)*. Sometimes this term can be translated as *с зелёными пятнышками* or *с зелёно-голубыми вкраплениями* because of the cheese pulp's unusual colour.

Translating the term *double crème* can also be a challenging endeavour, because some obvious options like *двойные сливки, двойной-крем (double cream), два крема (two creams)* will be incorrect. *Double-crème* is actually a kind of cheese containing more than 60% of fat in the dry matter, which is why an appropriate translation here is *сыр с высоким содержанием жира (high-fat cheese)*. It follows that a descriptive method of translation makes the most sense:

Caprice des Dieux est un fromage double crème très populaire de forme ovale.

Каприс де Дьё – это популярный сыр овальной формы с высоким содержанием жира (Caprice des Dieux is a kind of high-fat cheese of oval shape).

When no accurate lexical correspondence with a term can be found, one can always render the meaning descriptively using several words. For example, for the French *la caillebotte* is a food product made of fermented milk with removed milk whey, which one might correlate with the Russian *творог (cottage cheese)*. However, this specific Russian term is not the equivalent because this type of dairy product does not exist in the European countries. The majority of nations worldwide call this product of milk coagulation simply

'When no accurate lexical correspondence with a term can be found, one can always render the meaning descriptively using several words'

cheese, whereas in Russia cheese is a product of treatment and processing of cottage cheese. Thus, it might be more appropriate to replace the word *la caillebotte* with a terminological word collocation or a compound term *домашний сыр*.

Explication is a method of rendering words with no direct equivalents in other languages, a replacement of the foreign language units, which do not have regular correspondence, with phrases. The very term 'explication' means lexical-grammatical transformation, where one lexical unit is replaced with a word combination explicating its meaning, i.e. giving a more or less complete explanation of this term in the target language (Pym, 2017).

Descriptive translation has one serious disadvantage: it is cumbersome. As a general rule, such constructions abound in participle clauses, complex objects and extensive definitions. Consequently, it is a common method for rendering the meaning of culture-specific words having no equivalents in the bilingual dictionaries. However, it cannot always be used in translating literally texts, along with methods of transcription and calquing:

Le décaillage – измельчение сырного зерна (cutting of coagulum).

L'attelle – деревянная накладка для стекания молочной сыворотки (a wooden moulding for draining of milk whey).

Demi-gras – с жирностью менее 25% (fat content of less than 25%).

Cendrage: Ce terme désigne l'opération qui consiste à saupoudrer certains fromages d'un mélange de sel et de charbon de bois très finement broyé.

Посыпка сыра смесью из соли или измельченного древесного угля (Strewing the surface of cheese with a mixture of salt and grinded coal).

Claie: C'est un treillage en bois ou en fer, où les fromages sont déposés pendant la période d'affinage.

Деревянная или металлическая решётка для вызревания сыра (Wooden or metal grid for cheese ripening).

Emprésurage: C'est une étape de la fabrication du fromage au cours de laquelle une présure est ajoutée au lait pour permettre la coagulation.

Этап производства сыра, в процессе которого сычужный фермент добавляется в молоко (One of the stages of cheese production when cheese rennet is added to milk to start the process of flocculation).

Ensemencement: C'est un procédé de fabrication pour certains fromages. Il consiste à incorporer des ferments lactiques ou des 'moisissures'.

This is a process of production applied for certain kinds of cheese. It consists of the placement of a milk enzyme or 'mould'.

Внесение грибковой закваски или молочных ферментов (Placement of fungal ripening cultures or a milk enzyme).

Faisselle: C'est un moule perforé qui est utilisé lors de l'égouttage du caillé.

It is a mould full of holes which is used for milk whey flowing-off.

Цедилка для сыворотки (a colander for milk whey).

Fleur: C'est une sorte de 'moisissure' blanche qui se forme à la surface de certains fromages après un ensemencement.

It is a kind of white mould which appears on the surface of cheese after the process of seeding. Белая плесень на поверхности сыра (White mould on the surface of the cheese).

Harpe: C'est un ustensile, ressemblant à un grand râteau, qui permet de brasser, et surtout de découper le caillé afin de faciliter l'égouttage et l'évacuation du petit-lait.

This is the tool in the shape of a big rake, which provides an opportunity to stir and cut a cheese curd. It facilitates draining and removal of milk whey.

Лира для резки сыра (Cheese harp for cutting).

Paillon (Tranche-caillé: C'est une sorte de tapis en paille qui reçoit les fromages pendant leur égouttage et leur affinage.

It is a kind of straw grid which is used for cheese during its draining and ageing.

Соломенный подстил (straw mat).

Petit-lait: C'est le liquide qui s'évacue du caillé pendant l'égouttage.

It is the liquid which come out of cheese coagulum during the process of draining.

Молочная сыворотка (milk whey).

3.3 Special cases in translating French terms related to the cheesemaking process

Based on their structure, terms can be divided into three groups:

1) simple single-word lexical units;

2) two-word compound terms, sometimes presented graphically as one word with a hyphen;

3) term phrases composed of several components.

French terms, particularly cheese names, are most commonly word combinations. At that, terms which have toponyms (i.e. geographical names) as their part occur quite frequently, because the majority of cheeses received their names in honour of the locality or the geographic area they were produced in. The following kinds of cheese may serve as a vivid example:

Côte du Provence is translated as *Кот-дю-Прованс*. It cannot be translated as *Берег Прованса* (Coast of Provence).

Mont Maudit is translated as *Мон Моди*. It cannot be translated as *Вершина в массиве Монблан* (Mount in the Mont Blanc massif).

Le Mayet de-Montagn is translated as *Ле Майе де Монтань*. It cannot be translated as *Гора Майе* (Mayet Mountain).

The significant elements constituting part of the name are usually translated, yet there are some exceptions when toponyms should be translated in any case. Only several geographical names in France perpetuated their traditional spelling in Russian, which does not correspond to the way they sound in French, as in *Paris – Париж, Ver-*

sailles – Версаль, Metz – Мец, Marseille – Мар-сель. Some words receive the inflexional ending *'-а'*, as in *Nice – Ницца (Nice), Bayonne – Байонно (Bayonne)*.

There are several methods of compound terms translation. Firstly, word-based translation or calquing, i.e. modelling of words and constructions after foreign patterns. A calque or a loan translation can be defined as a word-for-word translation from one language into another (González & Knospe, 2019). When a translator takes a phrase in French and proceeds to literally translate it root-for-root or word-for-word into English, that's a calque. In other words, calquing is the method of translating lexical units of the authentic text by replacing their morphemes with their lexical correspondences from the target language. The essence of calquing is that it creates a new word or a word combination in the target language, copying the structure of the original lexical unit.

Sometimes cheeses have abbreviations as part of their names, and these should at all times be transcribed. The terms which define Russian cheese names deserve particular attention. In French they often can be seen as phrases constructed following the 'noun + preposition + noun' pattern. These terms should be translated into Russian through calquing.

Transcription is a method of translation of a lexical unit from the authentic text that implies recreating its sound form by letters of the target language, when each phoneme of the source language has a correspondence in the phonemic content of another language (Belczyk-Kohl, 2016, p. 140).

Transliteration is a text rendering technique based on writing words using a different alphabet (Mossop, 2017, p. 621). The cases of internationalisms translation are excellent examples of transliteration: *Streptococcus Cremoris (Стрептококкус Креморис); Lactobacillus (Лактобацилла, Лактобактерия); Streptococcus Thermophilus (Термофильный Стрептококк); Penicillium Glaucum (Пенициллиум Глаукум); Penicillium Roqueforti*

'The essence of calquing is that it creates a new word or a word combination in the target language, copying the structure of the original lexical unit'

(Пенициллиум Рокфорти); Geotrichum Candidum (Геотрихум Кандидум); Penicillium Camemberti (Пенициллиум Камемберти); Penicillium Candidum (Пенициллиум Кандидум).

3.4. Translating realia

Translators should be careful not to confuse terms with realia. The latter refer to words and expressions representing things, phenomena and objects peculiar to a given geographic location, social and cultural development of a particular nation, unfamiliar to another nation (Florin, 2018, p. 123). These words carry an ethnos-specific, local or historical colouring and do not always have exact matches in other languages and cultures. Thus, for example, measure-related realia are often translated as per their semantic content, while currency-related realia are generally transcribed:

Il était à l'époque appelé 'angelot', qui était en fait le nom d'une pièce de monnaie puisque. L'angelot servait de moyen d'échange, de rémunération et d'impôt.

Это произошло в эпоху под названием 'Анжело', которое в действительности являлось названием монеты. Сыр Анжело служил средством обмена, зарплатой и налогом (This happened in an era called 'Angelot', which was actually the name of the coin. Angelot cheese served as a medium of exchange, salary and tax).

With regard to temporal changes in currency, translators cannot ignore the units bearing the same name with different referents of time and place.

As a general rule, a good translator knows everything about the epoch of the book he is translating: people's life, their culture and, especially, their outdated currency measurement systems:

Le beurre et le fromage consommés à Paris

'As a rule, translators should be careful re-placing one measurement system with another, for mistakes can result in the corruption of historical facts'

équivaudraient à 17,000,000 livres pesant de viande.

Количество масла и сыра, потребляемое в Париже, равносильно 17000000 фунтам мяса (Butter and cheese consumed in Paris is equal to 17,000,000 pounds of meat).

Translators should use a footnote with their authorial commentary when they mention this measurement system in their translation for the first time, thus making sure there is no misunderstanding. Additional information helps make the content more precise:

Une livre de fromage exige au moins 12 livres de lait. 100 kilogrammes de lait donnent de 8 à 10 kilogrammes de fromage gras.

Для одного фунта сыра необходимо 12 фунтов молока. 100 килограмм молока позволяет изготовить от 8 до 10 килограмм жирного сыра (12 pounds of milk are required to make one pound of cheese. 100 kilogrammes of milk allow to produce from 8 to 10 kilogrammes of high-fat cheese).

Фунт – это мера веса 380-550 г. (в зависимости от провинции в старой Франции) (Pound is a measure of weight that equals to 380-550 grammes (depending on the provinces in old France).

As a rule, translators should be careful replacing one measurement system with another, for mistakes can result in the corruption of historical facts.

3.5 Translating proper names

A proper name is an object of onomastics, the science that studies all types of names in all their aspects (e.g. their use, origin and history). One of the most important features of personal pronouns is that they are attached to things on an individual basis. Thus, in principle, they have to be viewed as definitions of the same things not only in one linguistic environment, but in other linguistic and cultural environments. In other words, a personal pronoun does not have to be replaced by another denotation, when people talk or write about its owner in another language. Consequently, a proper name is an object of interlingual and cross-cultural borrowing. Rendering of foreign-language proper names is a difficult and multidimensional problem fraught with misunderstandings, incidents and mistakes (Sato, 2016).

There are generally two ways to translate proper names into the target language: (1) to focus on the written form to simply render the name's graphical representation without introducing any changes in the outcome text; or (2) to resort to transliteration, especially in cases where the source text and the target text use different graphic systems (Majcher, 2017).

To date, Russian linguistic usage does not implement transliteration in its pure form, mainly because many letters of the Latin alphabet in different languages (e.g. German, French, English) have changed their phonic meaning and can be pronounced unconventionally in certain letter combinations or words. Therefore, a consecutive transliteration of personal pronouns by means of Russian letters will create variants which will bear little resemblance to original proper names for the reader. Considering that the sound system of a language is primary and the writing system is secondary, it is logical to strive for phonetic proximity with the source text. Thus, in rendering personal pronouns it is imperative to render as precisely as possible the sounding of the original name by means of the receptible language. This approach – transliteration – remains the main method used in rendering personal pronouns in Russian: *Bourbeau – Бурбо; Leroux – Леру.*

Dealing with a personal name, translators should not forget about its national-linguistic affiliation and make translational decisions with due consideration of all possible linguistic and semantic implications for the benefit of the intended reader. As a general rule, a proper name is transcribed or borrowed, but in some cases it can be

translated.

Regarding personal names of people (anthroponyms), the fundamental rupture is when two languages use different alphabets. With the same alphabets, the names preserve their graphic representation, with only a few exceptions made for (1) names of historic figures and classical authors, (2) names of royal families and nobility, (3) names of saints.

French names and surnames should be translated into Russian under rules of practical transcription. The general imperative is to be guided by phonetical rules of the French language, as, for example, is the case with the silent 't' at the end of a word, as in:

Jacquet – Жаке;

Charlot – Шарло;

Constant – Констан.

Another principle of etymological correspondence in the practice of proper names borrowing is transcription. This principle implies that the word differs in form in various languages but some of them have the common linguistic origin:

Jean I Posthume – Иоанн I Посмертный (John the Posthumous);

Louis X le Hutin – Людовик Сварливый (Louis X of France, or Louis the Stubborn);

Robert II le Pieux – Роберт II Благочестивый (Robert II of France, or Robert the Pious);

Pépin le Bref – Пипин Короткий (Pepin the Short);

Louis VI Le Gros – Людовик VI Толстый (Louis VI of France, or Louis the Fat);

Geneviève – Женевьева (Genevieve);

Françoise – Франсуаза (Françoise);

François – Франциск (François);

Charlemagne – Карл Великий (Charles the Great).

To sum up, translators should create a system of priorities for each individual case and abide by some generally accepted rules: make sure that you deal with a proper name, i.e. an individual object's name; identify which class of objects the word is referred to; identify the word's national-linguistic background; check the availability of traditional correspondence.

4. CONCLUSION

The problem of terminology translation remains one of the most topical issues of modern translation studies. The following methods can be used in translating terms: replacement of the French term by the Russian term bearing the same meaning; equivalent translation; transcription; transliteration; descriptive or explanatory translation; calque translation.

Generally, translators working with narrow-field texts are required to address several problems. For example, overcoming difficulties having to do with the divergence in terminology between the language of the original text and the language of translation. It is also essential to achieve equivalent and adequate translation.

In the translation process translators should be mindful of descriptive translation. This kind of translation is very ponderous and lengthy, which is why it should not be abused.

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Self-representation through social network status messages: Psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic and gender aspects

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The article reveals the issues of expanded understanding of self-presentation viewed as an integral component of any communicative act, as the socio-cultural behaviour, and also as a means of controlling the impression a person makes on others in the process of interaction. As communication through social networks is becoming an increasingly common element of modern culture, it is thus becoming an increasingly important means of self-representation. By looking into people's status messages on social networks one can identify the main cultural aspects used in the process of their self-presentation. By analysing status messages posted on social networks, the study reveals the approaches to self-presentation used by people of different age and sex groups. The article presents an analysis of gender and age characteristics of the use of self-presentation tactics and reveals differences in the choice of topics for the status messages.

KEYWORDS: *self-representation, personal identity, virtual identity, virtual communication, social network, status message*

1. INTRODUCTION

A social network is an online service or site through which people create and maintain interpersonal relationships: this is where web-based and mobile technologies are applied to turn communication into an interactive dialogue. What makes social network sites unique is not that they allow individuals to meet strangers, but rather that they give voice to individuals and communities, uniting people and providing them with a platform for self-expression (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). One of the tools making this possible are status messages which are messages posted by users on their personal pages and intended to serve as descriptors unravelling people's mood, attitudes, viewpoints, thoughts and personal values – both current and generally adhered to – and allowing them to construct their own image of self.

This research aims to classify and describe the intentional, meaningful component of status messages available in the open access social network Vkontakte, which is an object of the research. We selected some popular quotes posted by users of Vkontakte on their personal pages and proceeded from the assumption that such quotes incorporated into status messages convey some abstract ideas through a typified generalisation of real phenomena and objects, and are part of people's self-representation 'routines' on social networks.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Before discussing visual, written and quantitative kinds of self-representation in social media, it is imperative to closely consider the term 'repre-

sentation'. Twentieth century linguistics, with influential scholars such as Ferdinand de Saussure and Charles Sanders Peirce, supported semiotic apprehension of representation as a system of signs, i.e. sounds, words, images or objects that come into place instead of a concept or an object (Martí, 2017), as in the word *tree* is a sign that refers to an actual tree.

In a world riddled with global flows of wealth, power and images, the search for identity, regardless collective or individual, attributed or constructed, a source of social meaning becomes a fundamental issue (Castells, 2004). English philosopher and physician John Locke distinguished identity of substances from personal identity: the former covers matter and its organisation, while the latter is specific to humanity and consists of a person's consciousness of being that person, even despite physical changes that may affect them (Newman, 2015). The technical function of distinguishing an individual by means of an oral or graphic representation pertains to the problem of identity of substances. Personal identity will be discussed below with respect to the reflexive dimension of self-representation. The problem of identity is amplified by the postmodern scenario, which leads to the eclecticism of both the sociocultural space, and the individual proper. According to Noonan (2019), at the level of the natural historical process, a personality manifests itself only by the features that this personality can be objectified in. Current changes in a socio-cultural context lead to the transformation of the forms of such objectification of a personality and strengthening of an external way of its formation. Many indicators determine the degree of penetration of information technologies and their significant impact on internal structures (Haythornthwaite & Kendall, 2010).

Technological innovations create the basis for the implementation of the strategy of identity search through joining a variety of network (virtual) communities, which acquire the properties of social groups. Thus, Internet communities are one of the types of communities as a set of 'invisible' human connections, implemented through a rather tangible communication network (Massa, 2017, p. 959). The specificity of Internet communities has to do with the fact that communication takes place not in a direct way, but through technological means. Such a virtual community is a plexus of personal communicative activity of people, ways and tools of interaction, a set of symbolic means. People have a strong desire to fit into groups; they build a personal and individualised identity to align themselves with other social relations (Baym, 2015). Social media platforms empower individuals by enabling them to better control the process of social disclosure.

Virtual identity is obviously associated with self-presentation and self-determination of a personality. Modern Internet technologies open up opportunities for a vivid manifestation of a personality and variability of self-presentation means. While a number of researchers believe that Internet environment is fraught with the dangers of shifting identity, levelling a personality of the individual and formation of an unrealistic image of self (Gal et al., 2016; Spears & Postmes, 2015), the findings of recent experimental studies on social networks, refute the existence of an alternative personality as such. It may lead to the conclusion that a personality tends to authenticity and self-actualisation both in real life and in virtual space. Attractive electronic tools of self-presentation, such as avatars, nicknames, status messages and other content on social networks, allow users to easily and freely design symbols that reflect the real identity of their personality. That is, virtual environment is not a space for building a virtual identity, but a means of creating a virtual shell of the real identity (Back et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2012).

Davis (2012) argues that social networking sites provide means of self-expression for users but by having these outlets of expression, create an issue of balancing multiple selves and their respective audiences. Social networks create a space where users feel freer to express themselves online and provides them with chances to work through certain issues they might be dealing with in their daily lives (Davis, 2012, p. 643).

Thus, social representations are about processes of collective meaning-making resulting in – to some extent – common cognitions, which allows to produce social bonds uniting societies, organisations and groups. It sets focus on phenomena that become a subject to debate, strong feelings, conflicts and ideological struggle, and changes the collective thinking in society.

The penetration of the Internet into all spheres of human existence is an inevitable and fast-flowing process. People are attracted by a wide variety of applications of the technology – to run business, to expand horizons, to play games, to communicate. Another motive – self-affirmation – has also been in the picture for a long time. One of the key tools for self-affirmation are status messages posted on social networks, which can be viewed as life mottos of a variable and short-lived value, although it allows an outsider to immediately assess the personality behind such a message. The motto of life is a principle of behaviour formulated in a concise form or a call to action. It is important for the inner self-motivation of a person. Sometimes it serves as a ready-made solution for the choice of behaviour in a difficult and not conducive to long reflections life situation. Life principles, issued in the status of any social network, can rather be called a person's view of life, an attempt to approach ethical maxims and dreaming, than a real standard of behaviour.

Through communication, social representations are anchored repeatedly in other social representations. This is a kind of cultural assimilation by which new social representations are incorporated into the well-known ones simultaneously as the latter ones are transformed by the new ones. Gradually then the unfamiliar ideas become well-known and part of the collective frames of references of a society (Thorne et al., 2015). In short, anchoring means that new ideas or phenomena are re-lated to a well-known phenomenon or a context.

Status messages have a long history. Popular sources for status messages with a high citation index include aphoristic Roman, Greek and biblical sayings, such as *Wise who knows what is neces-*

'Thus, social representations are about process-es of collective meaning-making resulting in – to some extent – common cognitions, which allows to produce social bonds uniting societies, organi-sations and group'

sary, and not much (Aeschylus), *Gratitude quickly grows old* (Aristotle), or *Fate gives nothing to eternal property*. These have survived centuries, passed down from generation to generation as verbal legacies or moral maxims. In the middle ages, the mottoes of knights were placed under the shield and served either as a memory of the glorious exploits of a person, or as an incentive to them, as in *It is better to die than to be disgraced* (Francis the First, Duke of Britain). Similarly, almost every noble family in the Russian Empire acquired its own coat of arms and a motto. Thus, the Sheremetyevs chose as their motto the Latin saying *God preserves everything* and the Russian saying *I hold out by the power of the highest*.

With the advent of printing press and the development of literature, sayings of philosophers, poets, prose writers, scientists and public figures increasingly fall in the category of moral principles, standard maxims. This trend holds to this day; only the list of aphorisms and sayings is now replenished, in addition to everything else, by memes – images or videos that are spread widely on the Internet, often altered by Internet users for humorous effect.

Depending on the content and form, it is possible to distinguish semantic groups of values, expressed in different ways in life mottos: professional, gender, age, marital status, etc. This study will focus on gender-age groups. A social network user who chooses a particular status message from a variety of aphorisms, celebrity quotes, or memes identifies himself/herself with it, which falls to some extent under the concept of an association. Metaphorically speaking, an association (in psychology and psycholinguistics) is a connection of the conscious with the unconscious, a kind of a

transition zone from one process to another. Thinking until some particular point presents nothing else, but associations, initially elementary, linked to particular external objects, and only then a whole chain of associations. The interweaving of a language units association is so complex and infinite (like our consciousness itself) that it cannot be subjected to the most sophisticated and qualitative analysis (Whorf & Veretennikov, 2016, p. 221).

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

One of the most important assessments of the sampling procedure validity is representativeness, as a feature that ensures the reliability and authenticity of the information obtained during the study concerned with a particular subject. This study uses the method of convenience sampling of Internet users of the social network Vkontakte, who posted status messages on their page. The most common audience of respondents are students of educational institutions, whose age varies from 17 to 21. Researchers agree that by this age, the formation of the linguistic ability is mostly completed (Owens, 2016). The key point, of importance directly for our research, is the postulate that a person's linguistic ability, its combinatorial capabilities, as a rule, remain unchanged throughout life (Chater et al., 2016).

Thus, qualitative representation of the results of the experiment is achieved by the optimal choice of respondents, based on the variability of age groups, in this case, on the division of Internet audience into two age categories from 25 to 40 years and 40+ and following the gender principle. In turn, in determining the quantitative component of the analysed material, we were guided by one of the basic rules adopted in psycholinguistics, according to which the most relevant data are obtained with the participation of 60 recipients in the experiment (Fernández et al., 2018) – the sample size in this study was 100 units of analysed Internet accounts.

Classification studies are aimed at the organisation and presentation in a foreseeable form of large arrays of empirical material, as well as at the

theoretical construction of models and identification of their compliance with this material. We considered it expedient to distribute the material for the study per thematic fields. Anchoring may also take place at more basic thematic levels by the use of underlying categories of meaning, antinomies such as life/death or culture/nature etc., or by the use of metaphors. Based on the analysis of the content component of the status messages, three thematic fields were identified – Friendship, Love, and Philosophy.

Thus, we attempted to build the so-called mental map of a respondent, which gave us, in turn, the opportunity to reflect the individual's idea of reality in a synthetic form – as it is reflected in the texts of their status messages. A mental map clearly demonstrates the layer of content associated with the expression of the author's attitude to the described objects and the author's description of the interaction of these objects with each other. The following analysis of the content of each thematic field shows the messages forming this particular field. The analysis assumes quantitative comparison, and allocation (if there are strong grounds for this) of indicators of substantial, national and cultural originality. All conditional reactions, i.e. quotes, were divided into three thematic fields – Friendship, Philosophy, and Love.

4. STUDY RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

At the first stage of the study we compared the share of mottos in status messages within the thematic fields in question (Table 1). The biggest share comprises philosophic mottos, meaning that the most popular mottos are those concerned with the philosophical view on life, people, world, etc.

As to the gender aspect, women are more concerned with such concepts as love and philosophy, while most of the mottos chosen by men refer to the concepts of friendship and philosophy. This is one of the major differences in terms of the gender aspect.

As to the age aspect, people aged 40+ are mostly interested in philosophical issues and choose mottos that help them express their view on life.

Table 1

Distribution of mottos in status messages within the thematic fields of Friendship, Philosophy and Love per gender, age and frequency of occurrence

AGE AND GENDER GROUP	THEMATIC FIELD AND NUMBER/PERCENTAGE OF MOTTOS		PERCENTAGE OF OCCURRENCE
FRIENDSHIP			
M 25-40	2	16,6%	
F 25-40	5	41,66%	
M 40+	4	33,33%	12%
F 40 +	1	8,33%	
LOVE			
M 25-40	4	18,18%	
F 25-40	14	63,63%	
M 40+	3	13,63%	22%
F 40+	1	4,54%	
PHILOSOPHY			
M 25-40	11	16,66%	
F 25-40	11	16,66%	
M 40+	16	24,24%	66%
F 40 +	18	27,27%	

Table 2

Thematic field 'Philosophy'

	BIBLE QUOTES	LATIN QUOTES	MOVIE QUOTES	BOOKS AND SONGS QUOTES	CELEBRITY QUOTES	FALK WISDOM
M 25-40	1	1	1	1	3	4
F 25-40	1		1	1	3	6
M 40+	1	1		4	6	4
F 40 +	1	1	1	5	6	4

Further on we consider the distribution of mottos within each thematic filed with due consideration of age and gender aspects.

Thematic field 'Philosophy' is represented by the most solid scope of reactions (Table 2). The most frequent reactions occur in both age groups and they are rather evenly ranked between gender groups. Of note is the high frequency of reactions related to the categories of folk wisdom and celebrity quotes. Also of note is the fact that a greater percentage of the presented mottos in both age categories (25-40 and 40+) can be somehow associated with the philosophical category of fate, doom and predestination, as in *Count your blessings,* or *When the pinch comes, you remember the old shoe,* or *Do your best, and let fate do the rest.* The theme of fate and predestination is one of the key concepts in the Russian linguistic view of the world. According to Wierzbicka (2016), the meaningful definition of 'destiny' in the Russian language can be described as a free end in a tangled ball of wool and pulling it, we will be able to untangle a whole 'tangle' (a complex of associations) connected with attitudes, values and expectations embodied not only in words, but also in proverbs 'connected with fate', in set expressions and grammatical constructions, such as impersonal dative-infinitive constructions, very characteristic of the Russian syntax, to numerous proverbs, etc. Notably, while the 25-40-age audience of both sexes prefers positive fate-related messages (e.g. *Better be sure than sorry,* or *You are the master of your destiny*), the 40+ male subjects are more inclined towards pessimistic or neutral-coloured messages (e.g. *Wonder lasts but nine days,* or *Hope for the best, prepare for the worst*), and the preferences of the female audience most commonly reflect a proactive approach to life (e.g. *What does not kill you, makes you stronger,* or *Nothing ventured – nothing gained*).

The percentage of mottos falling into the category of books and songs quotes (mostly from classical literature and popular lyrics) in the age groups of 25-40 and 40+ indicates the second ranking by frequency and is approximately the same.

Statements making up the category of movie quotes are few, and are presented mainly among the reactions given by those in the 25-40 age category (*My mama always said life was like a box of chocolates: you never know what you're gonna get,* or *May the Force be with you*).

'Friendship' turned out least presented in the sample of the study (Table 3). Folk wisdom and quotes from books and songs as the prevailing source of quotations in this field (equal number). In this case, it is not only proverbs and sayings, rather, the sayings of an author who is now unknown, whose verbalised thought was widely spread thanks to the accuracy and semantic capacity of the phrase. In our sample there was not a single quote from the Bible or quoted Latin saying connected with the concept of Friendship. Perhaps the following assumption can serve as an explanation: in the Bible, the sermons of the saints are mainly focused on the education of a human soul through connection with God, following his commandments, humility before the will of God. As for the Latin sayings that have reached us through the centuries, a large proportion of them refers to philosophy (e.g. *Through hardships to the stars,* or *All that is mine, I carry with me*), and philosophers are more inclined to reflect on the world order, on the spiritual and intellectual development of a human being (personality). In addition, a large part of Latin sayings that reached us from the Ancient Rome, refers to the statements of the Roman emperors, who notionally didn't need friendship, because they put retaining power by any means at the forefront (e.g. *Money does not stink*).

Quotes about friendship were the least popular among the randomly selected respondents – about 14% of the total number, which might be reflective of the spreading inclination towards individualism and greater accentuation of personal rights and freedoms, as opposed to the declining status and decreasing value of collectivism within the society. Values of individualism have indeed infiltrated the global culture, blurring the notion of friendship as it was once perceived. Fromm (Fromm & Anderson, 2017) was among the first to point out that the individualisation of personality

Table 3
Thematic field 'Friendship'

	BIBLE QUOTES	LATIN QUOTES	MOVIE QUOTES	BOOKS AND SONGS QUOTES	CELEBRITY QUOTES	FALK WISDOM
M 25-40					1	1
F 25-40		1		3		
M 40+				2		2
F 40 +						1

Table 4
Thematic field 'Love'

	BIBLE QUOTES	LATIN QUOTES	MOVIE QUOTES	BOOKS AND SONGS QUOTES	CELEBRITY QUOTES	FALK WISDOM
M 25-40				1	1	2
F 25-40	3		1	5	3	2
M 40+				1	1	1
F 40 +						1

within a society has two tendencies. On the one hand, people are aware of themselves as independent social doers who act independently of traditional social structures, such as communities, groups, clans, etc. On the other hand, there is a weakening of social ties that have been formed for centuries and were based on the principle of mutual assistance. Perhaps we are witnessing these trends that stem from globalisation processes and the blurring of lines.

Moving on to the next thematic field – Love – its quantitative composition slightly exceeds the Friendship field (22% vs 14%) (Table 4). Remarkably, women aged 40+ are much less willing to choose quotes and statements about love and friendship as an element of self-presentation, while men aged 40+ show a much greater inclination to using friendship quotes. This may have to do with the need to appreciate army friends, who most often become very close people akin to family

members. In addition, women aged 40+ are more concerned with the problems of life, the future of their children and grandchildren. In some cases, they also have to make efforts to preserve their marriage.

The opposite is observed among women aged 25-40, who are more inclined to use love quotes than the rest of the respondents in other categories. A stereotype of the need for marriage as a sign of female solvency is firmly entrenched in the female mentality. Marriage is inextricably linked with romantic relationships, so the issues of love and marriage occupy the minds of women aged 25-40 years, given the current trend to shift the age of marriage towards a later time. In men of the same age frame, youth is sacrificed in favour of career growth and professional development. In addition, men do not tend to openly talk about their feelings, and in fact on social networks, as a rule, their user profile and content are open for all.

5. CONCLUSION

The theory of social representations directs attention to social and cultural thinking of a society, how new social cognitions or representations of reality are pushed forward and the old ones transformed through communication. The theory demystifies the question of where the representations come from: they are related to real changes in the material and symbolic world (technological changes, scientific achievements, etc.), and at the same time – to the already existing bodies of social representations in social life, in the media and elsewhere within the society.

Social media are one of the saturated interactive technologies surrounding us today (Goggin & Hjorth, 2014). To identify how activities and habits are produced, defined and shaped by technology, self-disclosure is to be viewed as the interaction and interplay between the users and the platform. Social network platforms are engineered so as to invite yet discipline their users into particular roles and modes of behaviour.

People use self-presentation to construct an identity for themselves. Most people have a certain ideal image of the person they would like to be. It is not enough merely to act like that person or to convince oneself that one resembles that person. Identity requires social validation; one way to do this is to have a motto that reflects your personal view on life. People create versions of themselves when they go out in public or on social media in order to craft an image of themselves, and they work hard to maintain that image define the way other see them.

Various kinds of sayings and quotes become a source for self-presentation embodied in people's

'Social network platforms are engineered so as to invite yet discipline their users into particular roles and modes of behaviour'

status messages posted on social networks. Of all the above, the most popular are folk wisdom quotes, memes, books and celebrity quotes. Quotes from religious texts and Latin sayings are much less popular, which can be explained by the general level of education of the population and the degree of applicability of such quotes to the everyday life. Besides, not everyone can understand their allegorical meaning.

With regard to gender and age characteristics, respondents aged 25-40 are slightly more inclined to consider life through the prism of philosophical thoughts, although, in general, all informants, regardless of gender, were closer to the philosophical background of statements and quotes, especially those coming from the depths of folk art, songs, books and famous people. Perhaps the reason should be sought in the fact that with age a person becomes more pragmatic, self-confident, while youth is a period of idealising, striving for maximalism and cultivating hopes.

If presentation and representation of the self is at the heart of life in the digital culture, this practice requires scholarly attention from multiple perspectives. This would also seem to suggest that we need to compare ideas concerning the issue from scholars of diverse traditions to compare in addition to gender-age group aspect cultural peculiarities in approaches to self-representation.

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Review

Cross-cultural management: With insights from brain science (a review)

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When I first attended a lecture by Dr Mai Nguyen-Phuong-Mai at a SIETAR event in London she laid a model brain on the desk and talked about the importance of neuro-science in linguistics and intercultural understanding. Vietnamese by birth, she was associate Professor at the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences and travelled the world as lecturer in other universities, particularly Australia. Her first book, *Intercultural Communication: A Disciplinary Approach* published in 2018 is reviewed by Philip Williams in *Training, Language and Culture* Volume 2 Issue 2, and her second major book on cross-cultural management was published in 2019.

The key to *Cross-Cultural Management* is the application of brain science to the study of business culture, although that is by no means all that the book covers. The fourteen chapters cover globalisation, diversity, bias and change management before going on to motivation, leadership, business communication, negotiation and marketing, offering practical business tips in the context of her underlying philosophy. The book has a preface by the doyen of intercultural awareness studies, George Simons.

The book is a gift to intercultural trainers and teachers, packed with facts and stories of critical incidents, with two bonuses at the back of discussion cases and problem-solving cases (great sources for critical incidents).

What makes the book different is its rejection of what Mai calls a static paradigm of cultures and adoption of the dynamic paradigm, which shows how cultures actually work. The static view of culture focuses on differences and the relationship of country to culture. It focuses on binary differences (for example, individualism vs collectivism) and highlights national values rather than individual values. The slogan she uses to sum up the static paradigm is *Think global – act local*.

The dynamic paradigm focuses on the individual and on similarities, what brings people together and the fact that individuals unite around global values, national values (I would want to add regional values), organisational and group culture. Values influence behaviours but even deep-seated values can change. People can be both individual and collectivist. Culture is a process of communication and negotiation both within and between insiders and outsiders. Above all, we don't do business with cultures but with individuals, and individuals can rethink and reshape a culture in dealing with internal and external forces and influences. The slogan for the dynamic paradigm puts individuals firmly in the frame: *Think global – plan local – act individual*.

In expounding her thesis, Mai adopts theories not frequently invoked by interculturalists: the theory of evolutionary biology, expounded by Mark Pagels in his book *Wired for Culture,* and the theory of cultural neuroscience. She also explores a newish awareness, the ability of the brain to rapidly adapt and reconstruct according to a new context. As she writes, 'If we have to use the software metaphor, then it's not culture. Culture is not just socially learned, but geographically influenced, genetically inherited, and neurally enabled'. And for businesspeople? *'The goal of an international businessperson is to cultivate a multicultural mind so that (s)he can dynamically adapt or create the kind of cultural pattern that suits a context the best'.*

At bottom, believes Mai, culture is about survival. It is about practices and beliefs individuals accept to protect them against the environment and which become established group ways of living and working together. She gives the example of the Hindu reverence for the cow, an animal whose use in traction and as a source of milk meant it had to be protected in an agricultural society. As she puts it, *'A culture is an immense and active archive of what is best to do to survive'.* But, as a huge resource, humans can choose to follow it and improve and broaden it. So, culture is dynamic and can adapt and change to suit new environments and conditions. To show how this works she presents a Diagramme of Diversity Pathways, based on a simple acronym GCEB-Be, standing for Gene, Culture, Environment, Brain and Behaviour. We are influenced by our genes, which are largely fixed at birth, our culture, which is adaptable but strongly influenced by our geographical surroundings and environment, and our brain, which enables us to make connections and think how we can best succeed, all of which influence our behaviour. A successful business will adapt to the local market culture and will work with it or reshape it and even create new cultures to achieve success, depending, of course, on the context.

Context is crucial and stimulates change. Just as the brain can process opposite ideas when it

'Just as the brain can process opposite ideas when it needs, so cultures can change at the levels of individual experience, professional requirements, and social, regional and national and even global pressures, dependent on the context'

needs, so cultures can change at the levels of individual experience, professional requirements, and social, regional and national and even global pressures, dependent on the context. Mai likens culture to a tree with roots and a trunk, branches and foliage. The roots and trunk represent the fundamental concerns, the building blocks of what makes a culture, illustrated by language, music, loyalty, hierarchy and artistic culture and, at bottom, what allows survival. The fundamental concerns are the basis of the branches, core values and attitudes which govern the group's life either by its adherence to or revolt against them. These core values manifest in the canopy (the foliage) which represents the behaviours which Illustrate the core values in action, also by adherence to or by revolt against. It is the revolt against and the need to adapt to a changing environment that leads to cultural change and evolution.

Mai is interesting on the origin of the well-known cultural iceberg, first popularised by the anthropologist, Edward Hall. The cultural iceberg concept with its two levels of above the surface (behaviour you can observe) and below the surface (values you can't) originated in the cold war between Eastern communism and Western capitalism. It created a binary opposition which Mai argues is outdated. The point, writes Mai, is that culture is changing, is often contradictory within and between communities and is capable of evolving. This corresponds in Mai's research into brain science into the relationship between the amygdala (emotional memory) and the hippocampus (factual memory). As humans we often respond culturally out of fear and stress against cultural 'realities' that do not suit us. Mai's view is

that cultural change comes from positivity in the face of difference and the readiness to adapt.

In her chapter on Change Management Mai introduces another concept with the acronym STREAP Be. This is a framework for adapting to cultural differences. *S* means *safety* (recognising and respecting differences in status, certainty, autonomy, relatedness and fairness). In business it manifests in being on the same page, allowing local control, allowing choice, building trust but also keeping an eye on the competition. *T* means *trigger* (changing routines to suit changing contexts). *R* stands for *reward* and recognising different ways of achieving and recognising results. *E* stands for *emotion*. Mai points out that change is driven by emotion. Empathy, building a happy workplace, and acting with kindness are all part of emotion. *A* stands for *alignment*. It is important to look for similarities and areas of cooperation, looking at common values, vision and common interests. *P* stands for *people*. Culture changes because people change and successful business puts its faith in change agents, important people but also the involvement of the rank and file. *Be* at the end obviously refers to behaviour. Part of behavioural change lies in recognising how you yourself are changing and evolving as part of the process of cultural change.

Having established the STREAP-Be acronym Mai then goes on to apply it to motivation, communication, leadership, negotiation and mar-

keting in International business with lots of practical examples. A very valuable practical part of each chapter is the chart where she lists core cultural values and matches them with management strategies that international businesspeople can use. Very useful summaries.

In concluding the review of this extraordinary book which really can change thinking let us return to the basic strategy of the dynamic paradigm: *Think Global, Plan Local, Act Individual.* Think global means recognising universal human motivation, building trust, weeding out fear and using similarities as your starting point. Plan local means being prepared to align yourself with local culture but developing the ability to reshape it and even create a new culture on the basis of the old. Act individual means resisting prejudice and stereotypes and thinking and acting contextually while expecting surprises, changes and contradictory values and behaviours.

This is a deep and genuinely inspiring book which offers a new and dynamic view of cross-cultural relations in life and in business. It shows how the brain works and how it influences cultural attitudes and behaviours at an international level. It develops new acronyms based on brain science and shows how information and emotions are processed and offers strategies on how people and international business can adapt to and even create culture change. Definitely one for your bookshelf or university or business library.

Critical global semiotics: Understanding sustainable transformational citizenship (a review)

A book about semiotics with no reference to its founder, the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure? Now that must be a first. But *Critical Global Semiotics* is not about linguistics but about culture and citizenship and how it works in a global context and across a multiplicity of disciplines. In doing so its 16 chapters review health, labour (in particular, child labour), music, dance and artistic culture, town planning, political economy, climate change and education. The essays explore aspects of culture and citizenship in a wide range of countries including India, China, Iraq, Turkey, Brazil, Mexico and Europe and the US. It is a scholarly and wide-ranging book edited with an introduction and conclusion by Maureen Ellis.

De Saussure might be conspicuous by his absence but Saussure's ideas are there. As Victoria Lindsay points out in her essay on the phrase *Countering Violent Extremism*, Saussurean linguistics bridged the gap between anthropology and semiotic principles and identified the need to consider not just words but the relationship between terms, their intrinsic identity and their value in a cultural system. She also cites the Russian formulist Yuri Lotman, who believed firmly in the relationship between semiotics and culture. A key theorist whose ideas are developed in the book is the American philosopher, Charles Sanders Peirce, whose concept of critical realism (CR) methodology is basic to the approach to the individual essays in the book. Peirce identified three characteristics of a semiotic symbol – a sign (what is signified), an object (whatever is signified) and an interpretant (how the sign is interpreted and presented).

The other key concept is Systemic Functional Semiotics (SFS). SFS is based on the ideas of Halliday who coined the term Systemic Functional linguistics (SFL) and is a method of analysis that covers the entire field of signs, codes and modes across cultures, geography, professions and disciplines. But first of all, what does Ellis mean by semiotics and how does it apply to global citizenship? For us as teachers of language semiotics is described by de Saussure as the science of signs. For Ellis it embraces a larger canvas, covering the symbols and ideologies expressed in rhetoric and metaphor and applied to countries, different kinds of activities and even philosophy and religion. We live, says Ellis, in a semiotic world which goes back to the dawn of language and embraces multimodality, media and metaphor. Thought itself is semiotic, as Peirce would have said, and most our deepest held cultural and religious beliefs are expressed semiotically through symbols, through rhetoric and through religion. In short, the way we think and express ourselves has been dominated

by symbols from the beginning of recorded time and we live in a semiotic world. As Per Auge Brandt, a Danish Jazz musician and lecturer at the Sorbonne in Paris, puts it in his chapter entitled *What is a Global Citizen*, the mind itself *'is shaped by the semiotic world that evolved with it during its 50,000 years of modernity'*.

As a teacher I was particularly interested in Alison Greig's and Wendy Purcell's semiotic reflections on our academic systems and particularly our institutions. For Wendy Purcell our academic institutions are no longer fit for purpose. Why not? Because they were designed for a different age, says Alison Greig. The world has gone through different 'ages' in the last century and a half. The large-scale development of higher education was originally to serve the needs of the industrial age and then the machine age, where it got stuck. We are now in the information age and rapidly approaching the ecological age. Our perspective needs to change, she said. A key to this is a stress on interdisciplinary studies, which is why she started at Anglia Ruskin University in the UK an MA devoted to the interdisciplinary study of sustainability. We need new programmes, new degrees, new courses and new approaches to teaching, including online, and this will involve a change in rhetoric, terminology and symbols – in short, a change in semiotics.

Wendy Purcell stressed the need for new technology, notably AV equipment and facilities, online learning as a basis of learning blended with face to face interaction and universal e-support. Once again, the spread of a new rhetoric and a new semiotic terminology.

However, it's not all about words. At the book launch, Paul Barker, a music teacher at the Guildhall School of Music and Drama said, *'I love words but I don't trust them.'* For him the language of semiotics is the language of music. As he said, music came before language and sounds preceded sentences. So for him, as a semiotic transmission, music comes first and language second. Maybe that's why music is such a fundamental aspect of all societies, even more than spoken or written language.

'The biosphere of semiotics contains a core of common beliefs and needs which are expressed differently in belief systems, politics, symbols, images, sounds and language. Our job as global citizens is not just to understand the semiotic differences but to break through those differences to appreciate the commonalities beneath'

What is obvious from reading *Critical Global Semiotics* is that the science of signs goes way beyond language. As one contributor, Susan Petrilli, put it, there are layers of semiotics extending from bacteria to artificial intelligence. What we need to understand is that everything is interconnected although they may use different rhetoric and symbols. The biosphere of semiotics contains a core of common beliefs and needs which are expressed differently in belief systems, politics, symbols, images, sounds and language. Our job as global citizens is not just to understand the semiotic differences but to break through those differences to appreciate the commonalities beneath.

That leads us back to the subtitle of Maureen Ellis's work, *Understanding Sustainable Transformational Citizenship*. In short, can we use the study of semiotics to help us and our students become international citizens of our sociosphere? The first step is to recognise that semiotics – the signs and symbols that we use – although expressed in language and symbols are not limited to the language we use to describe them, though that is important, but extend to the phenomena themselves.

As Per Aage Brandt points out in his opening essay, our job is to recognise that every society on earth has common realities in their need to organise their lives but have evolved different ways of doing it and different symbols to represent it. Our job is to appreciate those different ways but never to lose sight of the common realities underneath. He cites Kant's enlightenment concept of the weltbuerger, the global citizen, to reinforce the realisa-

tion that, faced with global catastrophe, the possible collapse of our habitat, we need to recognise the commonalities in our societies and work better together in order to survive. This means critically examining differences between how we express ourselves socially, politically, commercially and religiously and exploring how we can work together to create a sustainable future.

Can we do it? The deep and rigorously academic contributions to this collection of essays present some of the issues both from the point of theory and practice. The value of the book to linguists and teachers is that the essays expand the application of language and semiotics as applied to language and symbols and extend it into the arts and social and political organisation. It is a book of essays in which we can follow our interests, be they primarily political, social or linguistic, or all three. The underlying message, however, is clear: we live in a world that is under threat and only by understanding our different societal symbols, interpreting them and recognising the commonalities lying beneath can we move forward to a sustainable future.

ICC News

by Ozlem Yuges

ICC Co-ordinator

New Members

We are delighted to welcome our new members to the ICC and EUROLTA family: International Institute for Studies and Cooperation, JSM Language and Innovation Centre, Pepperdine University, and Volkshochschule Hanau.

ICC 2020 Conference in Belgrade, Serbia

The ICC 2020 Conference will be held May 8-10 in Belgrade, Serbia. The conference will include workshops and poster presentations encompassing ways of enriching teaching and learning. The theme of the conference is *Innovation in Language Teaching – New Ways to Learn and Teach More Effectively*, focusing on the new methods, new technologies, new materials, new assessment, and new CPD opportunities. The conference will offer speakers and delegates the unique opportunity to meet educational experts in their specialised fields to exchange ideas with fellow colleagues.

The concept of innovation in language teaching (subject of the 2019 Berlin conference) has generated much interest as a result of globalisation and technological developments. As a consequence of increased mobility, the challenges for language teachers are becoming more diverse. New challenges often require innovative solutions. What kind of innovative teaching methods, approaches, resources and materials are needed for the contemporary language teaching world? The purpose of the ICC 2020 Conference is to create a platform for teachers and trainers to share good practice and to take away valuable innovative ideas for teaching and learning. Some example fields that the conference will cover are: digital platforms in teaching and learning; innovative teacher development programmes; innovation in virtual learning environment and communication technologies; mobile learning and learning through gamification; integrating refugees into formal language teaching environments; the importance of intercultural communication in training; barriers facing innovation in language teaching; assessment methods to test different abilities; creative approaches to efficient learning; practical and hands-on ideas for the classroom.

The conference will enable its guests to find out about the best teaching and learning strategies and to help individuals utilise their previous learning experiences to more open up new ways of learning. Continuing Professional Development (CPD) is extensively recognised to be of great importance in language teaching and this conference offers a certificate for attendees. At the conference, you will have a chance to maintain and broaden your knowledge in addition to gaining the skills needed to use appropriate tools in teaching. It will give you the chance to develop an awareness of current developments in language teaching and cultural learning to create a substantial impact on learning. More information will be coming soon on ICC website. Details are available at icc-languages.eu/conferences.

Important dates for the 2020 conference: call for papers will be posted on the website at the end of October 2019; speaker proposal deadline is 31st January 2020; speaker conference registration and payment deadline is 30th March 2020.

EUROLTA News

by Myriam Fischer Callus

EUROLTA Co-ordinator

New EUROLTA Centre

The Adult Education Community Centre VHS Hanau (Germany) has become a new EUROLTA training centre for language teachers. Volkshochschule Hanau (VHS) was accredited in May 2019 by the ICC (International Language Association) as a EUROLTA Training Centre. In July 2019, the first eight graduates who completed their qualification at the VHS Hanau received their certificates. The Mayor Axel Weiss-Thiel, VHS EUROLTA Coordinator Patrizia Stöhr and ICC EUROLTA Project Manager Myriam Fischer Callus congratulated the first accredited teachers.

'The quality of teaching is reflected in learners' success. This is why we attach great importance to

furthering teachers' qualifications and supporting these courses financially. Our wide range of 20 languages at VHS Hanau shows that our success proves us right,' said the Mayor.

'In the context of EUROLTA qualification, course participants learn the basic qualifications in methodology and didactics through a modern multisensory training. This unique training gives the future language trainers the tools they need to teach languages. EUROLTA is practice and theory at the same time,' said Patrizia Stöhr, VHS Hanau EUROLTA Coordinator.

Myriam Fischer Callus, ICC EUROLTA Project Manager, explained: 'The ICC has made it its business to promote and improve the quality of teaching of foreign languages. This is why EUROLTA was created in the first place. The ICC has made an impact at local, regional, national and international level through the involvement of all member organisations. The ICC is particularly happy to accredit VHS Hanau and hopes that EUROLTA will grow beyond its borders'.

EUROLTA Certification Courses in Greece

Two organisations from Greece are members of the ICC – the Panhellenic Federation of Language School Owners (PALSO), and the Hellenic Culture Centre (HCC), a language school and teacher training organisation, specialising in Greek as L2. The HCC offers different EUROLTA programmes.

EUROLTA Certificate in English (online course, coming soon). This new course will start January 2020 and will be offered online. Teachers and practitioners of English, French, Greek and other languages can be certified through this training course, which will provide teachers with a wide range of knowledge and skills to empower students' language learning.

EUROLTA Certificate in Greek (face-to-face and online course). This programme is intended for teachers of any foreign language and of Greek as a foreign language, and is offered in Greek. It includes an extended 9-month Blended Learning programme offering 250 hours of total training, 6 face-to-face training days in 2 weekends (Fri-Sun), online training, 6 observation sessions, and 4 teaching sessions.

EUROLTA Diploma in Greek (face-to-face and online course). This programme is intended for teacher trainers, language school directors, and

experienced teachers of any foreign language and of Greek as a foreign language, and is offered in Greek. It includes an extended 9-month Blended Learning programme offering 250 hours of total training, 6 face-to-face training days in 2 weekends (Fri-Sun), online training, 10 observation sessions, and 4 teaching sessions.

EUROLTA Certificate on How to Teach Languages Online. This course has been offered since 2014 in Greek and will be offered in English too in 2020.

For more information please contact Ifigenia Georgiadou at ifigenia@hcc.edu.gr.

Tel: +3069441 05484.

Details are also available online at hcc.edu.gr/en/are-you-a-professor-2/teacher-certification-eurolta.

Saarbrucken University Conference

Myriam Fischer Callus, the ICC EUROLTA trainer, will be attending the 5th Foreign Languages Conference in Saarbrucken, and will be hosting a stand for EUROLTA teacher training. For details you can also visit the conference website at 5saarbrueckerfremdsprachentagung.blogspot.com.

Quality Assurance

The ICC European Language Network has its own Certificate of Quality Assurance recognising excellence and best practice in materials, products and services related to language training. The Certificate of Quality Assurance aims to improve and publicise quality in language learning materials, products and services Europe-wide and between Europe and the rest of the world. The scheme is administered by the Quality Assurance Committee (CQA) in conjunction with the board and head office of the ICC International Language Network. Detailed information is available online at icc-languages.eu/accreditation/quality-assurance.

What is the EUROLTA Certificate?

It is a certificate developed, issued and recognised by the ICC, a network of leading institutions of adult education in Europe and around the world. The EUROLTA Certificate is awarded to people who are professionals in the demanding field of teaching languages to adults. If you hold a EUROLTA Certificate you have demonstrated that you have the knowledge and skills necessary to

plan, teach and evaluate your language classes within your institutional context:

– you can adapt your institution's course programme to meet the collective and individual needs and preferences of your group;

– you can select and adapt from the teaching materials available;

– you command a wide range of teaching skills and techniques and you can apply these appropriately in your teaching context to the learning preferences of your learners and their cultural background;

– you are guided by a well-grounded understanding of language and language acquisition; in particular, you are familiar with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Teaching, Learning, Assessment (CEFR) and its model for describing communicative competence;

– you have also demonstrated a professional self-awareness that enables you to plan and achieve your further professional development.

EUROLTA Benefits

For language teachers:

practical and flexible training related to the trainee's own teaching context;

– a qualification open to teachers of all languages;

– portfolio-based assessment;

– programmes that are based on the principles of the Common European Framework of reference for Languages (Council of Europe);

– a learner-centred methodology based on reflection on one's own practice;

– an internationally recognised and monitored qualification.

For training institutions and language schools the scheme offers training and a qualification for teachers of languages without any other locally available scheme; internationally validated quality assurance with regard to teacher qualification.

What Makes EUROLTA Certificates Different?

EUROLTA is an internationally recognised teacher training program to train you to teach languages using up-to-date methodologies. You can take up the programme if you want to gain the skills and knowledge you need as a language teacher, become a more confident and more competent language teacher, and enhance your employment prospects. EUROLTA Certificate is designed for people with no or little language teaching experience and language teachers who feel they need to upgrade their practical skills. EUROLTA Diploma is designed for teachers with at least three years' teaching experience at different levels. EUROLTA is open to teachers of any language, recognises the different educational environments that professionals work in, and is based on sound educational principles that apply to all environments.

Details are available at icc-languages.eu.

RUDN University News

by Elena Malyuga

Joint Managing Editor TLC

RUDN University is Awarded with the Jose Acevedo and Gómez Order of Civil Merit

RUDN University was awarded with the Jose Acevedo and Gómez Order of Civil Merit. The highest award of the capital of Colombia was handed to university Rector Vladimir Filippov for the civil merits of the institution for the benefit of Bogotá.

'It is a great honour and a responsibility to receive this order. RUDN University has been training Colombian students from its very foundation. Since then, 663 Colombians have become university graduates. Today, 71 Colombian citizens are studying for undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate degrees at RUDN University. We are happy to maintain cooperation between our countries and train highly qualified specialists for the benefit of the future', said Vladimir Filippov.

The Jose Acevedo and Gómez Order of Civil Merit is awarded to people and organisations that have been actively collaborating with the District of Columbia for at least 25 years.

Vocational Training for Teachers

The Teacher Development Interactive course offered by the Economic Faculty of RUDN Univer-

sity in Association with Pearson PLC will provide resource materials for teachers over a two- year period. TDI offers up-to-date instruction from world-leading ELT experts with effective learning tools and models creating a motivating and enriching learning experience. The trainers for the course are Professor of Linguistics, author of English language textbooks, lecturer in Foreign Languages Dpt of the Faculty of Economics Wayne Rimmer, and CSc in Linguistics, Associate Professor in Foreign Languages Dpt of the Faculty of Economics Svetlana Popova.

Economic Faculty of RUDN University Welcomes AACSB Executive Vice President Timothy Mescon

Executive Vice President and Chief Officer for Europe, the Middle East and Africa for AACSB International Timothy Mescon visited the Faculty of Economics to discuss the opportunities for co-operation. Mr Mescon met with Dean of the Faculty of Economics Yuri Moseykin, Acting Manager of the International School of Business Irina Gladysheva, MBA Programme Supervisor Natalia Sakharchuk and Head of language training programmes Elena Malyuga. The faculty is planning to join AACSB in order to further accredit its Economics and Management programmes.

The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, also known as AACSB International, is an American professional organisation founded in 1916 to provide accreditation to schools of business. Established early in the 20th century, the association has expanded to more than 100 countries around the world, helping business schools, students and businesses to succeed. The association has 3 international headquarters and offers over 95 professional development activities annually. According to the Financial Times, 96% of FT500 executives studied at an AACSB-accredited school.

First Joint Programmes with Brazilian Universities in the Framework of the BRICS Network University

RUDN University is introducing joint MA programmes with leading Brazilian universities – the Federal University of Minas Gerais in Belo Horizonte and the Fluminense Federal University in Rio de Janeiro. The agreements are the first case of joint MA programmes of the BRICS Network University. The joint training of Russian and Brazilian students was initiated and organised by the Faculty of Economics and the Marketing Department of RUDN University.

RUDN University is Recognised for Its Strong Social Media Presence

Experts of the Russian Social and Media Research Centre rated social media presence of the 21 universities participating in the 5-100 programme based on the Engagement Rate (ER) index. The rating assesses social media communications and university-user networking performance. The highest ER is provided by native posts, i.e. real stories from real people, such as an interview with a post-graduate student from Italy Antonella Selvitella who studies foreign language teaching methodology and dreams of coming up with new approaches to learning Italian. RUDN University Facebook user coverage currently exceeds 12 million people.

RUDN University Enters the QS World University Rankings by Subject 2019

QS World University Rankings by Subject 2019 were officially published earlier this year. RUDN University is represented in two subject rankings – Modern Languages (Top 200) and Linguistics (Top 300). Employers Recognition put the university over the top with 80 and 75.5 points awarded for Linguistics and Modern Languages, respectively.

GreenMetric World University Rankings 2018

GreenMetric presented the 2018 rankings measuring universities' commitment to sustainable development and creating 'green' infrastructure. RUDN University was ranked 41st and is now one of the top 50 world universities in Environmental Education, Energy & Climate Change and Transport Policy. This year, GreenMetric assessed 719 universities representing 81 countries. The rating assesses universities in terms of facilities convenience, transport policy, waste management programmes, the use of energy-efficient technology, water conservation, and education in the field of sustainable development.

The UI GreenMetric World University Ranking is an initiative of Universitas Indonesia launched in 2010. The aim of this ranking is to provide the

result of online survey regarding the current condition and policies related to Green Campus and Sustainability in the Universities all over the world. It is expected that by drawing the attention of university leaders and stake holders, more attention will be given to combating global climate change, energy and water conservation, waste recycling, and green transportation. Such activities will require change of behaviour and providing more attention to sustainability of the environment, as well as economic and social problem related to the sustainability.

RUDN University to Host the International 'I Want to Work in Africa' Festival

The festival will include round-table discussions, master classes, business games and other exciting events. The purpose of the festival is to support communication between potential employers and the target audience – students and graduates from African countries studying in Russia. The festival will welcome Russian companies developing business projects in Africa; African companies with interests in the Russian market; international holdings; business associations; public organisations; alumni associations; Russian and foreign universities. The festival is organised by the International Club of Employers (ICE), an association created at the initiative of RUDN University to systematise the tripartite interaction between universities, gra-duates and employers. ICE is the first national pro-ject in Russia uniting the spheres of business and education, which is being formed through the ex-isting and future potential of graduates of Russian universities. Details are available at work-in-africa.com.

TRAINING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE