

Training LANGUAGE and CULTURE

'A different language is a different
vision of life'

– Federico Fellini

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Training Language and Culture covers language training, cultural training and linguistic research. The journal aims to enhance the scientific foundation of the teaching process, promote stronger ties between theory and practical training, strengthen mutually enriching international cooperation among educationists and other professionals, as well as to make a contribution to language studies outside the teaching perspective. All articles are peer reviewed. Areas of interest include:

- language and linguistics research
- intercultural research
- language, intercultural and communications training
- language and cultural training technology
- language and cultural assessment

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Introduction to Issue 1(2)

by Barry Tomalin

Joint Managing Editor TLC

Welcome to Issue 1(2) of Training Language and Culture.

This issue presents a notable range of research including analysis of language corpora and their value and limitations in describing changes in language usage; analysis of the characteristics of semantic fields based on an international experiment recognising names of common birds; why it is that in the early stages little girls may be better at language learning than little boys; why the teaching of cultural differences, particularly as expressed through non-verbal communication, is essential to the successful teaching of international business communication; how the French business press is making increasing use of British and American expressions despite the sometime resistance of the French language establishment; and a review of the experience of teaching language in China and the different approaches to language learning and teaching.

The Editorial Board is pleased to welcome Professor Emeritus Michael McCarthy as a contributor to TLC. Throughout his career, Professor McCarthy has been a leading analyst of language usage and in his article *Usage on the*

move: Evolution and re-volution he describes how changes in vocabulary and grammar occur in English usage, especially based on differences between American and British English forms. Using numerous examples from British and American English usage, he recognises that grammar changes more slowly than vocabulary and that there is a historical variation between prescriptive and permissive attitudes to language use and emphasises that the use of language in interactive communication technologies is introducing an ever-increasing range of new words and expressions into the English language.

In their article on *Developing students' socio-cultural competence in foreign language classes*, Viktoriya Vetrinskaya and Tatiana Dmitrenko stress the importance of incorporating intercultural training into business language and business communication classes. In doing so they describe some of the key influences which differentiate communication and management styles in different business communities and place special stress on appreciating the importance of non-verbal communication and body language in achieving success in cross-border negotiations and partnerships.

Heiner Böttger focuses on the earliest stages of language learning and poses the question, whether boys learn better and faster than girls. His article *Early gender diversity in reading and writing: Research and didactical consequences* describes psychological and brain research into early language learning ability and progress. Using

neuro-scientific research he establishes that there is a gender difference in the way that boys and girls acquire language skills in the early years of learning and that as far as reading and writing skills are concerned girls tend to have the early advantage.

Birds are the focus of Victoria Sibul's research into linguistic-semantic structures and how they are recognised and understood by speakers of different languages. Using as an example the semantic field of birds she examines how meaning is influenced by familiarity but also by symbols and sayings associated with birds. In her article *Psycholinguistic analysis of lexical-semantic structure in linguistic consciousness of Russian, English and German native speakers* she uses names and pictures of birds to ascertain which they recognise and why. The study shows how both linguistic and cultural factors are at play in determining whether a particular item is at the core or on the periphery of a particular semantic field and explains the theory and practice of how it works.

An American teacher and researcher, Professor Patricia Williams-Boyd of Eastern Michigan University, explores the changing perceptions of Chinese teacher trainees in *Teaching English in China: Changing self-perception*, describing how Chinese teachers adapted their traditional authoritarian teacher-centred approach to a more interactive student-centred perspective using interactive methodology. A key feature of the research is the change in the sense of identity of

both teacher trainers and trainees as part of the training process.

Finally, in their article entitled *Linguistic and functional cognitive peculiarities of media language as the basis of interpretations in the communicative sphere*, Olga Vishnyakova and Natalia Polyakova show how business and political media use British and American business terms as part of headlines and articles alongside mother tongue words and expressions, often in a form adapted to local understanding and sometimes inventing new words and expressions not used in the English language media. They also discuss how a number of loan words and expressions used in media have an emotive-evaluative connotation over and above their strict semantic meaning and offer an important source of data for cognitive linguistic analysis.

The issue features reviews of books of interest, including *Modern English grammar: Morphology and syntax* by Olga Alexandrova and Tatiana Komova, *Why English? Confronting the Hydra* by Pauline Bunce et al., and *Language ideology, policy and planning in Peru* by Serafín M. Coronel-Molina. The issue is complete with news from RUDN University, the ICC and our international language teacher training programme EUROLTA.

TLC Editorial Board welcomes contributions in the form of articles, reviews and correspondence. Detailed information is available online at rudn.tlcjournal.org. Feel free to contact us at info@tlcjournal.org or info@icc-languages.eu.

Usage on the move: Evolution and re-revolution

by ⁽¹⁾Michael McCarthy

⁽¹⁾University of Nottingham

One of the problems involved in using corpora to investigate language change is that many corpora are synchronic, particularly spoken ones. To observe change, a combination of methods is the most fruitful approach. As well as the evidence of corpora, grammars and usage manuals of former decades and centuries reveal not only how standards of correctness and good style in relation to speaking and writing were perceived in their time, but also how some of the present-day debates relating to particular points of usage have a long history, including features of recent Americanisation. Such investigations, along with the evidence of field notes contribute to a more nuanced picture of current changes in English.

KEYWORDS: *language change, corpora, spoken English, Americanisation, grammar*

1. INTRODUCTION

I am not alone in using the metaphor of *on the move* in the title of this paper with regard to language change. An article in *The Times* newspaper of 26 August 1965, commenting on the admission of new words and the omission of old ones in a newly published dictionary, was headed *Words on the Move*, while an important paper several decades later by Leech (2003) on changes in modal verb usage was entitled *Modality on the Move*. We feel instinctively that language moves and shifts like the tide, but, gazing at the tide, it is not always immediately clear if it is coming in or going out again; you often have to watch it for a while to perceive its movement and direction. The

same is true of language change; the question is whether the forms that enter current usage and the controversies that usually accompany them are indeed new or whether they represent a return of older forms and older arguments. In this article, I want to look at some recent changes in English usage and the debates that surround them in terms of their newness or, as is often the case, their surprising longevity.

In an excellent article in the inaugural issue of this journal, Aleksandrova et al. (2017) comment on language change, noting, among many other things, that grammar changes somewhat slower and more conservatively than other aspects of the

‘There can be no doubt that the arrival of broadcast and Internet media have influenced punctuation, spelling and levels of formality in lexical and grammatical choice’

English language. This is certainly the case, since the vocabulary admits new words at a seemingly breathtaking rate. In just the last quarter of 2016, for example, the *Oxford English Dictionary* (hereafter ‘OED’) recorded a staggering 500 new words (OED, 2016). More accurately, one should say 500 new ways of using old words or putting old words and existing morphemes together to create new meanings and senses, but the point still holds: the vocabulary builds rapidly, while grammar appears to evolve only slowly. Other issues must also be taken into account, such as changes in punctuation, pronunciation and spelling, spelling generally being perceived as having got ‘stuck’ somewhere along the historical line, with the result that it is often out of kilter with present-day pronunciation. But spelling itself may well now be faster on the move, especially under the influence of e-communication (e.g. text-speak: *sth 4 u = something for you*).

There can be no doubt that the arrival of broadcast and Internet media have influenced punctuation, spelling and levels of formality in

lexical and grammatical choice. These developments are a given, to the extent that it is no longer novel to talk about ‘media discourse’ (e.g. O’Keeffe, 2006) or ‘Internet linguistics’ (e.g. Crystal, 2011). And lest we think that the influence of the broadcast media on the language is only a very recent preoccupation and one that is universally frowned upon in letters to the editor and posts on social media, we should note that Trueblood (1933), for instance, saw the growth of spoken mass media as a positive thing, promoting ‘good’ speech amongst the population. But that was in the era when received pronunciation was just about the only accent heard on British radio.

Outside of the broadcast media, social and political events have also shaped the language. For example, displacements of populations during World War II in Britain enlivened a debate amongst mother-tongue teachers concerning speech standards in education. UK wartime evacuations from cities to rural areas highlighted differences in accents and dialects. In response to this, Compton (1941) advocated the training of young people to speak in an ‘easy, clear, reasonably exact, and friendly’ way, without the influence of the ‘dead hand of the elocutionary tradition’ (Compton, 1941, p. 6-7).

Long-term shifts from more formal, hierarchical uses of language to more spoken, informal,

egalitarian and colloquial ways of communicating reflecting social changes have been referred to as the ‘conversationalisation’ of discourse (Fairclough, 1995). In this article I will look at some aspects of these types of changes in my own variety, British English (hereafter BrE), and focus on examples of grammatical change and some pronunciation phenomena which seem to be on the move and try to contextualise them in terms of the debates around them. However, the delicate interrelationship between grammar and lexis (the lexico-grammar) for which corpus linguistics has provided such robust evidence (Sinclair, 1991) means that it is often impossible to talk about grammar in isolation as particular grammatical features often seem to attach to particular elements of the lexicon. Nor indeed is it always possible to talk just about spelling or punctuation. New phenomena frequently exhibit several features of change simultaneously.

In discussing and exemplifying change and shifts in perceptions of what is ‘standard’, ‘correct’ or ‘acceptable’, I hope to show that some recent phenomena that periodically upset purists have a long and sometimes quite ancient pedigree, and are more a case of ‘what goes around comes around’ than forays into innovative linguistic territory.

2. OBSERVING CHANGE

In recent years, linguists have come to rely more

and more on corpus information to underpin statements about usage. Massive computerised collections of texts such as the *British National Corpus* (BNC), the *American National Corpus* (ANC) and publishers’ corpora which provide the evidence for large-scale projects such as dictionary compilation or the creation of more empirically-sourced language teaching materials are now standard tools of our trade. Reference and pedagogical grammars have also turned to corpora for examples to support grammatical descriptions and prescriptions (Biber et al., 1999; Carter & McCarthy, 2006; Carter et al., 2011). It is hardly conceivable that a major publisher would nowadays launch a big dictionary or grammar which was not firmly grounded in corpus evidence. And indeed, we now have the largest instantly accessible corpus ever to exist: the World Wide Web, which is providing new opportunities and tools for corpus linguistic investigations (Hundt et al., 2007).

Corpora such as the BNC and ANC are immensely useful resources for cross-variety comparisons. We can see at the click of a mouse, for example, that American English (hereafter AmE) commonly uses *pled* as the past tense of the verb *plead* (as in *she pled guilty*), while BrE prefers *pleaded*, that AmE often uses *fit* as the past simple form of *fit*, while BrE prefers *fitted*, and so on. *Prefers* is the key term here: *pled* was recently used in the report of a criminal trial by a BrE speaker on BBC radio, and

‘It is hardly conceivable that a major publisher would nowadays launch a big dictionary or grammar which was not firmly grounded in corpus evidence’

in many cases, BrE forms and AmE forms co-exist in BrE usage. In my own work I have been able to observe and ratify differences between AmE and BrE in the use of response tokens such as *absolutely, great, wonderful*, etc. (McCarthy, 2002). Likewise, interesting comparisons have been drawn out between Irish English and BrE, through corpora such as the *Limerick Corpus of Irish English* (L-CIE) and the BrE *CANCODE* corpus (O’Keeffe & Adolphs, 2008).

One problem with the corpora that have supported the groundwork for dictionaries, grammars, teaching materials and other language resources, as well as cross-varietal comparisons, is that they tend to be synchronic, that is to say, they function as snapshots of their target language or variety at a given moment in time. This is largely due to the funding limitations on corpus projects, especially those most expensive of enterprises which involve the collection, transcription and annotation of spoken data. To observe language change, one ideally needs what is referred to as a *monitor corpus*, i.e. a corpus to which data is continually added, thus enabling comparisons to be made

between its earlier and more recently acquired data. The 450-million word *Collins/COBUILD Bank of English* corpus, which grew over some three decades, is a good example (Collins, 2016). 30 years or more is a reasonably good span for observing language change, especially with regard to vocabulary and everyday, non-technical usage. An example of a corpus study which spans a period of 30 years (1961-1992) is that of Leech and Smith (2006), which evidences changes in such areas as tense-aspect, voice and modality, both diachronically and in comparison across varieties (BrE and AmE). Colloquialisation and (for BrE) Americanisation are seen as key factors in the changes discussed. But even with the best of monitor corpora, the centuries before the advent of audio recording technology leave us with very little evidence of spoken usage other than that recorded in literary attempts at capturing everyday speech, in the evidence regarding pronunciation that metre and rhyme in poetry can reveal, in the recording of pronunciation in dictionaries and in linguists’ past discussions of spoken usage. These last-mentioned discussions often give us evidence of spoken norms as linguists compared them with what were typically seen as the desiderata of fine and elevated styles, i.e. the texts of great writers.

Two other approaches offer ways into the problem of garnering longer-term evidence of changes in usage. The first is to examine reference and/or pedagogical dictionaries, grammars, usage

manuals and language teaching materials written over a long period of time, preferably centuries, to see what changes appear to have taken place. This is particularly useful in the case of grammar since, as has already been asserted, grammatical change can be quite slow in comparison with lexical change. In the case of English, grammars survive and are available for consultation going back as far as over 400 years ago (e.g. Bullokar, 1586); these take us on a journey from early classifications of parts of speech, via Latin-oriented descriptions and prescriptions in the 18th century, to what we have today. In this article I will call on some of those past authorities as witnesses not only of what was considered correct and standard in their day but also as a reminder that some of the debates that still vex both purists and those of a more easy-going disposition are as old as the hills.

The second alternative approach is good, old-fashioned fieldwork. This consists of reading and listening with one eye or ear on *what* is being communicated and the other eye or ear on *how*. I have personally filled notebooks and card-indexes over the last 40 years with jottings to remind myself of things I have read or (over)heard which have struck me as unconventional, new, creative or infelicitous (in the sense that they impede easy communication or interpretation). In the absence of my own monitor corpus, these field notes have proved invaluable and have been one of the spurs to prompt me to write the present paper.

No single approach of the ones I have outlined (corpus research, reference to earlier authorities, fieldwork) is sufficient in itself to enable us fully to understand the trajectory and pace of changes in usage over time, and public reactions to them, but used in interaction one with the other they bring to the surface some interesting insights about changes in BrE and how they are received.

3. THE AMERICANISATION OF ENGLISH

3.1 Global influence of AmE

The influence of American usage on other varieties of English has long been acknowledged and is hardly surprising, given the global economic dominance of the USA, reinforced in recent decades by its predominant role in Internet technologies and popular culture. The term *Americanisation* is well established in the literature with regard to changes in BrE (e.g. Leech, 2003), as well as, for example, changes in Australian English (Sussex, 1989; Taylor, 2001), Nigerian English (Awonusi, 1994) and Euro English, the English spoken by Europeans (Modiano, 1996). I make no value judgement of the term *Americanisation*, and my field notes of recent years simply substantiate and replicate many of the observations made by the scholars cited above, with regard to the spread of its phonology, lexis and grammar.

It is hardly surprising that the dominant place of American English in the media, both in terms of

American films and TV as well as on the Internet and its allied technologies, means that people in the English-speaking world and in the global community of English users are increasingly exposed to an explosion of data manifesting American ways of using the language. My smart phone does not give me an option of ‘*aeroplane mode*’, only ‘*airplane mode*’, and several of the programmes (or should that be programs?) installed on my computer, give me only ENG-US as a choice of operating language as an English-speaking user. However, as previously stated, BrE forms and AmE forms often co-exist, with one form not necessarily completely replacing the other.

3.2 Observations from the BrE field on the recent shifts towards AmE

Recent influences of AmE on BrE which seem to be becoming more marked include the pronunciation of words that have risen to prominence in the news or which have become buzzwords in the media in general. I report these more fully in (McCarthy, 2017). These include shifts in word stress, e.g. ‘*research*’ (BrE) is now routinely heard as *research* (AmE), *Baghdad* (BrE) is often rendered in BrE as AmE *Baghdad*. There are also sound changes, e.g. BrE *schedule* /ˈʃedju:l/ is fast being replaced by AmE /ˈskedʒu:l/, while BrE *leverage* /ˈli:vərɪdʒ/ is heard more and more as AmE /ˈlevərɪdʒ/.

On a broader scale, the standard BrE convention

of replacing weak-form schwa (ə) before a vowel sound with strong-forms /u:/ and /i:/ in *to* and *the*, respectively, is being noticeably superseded among educated native users in radio and TV broadcasting by schwa plus glottal stop. Recent examples from BBC radio commentators include ‘driving to /ðə?/ office’, ‘quarter /tə?/ eight’ and ‘/ðə?/ increase in national insurance contributions’. The ‘new’ pronunciation is characteristic of AmE but has also long existed in some Scottish and international dialects of English (which in turn have exerted historical influence on AmE), so, from a British Isles perspective, the increase in use of the AmE forms represents, in a partial sense, a homecoming.

An example of grammatical number teaches us another lesson about change. Online dictionaries from the major publishers give *accommodation* (in the meaning of somewhere to live or stay) as an uncountable noun in BrE, but as countable in AmE. I have noticed an increase in the occurrence of plural *accommodations* in BrE. *Google Ngram Viewer* (Google, 2017) shows the singular and plural to be of almost equal occurrence in AmE, the plural form having risen in frequency between 1900 and 2008 to approach more closely the frequency of the singular-uncountable. In BrE, the singular-uncountable form is still more frequent than the plural by a great margin; however, there is a discernible rise in the plural form between 1990 and 2008. Yet the picture is not so simple as to

suggest an impending takeover of a longstanding and deeply rooted BrE form by the AmE form. The *Oxford English Dictionary* cites an example of plural *accommodations*, in the sense of a place to stay, as far back as 1722, and, in a somewhat broader meaning of any item required for personal comfort or convenience, the plural form goes back to the 17th century (OED, 2009). It seems that forms, like the tide, can come in and go out, then come in again.

An example of AmE and BrE forms existing side-by-side with no clear evidence yet as to whether one form will triumph are the variant constructions with *likely*. BrE traditionally uses *likely* as an adjective, as in, for example, '*It is likely to happen soon*' (compare '*It is sure/certain to happen soon*'). AmE tends to treat it as an adverb, as in '*It will likely happen soon*' (compare '*It will surely/certainly happen soon*'). I have recorded numerous examples of the AmE form used by BrE speakers in recent years in the broadcast media and newspapers. *Likely* is a very ancient word that has admitted a range of possible constructions, as attested examples in the *OED* from the mediaeval period onwards show, with both adjectival and adverbial usage. BrE has long accepted the adverbial usage of *likely* when modified by *most* or *very*; the BNC has examples such as: '*...he will most likely fail to do it*' and '*He will very likely be quite ruthless about this*'. However, the adverbial construction with a modal verb (usually '*What is*

considered acceptable in one era may be judged unacceptable in another, and vice-versa' will) is still considered by many to be AmE, and the excellent *Collins Online English Dictionary* declares it to be '*unacceptable to most users of British English*' (Collins, 2017). This perception may well change (is likely to change?/will likely change?), and the change could occur quite quickly.

3.3 Acceptability over time

What is considered acceptable in one era may be judged unacceptable in another, and vice-versa. An oft-cited case is the occurrence of double periphrastic comparatives for emphasis in Shakespeare's works (e.g. Blake, 2002, p. 46-47). More than 20 of these occur across the works; they include *more hotter*, *more kinder*, *more rawer* and others that now sound infelicitous in modern standard English but which are heard among many BrE and AmE dialect speakers. In the Renaissance era, such double comparatives seem to have been a feature of '*elevated registers and upper class speech*' (González Díaz, 2003). They then dropped relatively quickly out of educated usage, so that by the 18th century, the grammarian James Greenwood (Greenwood, 1753, p. 116) declared them to be not '*good English*' and the grammarian Bishop Lowth described them as *improper* (Lowth, 1762, p. 27).

In fact, double comparatives represent a venerably

ancient element of grammar, attested back to Old and Middle English; their exclusion from the canon of correct English is one of the casualties of social attitudes, prescriptive approaches to usage founded in Latin models of grammar and notions of economy, logic and objection to tautology (Włodarczyk, 2007). The point here is that non-standard dialects often preserve ancient forms and are often unfairly stigmatised as corruptions or illogicalities when viewed through the lens of the modern educated standard. There would seem to be no inherent reason why a form such as *'more hotter'* should not be available as a useful device for emphasis; it is simply a matter of current convention, and the tide that originally brought in the use of double comparatives could come in again as easily as it went out.

Allied to the question of comparatives is the widespread use of the superlative form when comparing only two entities, as in *'Which country is biggest, America or Russia?'* Purists and traditionalists would only allow *'Which country is bigger?'* in this example, and such has been the case for a very long time (e.g. Nesfield, 1898, p. 160). The BNC has a number of examples of superlative adjectives followed by *'of the two x ...'* (e.g. *'Norway is the best of the two teams'*, *'the eldest of the two sons'*), and in my field notes I have recorded numerous such examples of superlatives used to compare two entities (e.g. *'Which would be best for the starter, red or white*

[wine]?'; *'Which boy's the oldest, Jim or Ben?'*).

Once again, this issue has been around for a very long time.

Bullock (1586), more than 400 years ago, in his *Pamphlet for Grammar*, acknowledges, when discussing the use of the superlative for groups: *'...though we English use the superlative also when we compare but two things together'* (modernised spelling and orthography). The debate as to whether such usage is acceptable or (in)correct is alive and well 400 years later on the Internet, as any casual online search will reveal. In my experience, uses of the superlative to compare two entities pass by unnoticed in everyday discourse and would rarely, if ever, cause a problem of comprehensibility. The currently non-standard uses of both comparative and superlative might easily become standard if the processes of conversationalisation and democratisation of the language which the discourse of social media reinforces continue at their present pace.

3.4 Features already assimilated?

The question mark in the title of this section is chosen to indicate the degree of uncertainty which often prevails in statements about current shifts in usage; we may feel confident that a specific element of usage is on the move, but yet unclear as to the degree of acceptance of any particular change among the wider population. Nonetheless, some grammatical features that were considered

non-standard in previous decades seem to have become so frequently used across the population, especially in the spoken language, that continued debates over their acceptability would seem, to say the least, to be fighting a rear-guard action. That is not to say that the debates do not and will not continue; they are evidence of the constantly expressed strong feelings that the general, non-specialist population experiences in the face of linguistic change. The tension between non-standard and standard forms reflects the diverse identities within society, regional, social and cultural. Standard and non-standard grammars are both necessary and desirable; they exist in a dialectical relationship, and one influences the other. There is never likely to be a point in history when such tension ceases, and the co-existence of standard and non-standard forms is to be celebrated and understood as a manifestation of who we are as human beings.

The next sub-sections examine some phenomena connected with the grammatical expression of number and quantity, an area of particular interest in terms of current changes.

3.5 Less versus fewer

A case of change that has caused public debate is the *less/fewer* distinction. *Less* traditionally colligates with uncountable nouns (*less information, less traffic*) and *fewer* with countables (*fewer cars, fewer teachers*). The five million word

‘Standard and non-standard grammars are both necessary and desirable; they exist in a dialectical relationship, and one influences the other’

CANCODE spoken corpus of BrE, whose data was mostly collected between 1990 and 2000 (for details of the corpus and its compilation, see McCarthy, 1998) shows a virtually equal distribution of *fewer* and *less* followed by a plural noun. Thus, we find instances of ‘*less people*’ and ‘*less doctors*’ alongside ‘*fewer people*’ and ‘*fewer doctors*’ in the same dataset. Furthermore, the online tool *Google Books Ngram Viewer* (Google, 2017), shows a consistent decline in the use of *fewer* plus a plural-countable noun in its British data for 1988 to 2008.

My field notes record an ever-increasing use of *less* where previously *fewer* would have been preferred (e.g. ‘*less jobs for young people*’, ‘*less cars on the road*’, ‘*far less birds in the fields nowadays*’).

Henry Fowler states that plurals ‘*will naturally not take less*’ but does allow its use with a few plurals (e.g. *clothes, troops*), which he sees as ‘*equivalent to singulars of indefinite amount*’ (Fowler, 1926, p. 321), pointing perhaps towards a psychological dimension to number, which will be returned to below. Since Fowler’s time, and although the 2009 CD-ROM edition of

the OED consulted for this paper refers to *less* plus a plural noun as ‘*frequently found but generally regarded as incorrect*’, it is probably safe to say that for a considerable proportion of the population, the use of *less* + plural noun is normal.

An interesting article in the *Guardian* newspaper in 2006 discussed a problem which, I recall from personal discussions with friends around that time, taxed the grammatical tolerance of many people. Supermarkets in the UK had taken to offering separate, faster checkout points for shoppers who only bought a small number of goods. A major supermarket chain, following protests from customers, changed its express checkout signs from ‘*6 items or less*’ to ‘*6 items or fewer*’ (Mullan, 2006). Another article, published on the BBC’s website on its Magazine page in 2008, refers to a different supermarket chain displaying the time-saving service as available to shoppers with ‘*10 items or less*’ to check out. This also generated public protest, leading that supermarket to adopt the clever solution of avoiding the *less* versus *fewer* problem altogether by changing its signs to ‘*Up to 10 items*’ (BBC, 2008). Such public kerfuffle reminds us that feelings often run high over issues of grammatical correctness and that unease can be felt when people feel the sands of convention and formality are shifting beneath their feet. Grammar is a public property; it does not reside within the exclusive domain of grammarians’ descriptions and prescriptions.

However, we are once again dealing with a form that has existed for a long time, with the OED attesting examples going back to the Mediaeval period. In the 16th century poet and dramatist John Lyly’s *Euphues: The Anatomy of Wit*, which has a postscript to the work entitled *To The Gentlemen Scholars of Oxford*, we find: ‘*I thinke there are fewe universities that have lesse faultes than Oxford, many that have more, none but hath some*’ (Lyly, 1579/1868, p. 208).

3.6 Amount of versus number of

Another feature related to number and countability that is frequent in speech, even though the traditional standard might prevail in writing, is the ever-increasing use of *amount of* with a plural countable noun, as in ‘there’s seven times the amount of cars on the road that there was ten years ago’ (CANCODE corpus). Traditionally, *amount of* is reserved for uncountable nouns (e.g. *amount of time, petrol, etc.*), while *number of* is the appropriate expression before countables (*number of years, people, etc.*). Yet of 329 occurrences of *amount of* in the CANCODE corpus, 77 (23%) are followed by plural countable nouns. The nouns include *hours, matches, schools, times, ships, votes, students, bottles, cats, dogs, years, shoes, documents, criminals, things, kids*. What might be happening here, though we cannot be sure, is that speakers conceive psychologically of plural numbers of particular entities as being more like indistinguishable masses or inseparable

‘Written standards often take a long time to catch up with changes in the spoken language, but with the ever-increasing trend towards informality and conversationalisation in writing online, especially in social media, the pace of change has probably already accelerated’

groups, rather than individuals, echoing Fowler’s sanction in respect of *less* with certain plural nouns, mentioned above. As before, this is a feature that simply passes unnoticed in everyday informal speaking, but it is one that may stick out like a sore thumb in formal writing. Written standards often take a long time to catch up with changes in the spoken language, but with the ever-increasing trend towards informality and conversationalisation in writing online, especially in social media, the pace of change has probably already accelerated.

3.7 There is versus there are

Continuing the theme of number, an example from a late-19th century grammar manual brings side-by-side the previous discussion of *less* versus *fewer* and the usage of *there is* versus *there are*. Nesfield (1898) presents the example sentence: ‘Today *there is less than eight hours of full daylight*’, then

goes on to correct it: ‘*for is less, say are fewer*’. One may argue that the use of ‘*less than eight hours of full daylight*’ is another example of a psychological perception of the phrase as referring to an ‘amount’ of daylight rather than a ‘number’ of hours, which would make singular *there is* acceptable. However, Nesfield was dealing with late 19th century norms and especially written norms, and his particular focus in the section cited was on the *few* versus *little* distinction. Nowadays, the evidence suggests that *there is* and *there are* are themselves on the move, with contracted *there’s* being increasingly used with a plural complement in spoken language, both in more formal contexts such as broadcast journalism and commentary as well as in informal conversation.

In a random sample of 200 occurrences of contracted *there’s* in a sub-corpus of social and intimate conversations within the CANCODE corpus, 46 (23%) occur before a plural complement. The phenomenon is especially noticeable with numerals (*there’s two of them, there’s four courses, there’s hundreds of x, there’s millions of x*), with quantifiers followed by a plural noun (*there’s loads of x, there’s so many x, there’s not many x, there’s a few x, there’s some x*), as well as a selection of everyday concrete nouns (*chairs, bits, houses, people*). Admittedly, this is a limited dataset and the data were collected in the 1990s, but the examples are very suggestive of a shift that I have increasingly noticed in both the media and

general conversation. And the shift does seem to be lexico-grammatically patterned, as the examples of numbers and quantifiers suggest.

The use of *there is* with a plural complement in speaking, as opposed to writing, was recognised by Fowler (1926), in what remains probably the most influential manual of English grammar and usage ever written. Fowler saw the problem as reflecting what we would nowadays call the real-time or 'online' nature of speaking, i.e. that the speaker launches into the clause and its verb before the message is fully planned. He is far less tolerant of writers who fail to meet the conventional standards of number concord, condemning them as '*indecently and insultingly careless*' (Fowler, 1926, p. 391). For Fowler, the *there is* versus *there are* distinction is a symptom of a much wider set of problems relating to number concord, but it is clear that the *there is* plus plural complement question is far from new.

4. CONCLUSION

This paper has only scratched the surface of current language change, with just a small number of examples of shifts in usage. It has concentrated on two principal areas of language controversy: American influences and the tensions between what are perceived or accepted as standard and non-standard norms, particularly in relation to notions of grammatical number, and particularly in the spoken language. Clearly the lexicon will also

continue to change, and will grow at a prodigious rate as technological and social change prompt new communicative needs, and pronunciation will also continue to shift. Such changes are unstoppable and need not be regarded as threats.

What is most striking when examining current trends is just how many of them represent, in Shakespeare's words, '*ancient quarrels*'. Anyone who goes in search of the debates surrounding a contemporary grammatical controversy should not be surprised to find that they have been the subject of strong opinion for centuries. Like the tide, they come in, they go out, they come back in again. Repeatedly they reveal tensions between the common usage of the plain people and attempts to spread what are considered more elevated, educated or eloquent norms of correctness. The tensions that emerge are the very ones that keep language moving. At some points in history, prescriptive norms gain the upper hand and are woven into education, at others, a grass-roots force for change emerges, such as we have witnessed with the advent of global social media and the emergence of English as a world lingua franca. The immediacy of social media and online discourse has naturally resulted in more voices being heard, and, although we write upon keyboards, what emerges so often is a blend of speaking and writing. Little surprise, then, that grammar and usage are on the move perhaps as never before.

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Developing students' sociocultural competence in foreign language classes

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The study examines some topical issues associated with the quality of vocational training of future language educators. It highlights the role of new technologies in teaching foreign languages as an effective means of facilitating efficient communication of specialists of various spheres in a multicultural environment. The authors analyse the factors that contribute to the relevance and necessity of cross-cultural ideas in the field of language education. Particular attention is paid to the description of specific features of teaching foreign languages built on an intercultural basis. The article demonstrates the need for and the objective nature of transformation of the linguistic and educational paradigm – from communicative to intercultural. Considering the importance of professional and speech culture, special attention is also paid to professional-focused technology in intercultural communication teaching.

KEYWORDS: *foreign language training, intercultural communication, intercultural approach, teaching technology, verbal means, non-verbal means, conflict of cultures*

1. INTRODUCTION

In the modern services market, the ever-evolving business cooperation with foreign companies increases the demand for specialists in translation, intercultural communication, and foreign language training. All this emphasises that the training of future specialists in management, economics, and law is an important and relevant issue.

Teaching 'business language' as the main means of communication and improving professional competence is of particular importance for

specialists in the field of economic management.

The nature of business contacts significantly affects the efficiency of professional activities. Students of these specialties acquire business communication skills in the course of comprehensive training in a variety of disciplines, both general professional and special.

Training linguists and philologists is about mastering communicative and strategic skills of business communication, and developing linguistic skills that enable them to tackle

communicative tasks.

The development of communicative competence is recognised as the main educational goal across the board. This training goal is quite clearly defined in both international and Russian documents. According to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR, 2001), a set of communicative competences includes:

- linguistic competence (awareness of the language system);
- sociolinguistic or speech competence (the ability to formulate thoughts using language means);
- sociocultural competence (acquaintance with the national and cultural features of social and communicative behaviour of the native speakers);
- social or pragmatic competence (the desire and ability to initiate communication with other people);
- strategic or compensatory competence (the ability to refine one's speech, improve other types of competences, and close up communication gaps);
- discursive competence (appropriate

implementation of strategies used to construct and interpret a text);

- subjective competence (the ability to navigate the content of the information available).

Thus, language training procedure should include several basic components: language units that form the language competence; roles, stereotypes, strategies, and tactics of communication, which constitute the pragmatic competence; speech material presented in the form of monological and dialogical texts in oral and written form and intended to develop the speech competence; as well as the obligatory country-specific material that represents the features of communication in a given culture or subculture.

The study examines some topical issues associated with the quality of vocational training of future language educators. It highlights the role of new technologies in teaching foreign languages as an effective means of facilitating efficient communication of specialists of various spheres in a multicultural environment. The authors analyse the factors that contribute to the relevance and necessity of cross-cultural ideas in the field of language education. Particular attention is paid to the description of specific features of teaching foreign languages built on an intercultural basis. The article demonstrates the need for and the

‘It seems that time is no less important for communication than words and gestures, postures and distance’

objective nature of transformation of the linguistic and educational paradigm – from communicative to intercultural. Considering the importance of professional and speech culture, special attention is also paid to professional-focused technology in intercultural communication teaching.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND DISCUSSION

One of the important components in terms of teaching business speech is the development of socio-cultural and discursive competences. Intercultural communication in the business sphere involves exchange of information orally or in writing.

At the present time, business cultures are being scrupulously researched and analysed.

Similar to the processes of scientific data exchange, business culture can be actualised within the framework of both oral and written discourse. Oral business communication is realised in various forms, such as interviews, negotiations, business conversations and business discussions.

It should be noted that each culture has its own system of time, which is very important for intercultural communication because, in order to understand our communication partner, we should know the way time is being perceived in his or her culture.

It seems that time is no less important for communication than words and gestures, postures and distance. The criterion of time perception in different cultures is the duration of acceptable delay. Thus, for example, in the US being late for an important meeting can be interpreted as lack of interest and an insult to the partner. In Latin America, on the other hand, being 45 minutes late may be considered a norm. In this regard, the meeting of business people from the United States and Latin America can fail due to ignorance of the peculiarities of time perception inherent in another culture (Conway III, 2004).

In monochronic cultures, it is acceptable to be 10 or 15 minutes late for a meeting, although such a holdup will normally require an apology. In monochronic cultures, time is constantly monitored, simply because time is money. In polychronic cultures, on the other hand, a more relaxed attitude may be observed. This refers, for example, to Latin American, Italian, and other cultures worldwide.

Another very important point must be taken into

account in the process of intercultural business communication. Different cultures (and different people in different cultures) use expressions distinguishing between a formal and informal attitude to time. Informal time is associated with an indefinite count: *after a while, later, in the afternoon*, etc. Formal time, on the other hand, is measured very accurately: *by two o'clock, tomorrow at 1.30 pm*, etc. It is not uncommon for business partners to reach an impasse just because the types of time used (formal vs. informal) appear to differ. The first one comes to the meeting by two o'clock in the afternoon, while the other comes around later that day, that is if he or she shows up at all (Dmitrenko, 2013).

A cultural parameter called 'uncertainty avoidance' is also quite strongly associated with this criterion (Hofstede, 1993). The state and sense of uncertainty is an integral part of human existence, since it is impossible to predict events in the immediate or distant future. People do their best to reduce the level of uncertainty by resorting to various technologies, laws or religious principles. Strategies used to overcome uncertainty vary from culture to culture, depending on the degree to which the culture accepts or limits uncertainty.

In cultures with a high level of uncertainty avoidance, the individual experiences stress and a sense of fear in a situation of uncertainty. A high

level of uncertainty, according to Hofstede (1993), doesn't only trigger excessive stress, but contributes to the release of a large amount of energy. That is why it is necessary to adhere to the norms and rules adopted in the business community to regulate the way international conferences and meetings are supposed to be held. All participants should be informed about various regional peculiarities of the host country and be familiar with the rituals, customs, and traditions associated with the event being held. This will help avoid stress and misunderstanding, and encourage further cooperation and joint activity.

Avoidance of uncertainty is associated with the recognition of permissible deviations from the set of standards and values, which is people's response to the threats and risks related to incomprehensible or uncertain situations. This process of risk evasion implies avoidance of contact in dealing with a specific group of people, where communication conceals a hidden or immediate danger or threat. In cultures with a high level of avoidance of uncertainty, a rather high level of aggressiveness may be observed. Representatives of these cultures try to avoid unclear situations, securing themselves with a lot of formal rules and rejecting deviation from accepted standards of conduct. They may be intolerant of people with a different type of behaviour, resist any changes, and be more risk

‘In cultures with a low level of uncertainty avoidance, business partners are often more risk embracing in unfamiliar circumstances, because they are characterised by a lower level of stress and fear’

averse. High uncertainty avoidance communities may be characterised by a higher level of anxiety, strict observance of security and safety issues, and a preference for written instructions, rules and laws that bring stability and certainty to their lives.

Business partners belonging to such communities often prefer clear goals, detailed tasks and fixed work schedules and timetables. Communities of this type include the business cultures of Belgium, Germany, Greece, Portugal, France, Japan, etc. (Hofstede, 1993). For example, it has been suggested that one of the unwritten rules of French conversation is that the French do not like to address the issues that interest them the most immediately in a negotiation. They approach it gradually after a long conversation on neutral topics and as if casually, without pressure, often at the close of lunch or dinner. To act in an opposite way is considered a sign of bad taste. Once you demonstrate your interest, you may seem to be asking for something, and if you receive a negative

answer, you may put people in an awkward spot or even humiliate them and yourself (Dmitrenko, 2013).

In cultures with a low level of uncertainty avoidance, business partners are often more risk embracing in unfamiliar circumstances, because they are characterised by a lower level of stress and fear. In this case, it is easier to perceive the unpredictability of life and not to be frightened by the incomprehensibility of human actions and the novelty of ideas. In such low anxiety uncertainty communities initiatives and the willingness to take risks, may be highly valued. Communities of this type may include the cultures of Denmark, India, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway, Singapore, the USA, Finland and Sweden (Hofstede, 1993).

Knowing these cultural differences greatly simplifies awareness and understanding. Naturally, this allows business negotiators to react flexibly to unexpected actions by partners due to differences of style in intercultural communication and avoid possible conflicts in the course of business communication with representatives of other cultures (Dmitrenko, 2013).

In the process of communication at conferences, during business trips and internships, a representative of another culture may enter into various informal contacts with both colleagues and other members of the new ‘alien’ culture. In

this situation, all the factors that regional studies experts have highlighted are fully manifested. One of the elementary examples of such differences is the 'distance' factor, or the 'personal space' factor, which is pretty extensively covered in research papers on psychology. The sense of personal space is established as we grow up, and its dimensions are most commonly regulated unconsciously. They are intuitively supported when communicating with representatives of the native culture and, as a rule, do not hinder communication. However, when communicating with representatives of other cultures, the distance factor may obstruct interaction, since the attitude to space in each culture is predetermined by its accepted behaviour patterns and may be incorrectly perceived by counterparts from a culture with different behaviour.

In different communities, the use of personal space can vary, and the accepted distance changes slightly in one direction or another, depending on the level and type of relationship. For example, many Americans prefer to communicate within the personal and social zones, as we might describe them, and inhabitants of the Middle East and Latin America mostly communicate in the personal zone. The borders of these zones, however, may differ in various cultures, which obviously presents a communicative issue. Therefore, in the process of intercultural interaction we may sometimes feel that our intimate zone is being invaded in an

impertinent and interfering way, while our interlocutors might perceive our comfort zone of distance as showing coldness or arrogance.

Each person subconsciously establishes the boundaries of his or her personal space. The scope of these boundaries depends not only on the person's cultural background, but also on the attitude toward their interlocutor. Obviously, friends are always closer to each other than strangers. Thus, changing the distance between people in communication is part of the communication process.

Studies have shown that for personal communication, the British and Americans use more space than the French and Italians. Ignoring the boundaries of the personal zone in the process of intercultural interaction during a business meeting can trigger intercultural conflict, because representatives of different cultures experience discomfort during communication because of ignorance of the personal distance preferences of their interlocutor. For example, Latin Americans usually communicate within their personal zones, while North Americans prefer interaction within their social zones. That's why Latin Americans often consider North Americans reserved and cold (Beaulieu, 2004).

Business oral and written communication employs the same strategies that are implemented in

scientific speech. When teaching students, it is imperative to know the basic characteristics of written business communication: restrictedness, i.e. adherence to established rules and restrictions; strict commitment to the participant's role, i.e. the need to behave in accordance with the requirements imposed by the specific situation and the communicative roles assumed; increased responsibility for the outcome of the interaction on the part of business communication participants; more scrupulous and elaborate choice of verbal means. The defining principle here is the strategy of completeness, which requires precision, ultimate clarity, and logic. At the lexical level, this is achieved by choosing terms that ensure unambiguous statements. In business written texts, the implementation of this strategy is based on the pursuance of standardised speech, which is achieved through the use of clerical clichés, as well as the composition of genres, which has a strict form. Many business documents (a business plan, an application for internship (job or grant application), business information, an application for conference participation, a meeting or conference resolution) have specific strict forms of completion with an accepted order of components (Malyuga et al., 2016).

For the author of a business text, it is important to follow the information quality strategy, which is implemented both at the lexical and syntactical levels. The politeness strategy is realised with the

'The politeness strategy is realised with the help of the means used in business speech to express positive and negative evaluation'

help of the means used in business speech to express positive and negative evaluation. Business discourse has special modal means of expression and is dominated by such subjective modality as obligation, desirability, and necessity.

Another important component of business culture is speech etiquette. Following the rules of speech etiquette maintains the positive reputation of the whole organisation. Lack of necessary knowledge of speech etiquette, which constitutes a kind of background in a communicative act, can lead to misunderstanding in the process of communication between speakers of different languages and cultures. Speech etiquette in the narrow sense of the word can be described as a system of linguistic communication in which etiquette relations manifest themselves. Elements of this system can be implemented at different language levels. Consider this in an example from the German language.

At the level of vocabulary and phraseology – special words and fixed expressions (*Danke, Bitte,*

Entschuldigen Sie, Mit herzlichen Grüßen, etc.), specialised forms of address (Sehr geehrte Damen und Herren, etc.);

At the grammatical level – plural forms of politeness and address (*wir, Sie*), interrogative sentences instead of imperative (*Können Sie mir helfen?*);

At the stylistic level – the requirement to use literate and cultural speech devoid of words that directly designate obscene and shocking objects, etc.

Adhering to speech etiquette and rules of politeness in written speech, unlike oral communication, is transmitted exclusively by linguistic means. The etiquette of a business letter tends to be more formal than the etiquette of oral business communication.

Communication in German between representatives of the Russian and German business communities reflects two aspects: first, differences in business culture (the system of values) and second, differences in the national character of the communication partners.

The Germans appreciate specific, detailed, and realistic information and do not comprehend vague statements. A good partner should keep all the important data in mind or be able to quickly

retrieve it in the documents. Business potential has to be backed by a detailed presentation, a serious list of demonstrated objectives supported by data, and competent answers to questions.

The Germans are inclined to openly express their disagreement, while diplomacy is not considered compulsory. They appreciate the ability to criticise and tend to perceive their partners' criticism in a most constructive way. The Germans' straightforward manner presents a rather unusual phenomenon in international business, but this style is more appealing to Russians, although it is considered impolite in many nations. In Germany, it is not customary to disguise routine inquiries and orders in the form of endless eloquent words and wishes. On that score, the Russians and Germans are very much alike.

German partners value competence. Their predilection for academic titles is an outward manifestation of deep respect. An expert can criticise anyone, even those higher in status, but it would be preferable to keep away from the topics that are beyond the scope of your competence. An important role in intercultural business meetings is played by the styles of verbal communication, which vary significantly in different cultures. Examples of such styles of communication are direct and indirect; ingenuous (elaborate) and brief (concise); and instrumental and affective.

‘Indirect verbal style allows hiding and camouflaging one’s true desires, goals and needs’

Direct verbal style implies expression of true intentions and therefore relies on a rigid style of communication that excludes convention and understatement. This communicative style is characteristic, for example, of American culture, where it is customary to use clear and unambiguous words in communication. Americans may try and force the interlocutor to commit to a direct and frank conversation, which acts as an indicator of honesty and conviction, while hints may be associated with dishonesty and insecurity. Therefore, American speech is saturated with such statements as Tell me what you mean; Let’s get to the point, etc. (Carbaugh, 2014).

Indirect verbal style allows hiding and camouflaging one’s true desires, goals and needs. For example, this style is typical for the cultures of Japan and Korea. Since the Japanese are committed to preserving both interlocutors’ ‘face’, they appreciate vague and ambiguous words and expressions. Usually, the Japanese do not allow the possibility of openly saying ‘no’. If you do say ‘no’ directly, they might pretend they do not understand you or didn’t hear what you had said, or just try to change the subject by throwing in a

lot of meaningless phrases (Tsui & Tollefson, 2017).

The second category, ingenuous (elaborate) and brief (concise) styles of verbal communication also have their own special characteristics. Each style uses expressive means of communication, pauses, silence, etc. in varying degrees. The ingenuous (elaborate) style involves the use of a rich, expressive language in communication. This style is widespread in the cultures of the Arab peoples of the Middle East, where the ‘face’ of the speaker and the interlocutor is preserved thanks to vows and reassurances. In Arabic speaking cultures, a refusal of refreshments must necessarily be accompanied by assurances that the guest is indeed full. In dealing with Arabs, one may have to speak more and louder than usual although the loudness of some foreigners may irritate some Arab listeners (see below). The volume of the voice, the heightening of the pitch and the tone – all of these may indicate sincerity (Dmitrenko, 2013).

A brief (concise) style of communication is the opposite of the ingenuous (elaborate) style. It is mainly about using the necessary and sufficient minimum set of statements to convey information. This style is characterised not so much by laconism and restraint, but is rather marked by evasiveness, the use of pauses and expressive silence. Pauses and understatement in a

conversation allow a business partner not to offend an interlocutor while negotiating without causing him or her to lose 'face'. Usually this style dominates in cultures, the main purpose of which in the process of communication is the preservation and maintenance of group harmony.

For example, the Japanese and the Chinese often use silence in conversation, especially with the uncertain status of the participants in the conversation. For representatives of these cultures, silence becomes a way of controlling the process of communication.

The third category, instrumental and affective styles of verbal communication, is distinguished by the orientation of the process of verbal communication to a specific participant.

The instrumental style of communication is focused mainly on the speaker and the purpose of communication. This style of communication dominates in cultures that are characterised by a high degree of individualism (Malyuga, 2016). For example, in European cultures and the United States, people tend to present themselves through verbal communication, through speaking, to show and affirm their individual self. This style of communication is especially widespread in Denmark, the Netherlands, and Sweden. The affective style is marked by the opposite orientation of the communication process. This

'Gestures and movements often indicate a person's cultural background, even if he or she is fluent in a foreign language'

style is focused on the listener and the process of interpersonal interaction. With the affective style, it is imperative to take care and avoid speculative statements and stances. To this end, business partners make extensive use of vague expressions and avoid direct affirmations or denials. If both partners in intercultural communication during the business meeting adhere to this style, then there are always situations of misunderstanding and interpretation of what has been said. The affective style of verbal interaction is typical of the Japanese style of communication. Its main goal is to achieve mutual understanding, partners should show intuitive sensitivity to the meanings hidden between the lines.

Following the research of Mehrabian (1981) into non-verbal communication in the 1970s it is common knowledge that using words alone people transmit as little as 7% of information to their interlocutors. The rest of the data is transmitted through non-verbal means of communication, which are very important in the process of intercultural business communication.

Gestures have a social origin, and so intercultural

differences appear to be most pronounced in gestures and other manifestations of body language, making up 55% of communication. For example, expressing their approval in public places, the Germans do not applaud, as is customary in the cultures of other nations, but knock their knuckles on the table top and even whistle or shout on occasion.

Most gestures are culturally determined, they are symbols and are contractual in nature. Gestures and movements often indicate a person's cultural background, even if he or she is fluent in a foreign language. This is one more factor to be considered in the process of intercultural business communication. For example, in American culture, several gestures are used to indicate a desire to change the topic of the conversation, speak out or finish the conversation: lean forward, stop looking your interlocutor in the eye, change the posture, often nod. These subtle hints have a practical effect and change the nature of communication.

Inappropriate use of gestures can trigger serious misunderstandings. An accident with an American politician visiting one of the countries in Latin America might serve as an indicative example. In his speeches, the politician continuously stressed they wanted to help, showed his amicable attitude and sympathy towards others. However, his trip started unsuccessfully.

His mistake was that, descending from the airplane, the politician joined his forefinger and thumb in the well-known A-OK gesture.

Unfortunately, he did not realise that in parts of Latin America this gesture is considered rude, or even indecent (Axtell & Fornwald, 1998).

During business negotiations, special attention is paid to eye contact, since communication of people begins with visual communication, which for this reason is the main element of non-verbal communication. Eye contact is a specific form of human communication, because through the eyes a person can express an extensive range of emotions.

For example, specifying the price of the goods or the value of the contract, Chinese and Turkish business partners focus on the pupils of their interlocutors: if the price is satisfying, the pupils tend to expand. In Western cultures, 'direct look' is considered an important communicative indicator: if a person avoids eye contact, he or she might be considered insincere and unreliable. So, Americans usually do not trust someone who does not look them in the eye; the use of visual contact facilitates trust between people. If a person fails to establish direct eye contact, this can be a cause for concern. Deliberate refusal to establish eye contact can be part of a manipulation technique to leverage a dependent partner. This way the speaker manipulates his or her communication partner into

'Deliberate refusal to establish eye contact can be part of a manipulation technique to leverage a dependent partner'

a secondary position so that the object of manipulation perceives himself as a burden in the interaction process. However, it should be noted that an Asian subordinate will not look his or her boss in the face, as this would be considered bold and disrespectful behaviour.

In addition to the above features of non-verbal intercultural communication, touching culture can be very different. One may speak of high contact culture (permitting tactile interaction), and low contact or distant (restricting tactile interaction) culture. When conducting business negotiations, one should take into account the generally recognised fact that Latin American, Eastern and Southern European cultures are classified as high contact cultures.

The Germans and British rarely resort to tactile feedback in the process of communicative interaction. In Germany and the US, men usually communicate at a reasonable distance from each other and hardly ever touch each other, although the United States tactility is more common than in Germany. Italian men stand close to each other and are much more likely to resort to tactile

interaction compared to women. One integral part of meeting is a handshake, especially on first meetings.

The Germans, like all Europeans, consider shaking hands an integral part of the greeting ritual. They shake hands not only during the first greeting, but also at the end of the conversation.

Western Europeans and Americans tend to avoid 'soft' handshakes, since in these cultures athleticism and energy are very much appreciated. A firm handshake tends to indicate sincerity. They should shake hands vigorously and strongly.

Specialists in non-verbal communication argue that the most aggressive kind of handshake is stretching the hand with the palm down (McNeill, 2000). A 'glove' handshake is sometimes referred to as a professional politician's handshake. The initiator of such a handshake tries to create an impression of openness, honesty, and trust in the interlocutor. The so-called 'dead fish' handshake is unpleasant for the interlocutor, especially if the partner's hand is cold and wet. A 'soft' slippery handshake may indicate the weak character of the owner of a cold and damp hand. The 'bone cruncher' handshake is a typical sign of an aggressive, tough interlocutor, it is almost impossible to neutralise this style. The main purpose of this handshake is to keep the interlocutor at a distance, away from the intimate

zone of the aggressive partner (Dibiase & Gunnoe, 2004).

Nonverbal behaviour in the process of business communication supplements and enriches speech, and strengthens the impact of the message.

Therefore, foreign language teachers should be able to recognise and comprehend both universal non-verbal means of expression, and those that are culturally and nationally marked, and pass this knowledge to the students. Therefore, the teacher needs to be aware of the 'communication pantomime' typically used by the representatives of various cultures.

If the non-verbal means of communication are ignored in the process of intercultural communication, the contradictions between verbal and non-verbal behaviour may be interpreted as evidence of insincerity, anti-social behaviour or poor upbringing. The use of gestures associated with speech promotes better perception of information, creates positive images and good memories of the encounter.

When it comes to training specialists in intercultural communication, there is one more point to be highlighted. Establishing contact with the representatives of other peoples and cultures, people naturally tend to take a narrow view of their behaviour and judge people by their own yardstick. More often than not, misunderstanding

of a different language, gestures, facial expressions and other elements of communicative behaviour causes misinterpretation of actions which, in turn, generates negatively charged emotions (even hostile at times). For example, Europeans who first came into contact with the Japanese were and are still shocked by the fact that in this strange culture it is customary to keep smiling while speaking of illness or the death of a close relative. This induced a stereotype propagating the heartlessness, cynicism and cruelty of the Japanese. However, in such cases, a smile should not be perceived in the context of European conventions, but should be interpreted through the lens of Japanese tradition, for in Japan it symbolises commitment to secure others against one's personal sorrows (Wierzbicka, 1999).

In the process of intercultural business communication, a pivotal role is played also by paraverbal or paralinguistic features that accompany oral speech, supplementing it with secondary meanings. The meaning of a statement may vary according to the intonation, rhythm, timbre, phrasal and logical stresses used to transmit it. Mehrabian's (1981) research indicated that up to 38% of communication depends on this.

Using our voice, we can convey a number of basic emotions (such as anger, joy, surprise, etc.), and emotional states (kindness, anxiety, confidence, interest, etc.). Paraverbal means are deployed in

the process of interaction to express appropriate emotions, feelings and experiences in order to achieve certain communicative goals and intentions.

In Egypt, Americans are sometimes criticised for their manner of speaking too loudly, despite a recognition that volume may convey sincerity and passion in Arabic speech. Part of this perceived loudness is due to the sociability of many Americans, who may adopt a loud and confident tone of voice to demonstrate their competence and openness.

Silence takes on enormous importance in the process of communication. In different cultures, the idea of how much silence is necessary for adequate communication has its own national features. For example, Americans tend to dislike long pauses and often try to 'fill the void'. Therefore, when foreign journalists or businessmen visit the US to find out information, they are instructed to take long pauses so that their American counterparts have time to explain their thoughts (and maybe reveal more information).

Another means of paraverbal communication is the manner of speech. While some cultures are marked by a prominent propensity to converse, in others people don't speak too much and tend to be laconic. This fact must also be taken into account in the process of intercultural interaction. In a

'In terms of the silence criterion, there is a perceived difference between Eastern and Western cultures'

number of cultures, the content of what has been said is often of secondary importance. For example, in Arabic language and literature, the content and meaning of what is said is not necessarily the main thing. Importance is given to word-play. Different words can be used with the same meaning. Arabs tend to express the same thought in different ways and using different words.

In terms of the silence criterion, there is a perceived difference between Eastern and Western cultures. In Eastern cultures, it is traditionally believed that silence should be prolonged, since it is treated as a manifestation of sincerity. In western-European cultures on the other hand, silence tends to be used to give 'thinking time'. Attentive listening may be considered an integral part of etiquette, and the ability to pause and use silence appropriately is considered an indicator of education and upbringing.

When it comes to intercultural communication, the ability to understand your partner's silence, gestures, or pauses is one of the components of professional competence.

One of the greatest experts in intercultural communication Bennett (1998) believes that in order to prepare for intercultural interaction one should first of all develop intercultural sensitivity, i.e. sensory perception and interpretation of cultural differences. According to Bennett (1998), it's not the similarity people need to be aware of, but the difference, for all the challenges of intercultural communication result precisely from the rejection of intercultural difference.

In the case of intercultural communication, in order to understand the communicative behaviour of representatives of another culture, it is necessary to consider it within the framework of a new culture, and not the native one, i.e. one should show an empathic attitude towards one's communication partner. In order to establish productive relations with the representatives of other cultures, one should learn to understand them on an emotional level. To do this, one needs to know what emotional statements and reactions are acceptable, because in every society there is a criterion of sentimentality and emotionality.

As a psychological notion, the term 'empathy' was introduced by the American psychologist Edward Titchener 100 years ago by drawing an analogy with the term 'sympathy'. Titchener (1926) interpreted empathy as a person's ability to understand the emotional state of another person through ingression into his or her subjective world.

Psychologists have identified three levels of empathy. The first (low) level represents disregard of the feelings and thoughts of others. The second (average) level implies episodic disregard of the feelings and thoughts of others and is most often encountered.

The third (high) level implies constant, deep and accurate understanding of other people, mental reconstruction of their experiences, and a deep tact. This third level should become the cornerstone of the sociocultural competence developed in foreign language classes. In today's society, competence in the sphere of communication has become one of the main components of a high level of professional expertise. A modern specialist will have to efficiently interact with a large variety of people and act promptly, registering the ever-changing information. Professional and business communication has become more flexible, mobile and less predictable.

Mastering the culture of speech behaviour characteristic of native speakers will allow students studying a foreign language to:

- exhibit appropriate communicative conduct in the process of intercultural communication;
- critically assess communicative settings;

- treat national etiquette rules and peculiarities of the national character with dignity and respect;
- show interest in the cultural, historical, and regional unique features of the target language countries;
- adopt the most valuable information in the field of cognitive interests and transfer it to the field of national experience (Dmitrenko, 2013).

Maintenance of efficient intercultural communication will obviously require more than just foreign language proficiency. In order to forecast and avoid misunderstanding, one will have to master the whole complex of behavioural, psychological, cultural, and communicative patterns. Whenever cultural differences are ignored, there emerges a threat to intercultural communication which hinders cooperation and obstructs comprehension.

Firstly, pretending that all people are the same will not eliminate the existing differences.

Secondly, the ability to decode background information about the interlocutor places communication partners on a more equal footing.

Thirdly, this knowledge allows improvement in the

course of communication. It allows negotiators to choose the right tone of communication, choice of topics, avoid discussion of painful issues, and better understand the partner's psychology (Lewis, 1999).

When dealing with a different culture, it is advisable to act in accordance with the norms, customs, and traditions of this community, avoid imposing your own religion, values or way of life, as the system of values of each culture develops over a long time and remains unchanged over many generations.

The behaviour of people with a different cultural background is not something unpredictable, it can be studied and forecast, but this requires special training.

Learning to interact with the representatives of other cultures poses two major challenges:

- through the playback situations that take place differently in different cultures, introduce students to intercultural differences in relationships with the representatives of other cultures;
- having familiarised the most characteristic features of a foreign culture, ensure the transfer of this knowledge to other situations.

Although ultimately we are dealing with individual whose values and attitudes, communication and management styles may or may not conform with the culture they represent, knowledge or ignorance of cultural characteristics plays an important role in achieving mutual understanding in intercultural communication. Being armed with this knowledge, students will be able to differentiate between permitted actions (Dos) and taboos which is ultimately one of the key competences developed in foreign language learning.

3. CONCLUSION

The diverse practice of intercultural communication has proved that even profound knowledge of a foreign language does not exclude misunderstanding and even conflict situation in the process of interaction with native speakers. In this regard, there is an urgent need for students to prepare for effective intercultural contacts at the level of everyday interpersonal communication. This involves supplementing language mastery with cultural proficiency, understanding the nature

of intercultural misunderstanding and developing the practical skills and conduct that together allow for comprehensive understanding of the representatives of other cultures and adequate perception and comprehension of business partners' both verbal and non-verbal behaviour.

The ability to successfully communicate interculturally is not innate in a person who exists in only in the framework of his or her native culture. It is acquired and formed by conscious comparative study of native and foreign cultures. To implement professional and business communication at the intercultural level, future specialists need extensive training that will ensure effective intercultural interaction. That is why such great importance is given to the development of the socio-cultural competence among students in foreign language classes. When we learn a foreign language, we get acquainted with a foreign worldview and try to combine it with our conventional perceptions. This combination is one of the major challenges in foreign language learning and teaching.

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Early gender diversity in reading and writing: Research and didactical consequences

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Learning languages is strongly influenced by an existing, but in institutionalised settings of language learning, still widely disregarded diversity. In many respects, boys and girls, men and women obviously learn and use languages in a completely different way. This initially hypothetical claim, based on pedagogical and educational as well as linguistic and psychological observations, can currently be newly restated using neuro-scientific research. Extraordinary progress in functional brain imaging now allows scientists to broadly understand the neural systems serving language skills, and how these systems differ in gender. So, they can prove evidence of developmental differences between males and females in language acquisition related brain structure during childhood as well as adolescence. A cross-science, non-statistical synopsis of these studies, focusing on early reading and writing competences, is absolutely necessary to prepare, identify and select evidence-based implications. In some specific aspects, the results indicate a paradigm shift in early reading and writing skills development to the explicit advantage of females, mainly in the pre-primary and primary language classroom. These, however, may not lead to discrimination or injustice of any kind – not even through school didactics or pedagogy for example – but have to be considered an asset.

KEYWORDS: *language acquisition, early language learning, gender diversity, neuro-didactics, differentiation, reading and writing skills*

1. INTRODUCTION

Differences between boys and girls, men and women, are numerous: from body height and muscle growth to endocrine functions. Finding differences in the brain, however, is not an easy task. The dimorphisms are small, few, and mostly have quite unknown functions. There have been many scientific attempts to locate gender

differences. The first functional magnetic resonance tomography (fMRI) studies particularly referred to the differences in size between the male and female brain, in addition to cognitive skills in cortical and subcortical areas (Kaiser et al., 2009).

With the exception of two potentially ground-

breaking distinctions, there are hardly any differences between girls and boys discernible within the early childhood and childhood years – in the framework of either neurosciences, or educational or linguistic sciences. Yet, on closer inspection, i.e., with analytical comparisons and cross analyses of the related results, the interfaces between all research landscapes lead to vital implications and a potential for change in the field of early language didactics and methodology. This includes a look from the outside into learning behaviour with observations from pedagogical and educational, as well as linguistic sciences, and a look into the brain. In this context, it is not primarily a matter of what and how much there is to be learned, but more importantly, how languages can be acquired. The answer is much more refined than has been assumed so far, which may come as no surprise for those involved in teaching/learning processes.

These seemingly marginal, gender-specific differences in neuronal organisation simply mean that boys and girls, women and men, learn and use languages in an entirely different way. Differences in functional activation between boys and girls for various elements of language processing have been discussed, for example, in (Schmithorst et al., 2008; Plante et al., 2006). Methods of differentiation, however, are still in short supply and are definite desiderata for the future.

This article provides a starting-point and basis for further comprehensive interdisciplinary research projects. The goal is to provide a comprehensive summary of the current state of scientific knowledge on gender differences in language learning, particularly in the development of early reading and writing skills, as well as to establish an initial, language-didactic framework for future implementations of the findings in early teaching and learning contexts.

2. INTERDISCIPLINARY METHODS OF GENDER RESEARCH

Gender-specific research designs are progressively difficult to define; aspects of language learning can only be separated from social influence with difficulty. Gender studies claim that a clear-cut distinction between a biological sex and a social gender does not exist (Butler, 1990; Fausto-Sterling, 2000). The latter is not a purely physical or material state, but is deeply linked with social and cultural structures of gender (Kaiser et al., 2009). The terms 'gender' and 'sex' are thus often used synonymously. Gender defines the social gender, the gender role, and has cultural and, typically, behavioural implications. From a medical viewpoint, gender is defined by biological differences, from chromosomes to sex organs, which also characterises the term sex, the biological gender.

According to neuroscientific findings, the

development of children's and teenagers' brains is paralleled by constant neuronal plasticity, well into old age (Kaiser et al., 2009). Experiences of every description are biochemically entered into neural networks, or rather, are newly formed. Therefore, it is likely that prenatal and pre-linguistic interdependencies between gender and sex can be expected. Caregivers and relevant situations change and characterise early on. They result in barely alterable gender markers, in addition to biological markers.

Increasing gender-specific imaging research methods (Kaiser et al., 2009) in medicine, psychology and biology via functional magnetic resonance tomography fMRI, and recently also magneto encephalography (MEG), are able to determine and describe the structural differences in male and female brains. Differences, however, can also be identified through fMRI research focusing on cognitive language processing (Burman et al., 2008). Language acquisition is thus considered a highly gender-specific phenomenon, particularly because of the observation that girls and women seem to learn and speak new languages more easily and faster than boys and men.

Questions concerning the influence of social indicators and experiences (Leonard et al., 2008), as well as on the irreversibility of gender-specific attitudes (Jordan et al., 2002), need to remain

'The left hemisphere usually takes the lead when the brain has to process linguistic stimuli and inhibits the activity of the right hemisphere'

excluded from purely neuroscientific structural analyses. Nevertheless, as Kaiser et al. (2009) establish in their meta-analysis, gender differences do not remain invariable in terms of higher cognitive skills within the neuronal organisation, but are subject to the lifelong influence of (learning) experiences (Jäncke et al., 2001; Draganski et al., 2004). Thus gender-specific differences during a person's biological development also become part of brain biology, such that sex and gender are linked in a way which means they cannot be easily isolated (Fausto-Sterling, 2000).

3. RELEVANT FINDINGS

3.1 General observations

Kaiser et al. (2009) summarise general gender-specific research findings related to early reading and writing. In psycholinguistic studies, there is a consensus that a female advantage can be discerned in terms of language production and fluency (Halpern, 1992), while males show an advantage in the understanding of word analogies (Hyde & Linn, 1988). The connection between anatomic preconditions, as well as linguistic skills,

and potential male advantages regarding, among other things, absolute brain size, could not be determined in a meta-analytical study either with healthy or with ailing participants.

In comparison, research into language behaviour identified an accumulation of pre-linguistic skills (Rome-Flanders & Cronk, 1995), as well as a spontaneous willingness to speak among girls (Craig et al., 2005; Jackson & Roberts, 2001). Further gender-specific differences with slight and early female advantages have been documented for such abilities as the speed of identifying and reading words (Majeres, 1999).

3.2 Lateralisation – different use of hemispheres

The link between the two cerebral hemispheres, the corpus callosum, or bridge, influences the symmetry of brain functions in both sexes. With more than 200 million nerve fibres, it transfers signals to both hemispheres, but can also inhibit signal currents.

In a particular part of the corpus callosum, the splenium, the cross-linking of the speech centres takes place. The male counterpart is one fifth smaller (Hoyenga, 1979). Mutual inhibition of both hemispheres determines the so-called lateralisation during productive, as well as receptive, language activity. The left hemisphere usually takes the lead when the brain has to process linguistic stimuli and inhibits the activity

of the right hemisphere. Girls and women have special sex hormones which reduce the process of inhibition.

Lateralisation can already be observed prenatally using a special imaging method, the diffusion tensor imaging, DTI (Schmithorst et al., 2008). With the aid of fMRI, the diffusion movement of water molecules in body tissue can be measured. Spatially resolved, it can be displayed three-dimensionally (Le Bihan et al., 2001). Weiss et al. (2003) carried out functional connectivity analyses via fMRI during language activities. Results showed that girls use both cerebral hemispheres in a stronger and functionally more symmetrically organised way in order to solve linguistic tasks more efficiently (Schmithorst et al., 2008; Sommer et al., 2008; Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2008).

Boys master linguistic tasks better with the hemisphere best specialised for the task, which means the left. Clinical trials (McGlone, 1977; Kimura, 1983; Hier et al., 1994; Hoyenga, 1979) confirm this. According to the findings, girls apparently tend towards multi-tasking, although it cannot be confirmed that mental capacities are divided during this process. Boys work more efficiently with only one task. Despite being approximately 13% smaller, the female brain devotes about 20 to 30% more brain areas to language, probably through lateralisation (Harasty et al., 2000).

Another clear gender distinction can be noted in early metaphoric reading skills: girls are usually able to empathise with others slightly sooner. Areas in the right hemisphere, which are most responsible for emotions, were activated during girls' attempt to read, but not among boys. Boys, on the other hand, only use half of the brain areas girls use for emotional verbalisations. Likewise, during the phonological processing of words in the course of reading, activities among boys could be measured in the left gyrus frontalis only; girls, on the other hand, additionally used the right side. All differences regarding lateralisation have less to do with a gender-specific gradient in intelligence, however, than with skills even though girls' and women's performance on the linguistic part of IQ-tests in intelligence surveys on partial aptitudes is superior.

3.3 Myelination – disparities on cellular level

The neuron, or the nerve cell, is the basic functional unit of the brain system, although it is by no means the only cell type in the body. Axons transmit electrical nerve stimuli, wherein the conduction and communication velocity between the cells is determined by the thickness of the myelin sheaths (Barkovich, 2000). These nerve fibres are gradually coated with myelin (Konrad et al., 2013; Carmody et al., 2004; Reiss et al., 1996) when the brain develops and matures, approximately until the age of 30. Myelinated axons make up the so-called white substance. In

'During the phonological processing of words in the course of reading, activities among boys could be measured in the left gyrus frontalis only; girls, on the other hand, additionally used the right side'

the first three years of life (Carmody et al., 2004; Paus et al., 1999), the 'critical step' (Pujol et al., 2006), as well as between the ages 10 and 20, developmental progress in this regard seems to be the steepest (Giedd et al., 1999).

Later, it is no longer as easy to form connections among nerve cells; their flexibility and thus their ability to learn decreases. Existing connections are optimised, however.

Human intelligence – genetically determined – depends qualitatively strongly on the condition of the axons, in particular on the thickness and corresponding capacity of the isolating myelin shaft for speed, '*... which may account for differences in reaction times, processing speed, and intellectual performance across subjects*' (Chiang et al., 2009). Velocities of 100m/sec can be measured. Myelination in the areas responsible for language takes place precisely when the first decline in learning ability can be observed. It is assumed that this happens

very early (Hyltenstam & Abrahamsson, 2003).

There are indicators for the development of reading skills. The fibres that cross over in the posterior mid-body region of corpus callosum interconnect the parietotemporal regions and undergo extensive myelination during the typical years of reading acquisition, i.e. 6–10 years of age (Thompson et al., 2000). One may therefore speculate that acquiring reading and writing skills at the appropriate age shapes not only the morphology of the corpus callosum and the corresponding interhemispheric connectivity but also the pattern of interaction between the interconnected inferior parietal regions.

Thus, according to Petersson et al. (2007), there might be a causal connection between reading and writing acquisition, the development of the corpus callosum, and the hemispheric differences' (p. 797). This is where gender differences become apparent. They can be identified for language development in general: it is well known that the acquisition of certain language skills is delayed in boys relative to girls (Schmithorst et al., 2008).

It is also true for anatomic details: 'The language centre in boys is myelinated later than in girls and this means generally they develop language skills slightly later' (Macintyre, 2009). Additionally, the differences can be proven even for development

processes: *'The process of maturation is completed faster in girls than it is in boys, both with respect to progressive myelination and volumetric increases'* (Seeman, 2013, p. 1504).

There is a strong link between reading skills and level of myelination: *'... myelination is suspiciously coincident with the timing of early language/ cognitive development'* (Bates et al., 2003; Nagy et al., 2004).

Long nerve pathways, clearly identified as responsible for reading and writing, are strengthened by myelin coating until the age of 30. Between the ages of 4 and 8, this process is gender-differentially strong for hormonal reasons. At the age of 8, these processes reach a relatively stable plateau. During this period, girls are far more hormonally developed (Benes et al., 2004), up to approximately three years ahead of boys (Zambo & Brozo, 2009; Morisset et al., 1995).

And what is more, until puberty, brain areas responsible for fine motor skills, such as handwriting, develop up to six years sooner with girls (Denckla et al., 2014; Anokhin et al., 2000). At the same time, within clinical studies, a preponderance of dyslexia occurs in boys. Only around the age of 18 does this imbalance level off. Nevertheless, it is important that the role of myelination not be overgeneralised (Aslin &

‘Drawing didactic consequences regarding early reading and writing from each single neurological result is unrealistic and also disingenuous’

Schlaggar, 2006; Chiang et al., 2009).

3.4 Further distinctions in cortex and speech centres

The cerebral cortex is an accumulation of nerve cells located as a thin layer of cortex on the outer rim of the cerebrum and cerebellum. Generally speaking, neuronal cross-linking can be measured sooner and more strongly among girls, which points to an early maturing of their cortex. The fact that this has implications for potential early learning skills can be seen in the parietal/temporal lobe. Girls are able to ‘habituate’ as early as from the third month of pregnancy, i.e. they react less and less to the same constant auditory stimuli until they stop reacting to them altogether. This indicates a memory for detailed sensory inputs, as well as an ability to attentively follow aural content, especially different voices.

Even female frontal lobes develop earlier. The prefrontal cortex is the brain’s C.E.O. It helps organise, analyse, and strategise. Spatial thinking and problem-solving strategies are connected with this area. Sooner than boys, girls are already able

to do conscious, intentional activities in their early school years. Their attention span is longer, and they master transitions between lessons and subjects more promptly (Havers, 1995). Such early cognitive control can be explained by the hormone serotonin, which is generated in the frontal lobes. Among other things, it is the basis for recognising cause and effect, as well as for lessening impulsivity. Boys use the prefrontal areas for spatial and mechanic functions (Moir & Jessel, 1989).

Two important and decisive speech centres in the left hemisphere are located in the temporal lobe: Broca’s area, mainly responsible for language production, and Wernicke’s area, responsible for language comprehension. Statistically speaking, they are larger in women by 20%, or even close to 30%, than they are in men, have better blood circulation, and show a higher density of neurons. Both areas develop earlier among girls. While language is formulated and acquired, even written, many other areas of the cerebral cortex are being activated.

Taken together, all fMRI studies indicate that girls are generally superior to boys with regard to language production (Schlösser et al., 1998; Weiss et al., 2003; Kaiser et al., 2007) and language awareness (Pugh et al., 1996; Kansaku et al., 2000; Phillips et al., 2001; Baxter et al., 2003), as well as in verbal communication and their overall

communication skills, i.e. they use more words (vocabulary size), start speaking and thinking about language earlier. When school starts, there are already measurable differences. Girls are also slightly better at memorising new lists of vocabulary items and at reproducing them later on. The early advantage regarding vocabulary size will even out during adulthood.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1 Didactic consequences

Drawing didactic consequences regarding early reading and writing from each single neurological result is unrealistic and also disingenuous. The image of a brain-appropriate and thus truly learner-oriented pedagogy becomes sharper and more vivid, however, if, like a puzzle, it forms and expands with increasing information on details, which then turn into increasingly large didactic action fields. In each case, however, structural, gender-specific differences in neuronal organisation demands equally differentiated language teaching methods (Fine, 2010).

4.2 Changing attitudes

A crucial first step in this direction is a change in attitude among teachers, as well as learners. Discrimination, stigmatisation, degradation and ignorance of existing or still developing reading or/and writing skills and competences exist because of common social stereotypes concerning sex and gender, or rather the social expectations they

transport. Overcoming them means gaining sufficient knowledge about biological gender differences, as well as about the learning needs of girls and boys, particularly in regard to language learning. Only then can a clear presence of gender-specific diversity lead to a conscious enrichment of learning contexts. What is still needed is a gender-balance-systematic that makes it possible for boys and girls to have equal chances when developing their reading and writing skills, and at the same time does both justice – in the true sense of the word.

4.3 Approaching early literacy

In the area of receptive language skills, such as reading comprehension, current research indicates that findings disparity in terms of attention span needs to be considered. In doing so, individual and well-prepared approaches to text comprehension should be allowed. Audio, video, or print versions of a text are ideally emotionally connected to the children's and teenagers' environment; they are challenging, authentic and, in the best sense, meaningful. Unlike receptive skills, speaking and writing need to be considered as gender-specifically different on many levels from the very beginning. Evident disparities between boys and girls in terms of the development of spoken language skills and literacy are considerable.

Dealing with the acquisition of purely linguistic

reading and writing skills (functional literacy), first a narrow understanding of the term 'literacy' can help. Skills that go beyond this, such as text comprehension, familiarity with media and literature and reading experiences, are not directly neuro-didactically relatable to existing pedagogic or linguistic findings. *'It should be emphasised that reading and writing skills are learned cognitive capacities of a different kind than natural language per se, the latter being a human universal, acquired by all normal humans in a largely spontaneous unsupervised fashion'* (Petersson et al., 2007, p. 797).

If there is evidence that the female brain at preschool age develops quicker in terms of verbal-emotional functions and that most girls have an early ability to sit still and stay focused on given tasks without any cognitive effort, there are bound to be ramifications. Not only are learning successes in foreign language learning greater; developing written competences, in particular, is more successful and intense (Whitmire, 2010). Many educational failures derived from failures in reading and writing at the very beginning of school, especially when learning tasks and learning materials progressively initiate the shift from *'learning to read'* (Shaywitz & Shaywitz, 2008, p. 1330) to *'reading to learn'*. A long-term study demonstrates that early intervention is necessary: *'Over the last 20 years, the reading skills of 17-year-old boys have been in a steady*

'Reading and writing courses in the mother tongue, as well as in foreign languages, if they exist at all, therefore need to be reconsidered and re-structured gender-specifically'

decline. Each year since 1988 the gap between boys' and girls' reading skills has widened a bit more' (Whitmire, 2010, p. 31).

Reading and writing courses in the mother tongue, as well as in foreign languages, if they exist at all, therefore need to be reconsidered and re-structured gender-specifically. Additionally, because a boy's prefrontal cortex develops more slowly than a girl's, there is a need to encourage higher-level thinking skills, in this case especially, reading and writing strategies.

The varying early rate of myelination among girls and boys showing a difference in development of up to four years renders affirmative differentiation in the development of literacy absolutely necessary. That involves didactic intervention:

1. The playful, experimental and individual contact with spelling in the sense of an 'interlanguage': spelling mistakes are hereby viewed as intelligent adjustment to writing standards; models and self-corrections lead from the children's own reading

and writing hypothesis to the target form. This requires a time-independent learning process. Restrictions such as negative corrections lead to neuronal counter-reactions and are distinctly counter-productive.

2. A varying range of texts, the so-called ‘boy books,’ e.g., placed omnipresent in reading corners and with individualised learning materials, contain topics such as competition, adventure, sports, science fiction, and how-to-do-things, but also war stories and fictional violence, and stuff about slime, bacteria and bugs, to make it more specific. It is necessary to create motivational access to biologically difficult brain functions at elementary school level, especially for boys.

3. From the lower secondary level onwards, special foreign-language literacy courses are appropriate measures for boys and girls in all school types to differentiate the upper and lower level of their corresponding competences. More concrete implementations at the methodical level, including pedagogic processes, choice of material and media, as well as topic-related organisation, are tasks for future work.

4.4 Preparing early productive reading and writing

Productive language skills differ significantly between boys and girls with a clear and early advantage for females. Their larger vocabulary

allows for more elaborate, differentiated means of expression which, in turn, develop verbal communication skills, particularly the readiness to speak spontaneously. This is also why, early on, boys and girls develop different linguistic narrative skills (Gilligan, 1982).

The fact that these circumstances additionally go hand in hand with cognitive advantages, which in parallel also seem to develop quicker, and thus have significant consequences for further foreign language learning, widens the performance gap between boys and girls in early language learning. Three aspects of differentiation can be identified:

1. Productive vocabulary size, with early advantages for girls, correlates strongly with established differences in the corresponding memory capacity for connected and random word lists. Strong visualisation with word webs, objects, pictures, symbols, etc., specify the vocabulary for boys and prepare its availability. Specific memorisation strategies, e.g., playful ‘photographing’ with their eyes, encourage this.

2. Only literacy skills make it possible to develop passive vocabulary. Passive availability leads to productive availability via practice and verbalisation. The previously mentioned affirmative action for literacy is therefore also absolutely vital for the verbal use of foreign languages.

3. The higher emotional connection girls have with a language leads to their verbalising their feelings more easily. Boys evidently develop this skill later. However, they are able to describe exactly what they have done, are doing at the moment, or will do.

Since the brain puts things that are done actively in a higher hierarchy than passively received ones, there is much to suggest that, besides offering specifically active, personal phrases (chunks, idioms), language- and speaking-oriented task formats are also gender-differentiating in every respect (Eliot, 2000).

5. CONCLUSION

Almost all suggested areas of differentiation initially focus on affirmative action with regard to

development-specific, albeit short-term, disadvantages among boys when it comes to language use. This is necessary, however, in order not to leave boys behind early on – either consciously, subconsciously or against better judgment – when it comes to the existing learning progressions in foreign languages, which follow a more linear than progressive curriculum. At the same time, there cannot be any ‘ceiling effect’ caused by limited challenges, task formats, extent of language use, or lack of individual linguistic tutoring for gifted children so as not to inhibit the language development of girls. This would result in an unnecessary delay and protraction of the high potential that girls have in language learning, specifically in reading and writing. Gender-specific differences must not lead to discrimination of any kind, but must be seen as enrichment.

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Psycholinguistic analysis of lexical-semantic structure in linguistic consciousness of Russian, English and German native speakers

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The study examines lexical-semantic structures in the linguistic consciousness of an individual and considers the factors affecting the establishment of these structures. Understanding the way people categorise the outer world is essential for the development of cross-cultural communication skills. The study analyses linguistic consciousness studies in the field of linguistics, psychology and psycholinguistics and provides findings of research into internal structure of a semantic field 'bird' in the linguistic consciousness of Russian, English, and German speakers. The findings will be interesting to specialists in intercultural communication and foreign language teachers. The methodological framework is based on the psychometric ranking of verbal and non-verbal stimuli followed by statistical data processing implemented to reveal the nature of results correlation. These results were further exposed to comparative analysis to define the factors bringing about both similarities and discrepancies. The analysis helped prove that both linguistic and cultural phenomena affect the position of a component within a semantic field, making up its core and periphery. Linguistic phenomena feature symbolism, metaphorisation, and word-formation, while cultural phenomena are represented by geographic location and practical skills of communication.

KEYWORDS: *language consciousness, lingua persona, worldview, categorisation, semantic field, cognitive field*

1. INTRODUCTION

Globalisation processes affecting different spheres of life coupled with the close interrelation and mutual interference of language cultures brings about an extensive scope of research works looking into the issue of linguistic consciousness, its national and cultural specifics. Modern psycholinguistics considers linguistic

consciousness in the framework of the theory of speech acts. The anthropocentric nature of linguistic consciousness is undeniable, as mental structures do not exist autonomously and the worldview created as a result of reflection includes the actions and behaviour of an individual as well. Linguistic consciousness is not only anthropocentric, but also ethnocentric, meaning

that national worldview is based on a peoples' system of presentational meanings, social stereotypes, and cognitive schemes (Jackendoff, 2007).

The issue of how language and culture affect linguistic consciousness and the process of linguistic categorisation is insufficiently explored. A key priority here lies in analysing specific cognitive mechanisms that are involved in the perception of both verbal and non-verbal stimuli, investigating how those stimuli are referred to within specific categories and how they are ranked within these categories.

A combination of linguistic and psycholinguistic approaches to the study of language phenomena reveals mechanisms of the formation of linguistic categories and the factors that define the peculiarities of the inner structure of the linguistic category in linguistic consciousness. Findings retrieved through new experiments can shed light on the structure of linguistic consciousness and its national and cultural profile.

Notably, such findings can be used for targeted the shaping of various aspects associated with linguistic consciousness in the course of the educational process. They can also be applied to optimising intercultural communication and can be recommended as teaching material to train specialists in intercultural communication:

'The key dilemma here is the interrelation between language and consciousness'

translators, foreign language teachers, international journalists, culture experts, political analysts, business people, etc.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND METHODS OF LANGUAGE CONSCIOUSNESS RESEARCH

The issue of reciprocal influence between an individual (as a representative of a particular culture), and language (as an entity shaping people's mental activity) was first highlighted by Humboldt (1999) who wrote about the need for an encyclopaedia that would reflect the way mentality and worldview of various nations across the globe shaped vital linguistic tasks. Since then this issue has been central in most disciplines dealing with language.

Following Humboldt, Whorf (2012) pointed out in his works the necessity of admitting the influence of language on different aspects of human activity. He emphasised that we should pay attention to common language laws and their reflection in various phenomena on a daily basis.

Language studies in terms of anthropocentricity have boosted discussion and research into the

most exciting linguistic issues, one of them being the development and conceptual interpretation of national linguistic consciousness and linguistic persona. Such research is intended to provide an insight into the peculiarities of speech habits, extra interpretations of meaning and the political, cultural and historical connotations of language units and speech.

Rubinstein (2002) defines consciousness as mental activity connected with the reflection of the world and self-reflection and emphasises that we need to study consciousness in terms of a person's behaviour and performance. Drawing attention to the continuity of consciousness and personality, Leontiev (2005) writes that personality is a process of constant identity shaping designed to regulate cognitive processes, behaviour, emotional experiences, etc. Following psychological interpretations of the notion, many linguists also consider linguistic consciousness and self-consciousness as the main attribute inherent in a linguistic persona (see, e.g., Searle & Willis, 2002; Hasan & Webster, 2005).

Ushakova (1986) points out that modern cognitive psychology introduced a lot of new ideas into the concept of consciousness; in particular, it introduced the idea of representative structures and peculiarities in the arrangement of mnemonic and information storage processes. Thus, deriving ideas from both psychology and linguistics,

'In terms of the worldview structure, it would be useful to consider differences in the core and surface worldview structures'

modern Russian psycholinguistics defines linguistic consciousness as a set of associative images shaped and verbalised using language means such as lexical units, word combinations, set expressions, sentences, texts, association areas, and associative thesaurus.

The key dilemma here is the interrelation between language and consciousness, which can be addressed via two alternative approaches. One of the approaches suggests that the system of verbal meanings and communicative means deployed to express these meanings presents a consciousness unit (Sapir, 1985; Whorf, 2012). According to Sapir (1985), consciousness amounts to a set of the signified meanings expressed by lexical units. Another approach describes meaning as a consciousness unit. Language here is viewed as a system of meanings that can be verbalised (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2006; Jakobson, 1965).

Both approaches have derived a significant number of both supporters and opponents. Popova & Sternin (2007) consider linguistic consciousness as a component of cognitive consciousness that

manages individual speech activity and regulates speech operation. The researchers also note that speech activity is in its turn part of a broader notion referred to as communicative activity.

3. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK FOR LINGUISTIC CONSCIOUSNESS RESEARCH

In modern linguistics, there are two main paradigms deployed in linguistic consciousness research. One of them is intercultural communication that assumes knowledge of a foreign culture by at least one of the communication partners. This paradigm allows us to investigate our own national consciousness and provides a foundation for comparative analysis. Such comparative analysis, in turn, will help reveal common features that are usually hidden or distorted while researching homogeneous consciousness (Cotton, 2013).

The other paradigm is memory study. Memory studies help track and record the life of images residing in our consciousness. As a form of reality, reflection memory stores, fixes and then reproduces our impressions about our immediate environment (Assmann, 2008). It provides unique material that could be used to analyse images dwelling within our consciousness.

This study follows the paradigm and ontology of intercultural communication assuming that language consciousness should be considered as

one of the layers within the entire worldview structure, i.e. as one of the optional schemes to discover the world that is more suitable for communicative aims.

In terms of the worldview structure, it would be useful to consider differences in the core and surface worldview structures. Modern cognitive linguistics suggests that worldview is inherent in a human being acting as a bearer of consciousness. Lévy-Bruhl (1975) defined it as people's involvement into the environment considering this involvement universal and basic for world perception. Following this, core structures can be defined as fundamental elements of human existence, conscious networks representing his or her actual interrelation with the world regardless of his or her personal reflections thereupon.

Different worldviews are commonly compared using universal categories and concepts, such as time, space, changes, causes, figures, fortune, etc. These concepts may vary in terms of their content, yet they are at all times embedded in a person's consciousness at any stage of his or her development. And it is language that exclusively describes the worldview due to its particular features, namely:

- it can describe the worldview in all of its integrity as elaborately as needed;

- it can describe both native and foreign worldviews;
- it can serve as an intermediary transferring the data between the various worldviews.

Thus, worldview is viewed as a reflection of the presentive real world in the individual's psyche mediated by presentive meanings and the corresponding cognitive schemes.

Developing this idea, Ushakova (1986) claims that combined activity of language, speech and consciousness in an individual psyche creates new structural features. Different researchers define them as language thesaurus, verbal nets, semantic fields, or basic contextual elements of a linguistic worldview. Thus, a conceptual worldview includes information represented in concepts, and a linguistic worldview covers knowledge fixed in the semantic fields comprising words and word combinations that are ranked differently within a category. Therefore, the next step would be to analyse the inner structure of the semantic field.

The term 'semantic field' came into use following Trier's (1973) work. Trier's theory is closely connected with Humboldt's idea of the inner form of a language. He understands language as a self-contained stable system that defines the content of all its constituent parts. Pursuant to Trier (1973), words of any language are not isolated carriers of

meaning; they all have their individual meanings only because other allied words also have this semantics. Trier (1973) also distinguished between two notions, namely 'lexical field' and 'conceptual field'. According to his theory, a field consists of simple units (words and concepts) with lexical units covering the corresponding conceptual field.

The next stage in the development of the 'field' concept is connected with works of Fillmore (1976) and Karaulov (2010).

Fillmore (1976) emphasises the role of semantic fields as representatives of unified patterning of human experience and knowledge. According to the researcher, semantic fields can be interpreted by appealing to the notion of a 'scheme', while lexical fields can be associated with the notion of a 'frame' and different types of links between the frames. Semantic fields are characterised by different types of structures due to different ways of reflecting human knowledge in lexis.

In his work, Fillmore (1976) defines the following types of such structures:

- contrasting sets (semantic oppositions);
- taxonomy (relations of inclusion or domination);
- paradigms (common semantic features);

- cycles (rank relations);
- nets (groups based on several relations);
- frames (a set of words representing a part of the conceptual whole);
- patronymy (relations between a pair and a whole).
- varying structure of a field (core and periphery);
- attracting (possibility to include new elements with similar features) (Bosova, 1997).

Another researcher, Karaulov (2010), considers achievements of modern linguistics and introduces the new conceptual perspective on semantic fields, as well as new principles of lexical structuring. According to this researcher, semantic fields present idiomatic entities relying on the connections between words. They are historically determined and vary from an individual to an individual.

Among various approaches to the study of lexis as a system, Bosova (1997) distinguishes the psycholinguistic approach that assumes studies of associative fields. An associative field represents a lexical set created by a respondent in accordance with the association with a word-stimulus. Admitting the diversity of the material referred to as a field, she distinguishes some of the most common characteristics of a semantic field:

- interrelation between elements within a single field;

Language is the main instrument of knowledge reflection. On the other hand, language is also a tool used to discover the world, inasmuch as it denotes and generalises the signals fed into the brain from the external world. Moreover, language is a tool of professional communication. In the course of professional communication, people create professional jargon that denotes notions and concepts used in their professional activity (Malyuga & Tomalin, 2014).

Studies of vocabulary organisation revealed that each semantic group has an element that can be perceived, identified, and remembered much faster and more successfully in comparison with the other elements of the group. Elements with the above-mentioned features are defined as core or basic and this finding is particularly important in professional language learning and teaching.

This hypothesis is justified by findings in Rosch and Mervis's (1975) psychological research which reveal that basic elements of a category are the first ones acquired by children while learning the native language.

‘An associative field represents a lexical set created by a respondent in accordance with the association with a word-stimulus’

Reviewing research papers published by Rosch (1978) and Lakoff (2012), we find some fundamental contradictions in the two main ideas shaping the foundation of the classical approach to categories description: 1) no member of a category can be superior to any other member of the same category; 2) categories are independent from an individual who creates categories (Lakoff, 2012). These and other relevant works (Berlin & Kay, 1969; Brown, 1958; Taylor, 1989) proved that in fact all individual peculiarities play a really important role in categorisation. Thus, linguistic categorisation of the perceived world is not an entirely spontaneous process. This explains semantic universals and interlingual equivalence.

Russian psycholinguistics argues that structures of consciousness add to its content introducing new relations and connections rather than isomorphically duplicating initial content. Meaning, therefore, has its own objective genesis in a person's practical cognitive activity.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS

Factors that influence the inner structure of a

semantic field can be illustrated by the study of the semantic category ‘Bird’. Considering this semantic field, we should appreciate that like any other semantic field it is neither rigid, nor fixed. It has been replenished at different stages of social development. Thus, we may conclude that words making up this semantic field do not only demonstrate major linguistic alternations, but also reveal social and economic changes.

Bird names that constitute the semantic field ‘Bird’ can be divided in compliance with the following features:

birds residing within the country: (a) well-known to the most part of the country's population (domestic or living near people); (b) wild birds typically residing within a particular location;

birds residing outside the country: (a) well-known to the most part of the country's population (due to the mass media, circus, zoo, or museums); (b) relatively unknown (identified as birds but not associated with any particular images); c) unknown (not identified as birds).

Studies of the field's inner structure by the method of random listing of field members provided material for comparative analysis in terms of the dominance of field members with respect to each other. Frequency data reveal the degree of awareness of different respondents (Russian,

‘This diversification provided an opportunity to compare responses to verbal and non-verbal stimuli and amplify the representativity of the selection presented’

American, and German respondents, in our case) regarding bird recognition ability. The findings disclose a mismatch uncovering certain differences in the inner structure of the semantic field in question.

Following the analysis of the above-mentioned studies, we assume that the psychological understanding of the structure of semantic fields is shaped in accordance with objectively recognised features but is at the same time determined by the individual’s knowledge of the world. Following Rosch (1978), we assume that the laws governing the establishment of a semantic field can be considered universal, while the distribution of related objects within this semantic field is determined by various factors. These factors may be underpinned by the linguistic, cultural, or historical development of the corresponding linguacultural community. Experimental findings provide the data that will enable us to answer the following questions:

1. What factors influence the distribution of

semantic field components in relation to a degree of typicality in comparison with the other members?

2. Is a combination of factors and the degree of their influence the same for different languages?

Our experiment consisted of two parts. The first part was based on typicality assessment based on verbal stimuli, while the second part relied on typicality assessment based on visual stimuli.

The verbal stimuli experiment (names of 50 birds) involved 100 Russian native speakers, 100 English native speakers (Americans) and 100 German native speakers. The visual stimuli experiment (photos of 50 birds in their natural habitat) involved 50 Russian native speakers, 50 English native speakers and 50 German native speakers.

The age of the respondents ranged between 20 and 50 years, men and women were represented equally and all of the respondents had been through education or were about to graduate. Attracting students of higher educational institutions is common experimental practice because by this age the process of lingua persona formation is almost entirely completed. As Karaulov (2000) points out, the content of language skills (vocabulary, hierarchy of values, pragmatic goals) and the ability to use them remain stable within a person’s lifespan. Therefore,

analysing respondents' responses, we can forecast some features of mass consciousness inherent in the representatives of the age group studied.

The questionnaire covering the first part of the experiment was developed based on the frequency data retrieved for 10 bird names with high reference frequency, 10 bird names with low reference frequency, and 40 bird names with average reference frequency.

All respondents received a list of 50 bird names in their native language that had to be ranked 1 (not typical) to 7 (the most typical). All respondents also had to elaborate on their subjective perceptions regarding the typicality of the birds mentioned. Primary results processing permitted us to calculate an average score (rank) for each bird name according to the weighted average formula.

In the course of the second part of the experiment, the respondents received 50 photos of birds in their natural habitat. 25 of these photos featured the birds listed in the questionnaire, while the rest of the pictures featured some new bird breeds. This diversification provided an opportunity to compare responses to verbal and non-verbal stimuli and amplify the representativity of the selection presented. All the photos were scanned and delivered in a slideshow format with the same exposure interval applied.

'The dove is a symbolic bird for all Christian cultures as a symbol of the Holy Spirit in Christian theology'

Along with the slideshow presentation, the respondents received the list comprising 50 items that were supposed to be ranked 1 to 7. Further on, the same data processing procedure was implemented.

The findings obtained through the experiment were analysed in three stages: 1) statistical data processing revealed the nature of the results obtained; 2) analysis of data obtained through both experiments and revealed the inner structure of the semantic field studied; 3) comparative analysis of the data intended to identify the factors that determine the inner structure of the semantic field in question.

The correlation of the results obtained was further described using Spearman's formula (Spearman correlation).

The correlation ratio of ranks given to verbal stimuli is as follows:

- Russians/Americans +0.42
- Russians/Germans +0.90
- Americans/Germans +0.47

These correlation ratios prove the following:

- with the findings related to the Russian/American and American/German part of the experiment, there appear to be quite significant differences in the distribution of semantic field components;
- greater similarity was revealed in comparing data obtained from Russians and Germans.

The correlation ratio of ranks given to non-verbal stimuli is as follows:

- Russians/Americans +0.997
- Russians/Germans +0.970
- Americans/Germans +0.966

These correlation ratios prove that there is some universal basic image of a bird in the consciousness of people with different national and cultural backgrounds. Analysing photos that achieved the highest rankings, we can conclude that their typicality was estimated based on some basic exterior features assigned to a perfect object of this group.

Having analysed the distribution of bird names within the semantic field 'Bird', we can argue that ranking of birds based on verbal stimuli does not accurately reflect the real genus-species relations.

For example, English native speakers gave the highest rank to a robin, while thrush (that gives the name to the bird family) was ranked much lower; an eagle, representing a hawk-like bird family, was ranked much higher than a hawk. Such mismatching proves that semantic fields do not present absolute reflections of scientific classification. Some researchers (Berlin & Kay, 1969; Lakoff, 2012; Smith et al., 1984) suggest that the difference or mismatching between scientific and linguistic categorisation is due to cultural and linguistic factors, as well as upbringing traditions typically adhered to in specific linguacultural communities.

The next step of our research was to analyse the cultural factors determining the establishment of the semantic field studied.

With all three groups of respondents involved in the study, the top-ranked representatives of the semantic field 'Bird' included an eagle (85% of Russians, 77% of Americans and 66% of Germans) and a dove (75% of Russians, 67% of Americans and 70% of Germans). Thus, we assume that the eagle and the dove are the most prominent representatives of this semantic field in the linguistic consciousness of Russian, English and German native speakers. Moreover, we may assume that the symbolic interpretation of these birds in all three cultures could be a reason for such ranking.

The white-headed eagle (also named American eagle) is the national emblem of the USA, while the two-headed eagle (also named double-headed eagle) is the symbol of the Federal Republic of Germany and the Russian Federation.

The dove is a symbolic bird for all Christian cultures as a symbol of the Holy Spirit in Christian theology. Moreover, doves occupy a particular place in human life, as according to ornithological data they are an integral part of the urban landscape on the Eurasian continent. Over 150 species of doves are being bred for different purposes. People all over the world are familiar with the expression ‘the dove of peace’ which obviously reflects people’s attitude to this particular bird.

Some groups of lexical units (primarily words denoting real phenomena and reflecting environmental peculiarities) express national and cultural identity. Endemic names of plants and animals residing in a particular location are perceived as both proper names and generic names. Some of them are usually connected with stereotypical associations fixed in a peoples’ background knowledge.

Symbols, in turn, are a particular need of an individual and they don’t exist on their own but are the product of human consciousness. Lakoff (2012) compares symbolism with metonymy,

‘The prevailing opinion is that metaphors are created by object features that match subjects of a metaphor and are accompanied by assessment connotations’

emphasises that they are both nonspontaneous and supposes that there is a reason why dove is a symbol of the Holy Spirit. The bird has always been perceived as something peaceful and tender, a friendly creature that graciously and silently sails in the air. Besides, doves are always close to people, always around.

Thus, we can assume that symbolism is at least one of the reasons why ‘eagles’ and ‘doves’ were ranked high in our experiment. Besides, we can argue that the cultural and historical development of a linguacultural community affects the way various phenomena are being structured and presented in people’s linguistic consciousness.

Analysing the words ‘eagle’ and ‘dove’, we should also consider the notion of metaphorisation, which is crucial to our research. The lexical unit ‘eagle’ is often used in all three languages to characterise a careful, watchful, and sharp glare (*eagle-eyed* in English, *Adlerblick* in German). In Russian culture, it is common to call a proud and brave man an ‘eagle’. ‘Dove’ in English and ‘der Taube’ in German are used to name politicians who are in

favour of peaceful policies and dispute solving. For example, this citation from an American newspaper reads: *'Although not the most famous Senate 'Dove,' Pell helped change the nation's Vietnam policy as effectively as other more ...'*

The prevailing opinion is that metaphors are created by object features that match subjects of a metaphor and are accompanied by assessment connotations. Basic metaphors mostly appeal to intuition and determine people's way of thinking about the world (worldview). According to Maslova (2004), a metaphor is *'an organic expression of reasoning and cognition, the main tool used to create new concepts in a person's linguistic worldview'* (Maslova, 2004, p. 89-92). A similar idea can be traced in the work by Lakoff and Johnson (2008) claiming that basic ontological metaphors proceed from regular correlations in human experience, and we conceptualise less distinct notions in terms of more distinct notions (Lakoff & Johnson, 2008). For example, the verb *to parrot* means to repeat after somebody, mostly without proper understanding. This verb derives from a bird name *parrot* with reference to an ability of this bird to imitate sounds. This is true for all three languages under study.

Notably, the distribution of stimuli within a semantic field can be explained through something more than just metaphorisation, symbolism, and metonymy. Thus, in our further

analysis we shall assume that the nominative function of word formation is actualised in selecting and fixing new structures of knowledge with word formation means and making some conceptual units that appear objective as a result of world cognition and assessment. Kubriakova (2004) identifies the following regularities in concept perception:

- abbreviation is perceived differently with aphetic or converse terms;
- genuine lexis differs from derived lexis not only morphologically but also due to phonological strangeness;
- there is always a core in word formation system, consisting of productive type models used in literature and regular speech models, as well as a periphery consisting of special and professional lexis;
- stylistically marked lexis always requires special strategies for understanding.

This approach is relevant for further analysis of ranking distribution. Rankings obtained with Russian respondents were analysed using the following sources:

- Dictionary of the Russian Language (Ozhegov, 2007);

- Russian Dictionary of Associations (Karaulov et al., 1994);
- Dictionary of Modern Russian Literary Language (Gorbachevich, 1994).

Rankings obtained with American respondents were analysed using the following sources:

- Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture (LDEL, 2005);
- Longman Exams Dictionary (LED, 2006);
- Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary (CCALED, 2009).

Rankings obtained with German respondents were analysed relying on the following sources:

- Der Grosse Duden (Ahlheim, 1988);
- Deutsches Universalwörterbuch (DUDEN, 2006);
- Moderne Deutsche Idiomatik. Systematisches Wörterbuch mit Definitionen und Beispielen (Wolf, 1996).

The analysis was designed to identify the factors that could affect the ranking obtained with Russian, English, and German native speakers.

Pursuant to the data retrieved, the names of the birds residing within the country got the highest ranks. These are the names making up part of people's genuine language, inasmuch as they are easily perceived, remembered and actualised as part of respondents' active vocabulary. Here mention should be made of the phenomenon of place affiliation that was introduced by Taylor (1989) and defined as '*affective connections between an individual and his or her environment*' (p. 102).

In addition, most of the bird names of that top group constitute idioms that are fixed in dictionaries and are commonly used in everyday speech. An idiom contains generalised information about an element of our environment and embeds emotive assessment of the objects surrounding us, thus affecting the process of categorisation.

Average ranking was given to exotic birds commonly residing outside of respondents' native countries; however, native speakers know at least something about those birds from mass media and other sources of information. Names of those birds are derivatives from other languages and are rather difficult to perceive due to morphological and phonological differences (e.g., oriole, canary, swan, penguin, cockatoo in a survey among American respondents).

Another group of bird names that got average

ranking was associated with the birds that are well-known to professionals specialising in the corresponding field (ornithologists). It is mostly professional lexicon, and identification and assessment require knowledge of the sphere of zoology. Therefore, it is part of passive vocabulary (e.g. jay, blackbird, wagtail, and heron in a survey among American respondents).

The lowest ranking was given to bird names that are polysemantic, i.e. have several different meanings. We assume that low ranks attributed to these particular bird names had to do with their diffusion throughout other semantic fields. One and the same meaning cannot denote the best representatives in different categories, (e.g. secretary bird, babbler, kiwi, and cardinal in a survey among Americans).

Summing up, the following structure of a semantic field may be suggested.

The core of the field consists of names included in the active vocabulary, forming part of idiomatic expressions, and denoting objects typically found within the country and well-known to native speakers. They form a wide associative field that reflects people's experience or relations with their surroundings.

The bulk of the semantic field contains names categorised as both genuine and derived lexis,

forming part of people's passive vocabulary, and denoting objects existing both outside and within the country. Native speakers are more or less aware of them through different sources of information.

The periphery is characterised by polysemantic names belonging to both genuine and derived passive vocabulary, denoting objects that are never found within the country and are little known to native speakers.

The next step in our analysis was to compare the rankings associated with the verbal and non-verbal stimuli. This comparison resulted in the following findings:

- Images that arise as a result of visual perception do not necessarily align with the images residing in one's linguistic consciousness because they are affected by factors that are different by nature. Still the revealed similarities suggest that there are levels of representation where the information transmitted by language coincides with the information received through other channels, such as sight, sounds, smell, movements, etc.
- The distinctive external features of real objects are mediated by presentive meaning and respective cognitive schemes.

- Complex knowledge about the world is reflected in language that shapes the images represented in people's linguistic consciousness.
- Mental images that appear as a result of visual perception are universal in nature. Images making up part of linguistic consciousness vary due to different verbalisation techniques employed in the course of information processing.
- A word can activate complicated mechanisms within the human brain, i.e. induce packages of information about our surroundings. Thus, it can serve as a source of symbolisation based on associations deployed to shape complex mental combinations.
- Imagery perception, physical interrelation, and mental images affect the establishment of various semantic fields functioning among the representatives of different linguacultural communities.

5. CONCLUSION

Different types of experiments unravelling the inner structure of semantic fields allowed us to prove the existence of lexical-semantic fields in people's linguistic consciousness and classify semantic fields into core and periphery. Some

‘Complex knowledge about the world is reflected in language that shapes the images represented in people's linguistic consciousness’

questions, however, remained unanswered, which prompted an ever more comprehensive revision of the classic understanding of what category actually is. Correlation between cognitive and language fields has become the key topic of investigation in a number of modern studies. The object of our study was the taxonomic category ‘Bird’. Comparative psycholinguistic analysis of rankings in terms of verbal and non-verbal stimuli obtained from representatives of Russian, German, and American linguacultural communities allowed us to define the category's inner structure (its core and periphery), pinpoint the factors influencing the distribution of field components (language and culture), and compare the structures of cognitive and linguistic fields.

To sum up, the components of both linguistic and cognitive fields and their distribution within the field can be determined by both essential features of the denoted object and its relations with the other field components that are built up under the influence of a number of factors connected with linguistic, cultural, and historical development of the corresponding linguacultural community.

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Teaching English in China: Changing self-perception

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This paper is a mixed-method, grounded theory study of two teams of American teachers who taught 1125 Chinese teachers of English over two years in intensive fourteen-day professional development workshops. Through the use of ethnographic, grounded theory, and mixed methods, the paper will illuminate the paradigm shift from didactic teaching to a student-centred, active learning environment seen through a socio-cultural linguistic, constructivist lens. In contrasting the unique collectivist, authoritarian cultural context of the Peoples' Republic of China with the United States' recognised sense of ethnocentrism, its societal norms and standards, recognition is given to the outsider-insider dialogical and ontological insights with regard to changes in indigenous identity. Pedagogical and methodological practices will be examined in this light. Of all participants in two summers of professional development, it was found that 97.75% reacted favourably to the shift from teacher-centred dispenser of information to an active, student-centred perspective. In the process, Chinese teachers became more confident in their skills and in a dispassionate fashion, compared and contrasted two pedagogical paradigms, and mutative senses of their identity. 2.25% felt there was little benefit in moving paradigms given their country's emphasis on test scores.

KEYWORDS: *socio-cultural linguistics, active learning, ontology, ethnocentrism, identity, student-centred, teacher-centred*

1. INTRODUCTION

It is a country of 1.37 billion people where thousands of cars, motorbikes and bicycles adeptly but frighteningly weave in and out along the congested city streets.

It is a land where high-rise buildings are more frequently seen as two storeys while the smog obscures both cities and their peoples. It is as if the

sky has written off the noise and throngs below it and the poet's eye can only imagine what really exists below.

But it is also a land of appreciative, thoughtful, caring people who allow us as teachers from a foreign country to be seen apart from the differences of our ideologies and embraced as a family within and across the profession. It is

'It is as if the sky has written off the noise and throngs below it and the poet's eye can only imagine what really exists below'

China, where country landscapes are reminiscent of another time, free of the constraints of division and scepticism, and distant mountains majestically stretch to the heavens in search of the peace, tranquillity and beauty of a 4300-year history.

From those who pedal carts of vegetables and others who hawk crawfish on a stick, to the teachers who come to the 'foreigners' workshops, professional development and programmes, this is China. These are people who, like all committed teachers, come seeking more effective teaching and learning practices for their students, perhaps up to 70 in one class, to learn, grow and fulfil their dreams. It is estimated that in 1986 nearly 50 million people were learning English, 40 million of whom were students (Wang & Storey, 2015). The number of English speakers in China was estimated in 2017 at about 10 million, still only one in ten of the population (Lyons, 2017).

2. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

This then is a paper framed against a mixed-methods research model, although it leans heavily on a qualitative, ethnographic action research

model that examines pedagogical practices. Additionally, it is a socio-cultural linguistic study of the evolutionary process of attendant self-identity. It draws from concepts of the sociology of language, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, linguistic anthropology and social theory. It attempts to understand other values and experiences, ones that are not our own.

3. INTERPRETIVE FRAMEWORK

The experiences, perceptions and observations as well as shifts in identity are the tools used to understand the comparative lived experiences of the Chinese and Michigan teachers. How the Chinese teachers made sense of the daily changes in their teaching perceptions is the main reason for this study.

Additionally, the often-contested sociolinguistic and sociocultural linguistic approaches assisted in interpreting the data as they emerged. While language lies at the heart of every social interaction, sociolinguistics tends to focus on and begin with language used in social as well as in cultural contexts. These researchers study the effects of language use within and upon groups of peoples and the reciprocal effects of social organisations on language.

While sociolinguistics collect data, sociocultural linguists observe the learner's interactions in a natural language setting. They examine

the sometimes overlapping fields of mediation, genetic analysis and the application of the social learning theory. For the purposes of this paper, we find interpretive value in both traditions with a stronger leaning towards socio-cultural linguistics.

4. FOREGROUNDING OUR WORK IN CHINA

Our curriculum used a socio-cultural linguistic lens that gave us the flexibility in our culturally responsive classrooms to better interpret responses, engagement, identity development and identity intersectionality, as well as how to approach our individual as well as collective teaching. We were mindful of racial expectations given both lack of knowledge depth regarding Chinese culture and because of changes, based on a socio-cultural linguistic platform, built into the curriculum.

Two mentor teams of 10 to 15 American teachers taught multiple 10 to 14-day sessions entitled 'Teaching English to Chinese teachers of English'. A special text was written that used the student-centred, active-learning approach (Williams-Boyd, 2015). As with Fisher (1963), we contend that it is through art, language, shared action, and active dialogues that true growth flourishes. Varied venues of English language usage were employed: teaching English through music (the theme for the workshops was the song 'We Are Family' by Sister Sledge, which ran throughout our activities as well as our relationships), using multicultural myths

'They challenged students to own their own learning, to be thinkers and partners in the business of teaching and learning'

and legends and theatre-based techniques in addition to a designated block of ESL teaching strategies were the largest part of the day.

Homerooms, using active learning strategies, had one teacher who would work throughout the P.D. (Professional Development programme) with 25-50 Chinese teachers. Each member of the team also rotated once a day through each homeroom and taught their chosen specialisation, e.g. differentiated teaching and learning, formative assessment, before and during reading strategies and incorporating them into learning stations, American holidays and culture, teaching to all of the multiple intelligences in forty minutes, and student learning profiles with an emphasis on types of intelligences.

The afternoon ended with all homerooms responding to/on common-question exit cards and in personal journals. The evening sessions focused on lesson design, project and performance-based assignments.

The two-week sessions each concluded with a celebration of what was learned by the Chinese teachers as measured through their performances

of new-English language songs, fashion shows narrated in English, and skits or play adaptations. The preparation for the celebration used only English. This performance-based assessment was a creatively synergistic display of their English skills of listening and speaking, manipulating and teaching through their newly found confidence.

5. PEDAGOGICAL FRAMEWORK

Student-centred, active learning classrooms' engagement and success of all students were the foci of the work. They challenged students to own their own learning, to be thinkers and partners in the business of teaching and learning. In an authoritarian, teacher-centred pedagogy common to China, the note of individual differences is uncommon. However, 97% of all responses were similar to:

'I think now about the students' studying levels. Then I'll know how difficult I'll teach them. Then consider the importance of this lesson in order to realise the teaching goal I'll also try to make or design interesting activities to motivate students: teaching purpose, warm-up, oral practice in pairs/groups, important parts in the textbook, summary or quiz. It is a guide' (July 8, 2015).

96.2% of the participants noted similar critiques:

'I came to improve myself. I have been teaching for eight years. I felt I encounter (sic) the plateau

period. I need new thoughts. The 'routinisation' makes me panic. So thank you to bring me new ideas' (July 22, 2016).

In the words of several Chinese colleagues, *'Individuals count more than rules'* and *'Respect every spirit because teachers help students to be better people'* (July, 2015). Although still the authority figure in the classroom, teachers become facilitators of constructed knowledge. In order for young people to become creative, communal, critical and independent learners in society, teachers step off the podium of lecturing and onto the floor of student learning. In an active student-centred classroom, students are engaged in problem and project-based learning in reading, writing, discussion or problem solving. They promote critical, higher level thinking through analysis, synthesis and evaluation of teacher content. In the three parts to every lesson (content, process, and product), the process segment is the most crucial for it is here that students feel respected as part of a group.

'The teaching style in America is different from the style in China. In China we have a traditional education rule. The student need (sic) to listen to the teacher carefully and get more knowledge. But we have less actions in class. In America, the students are free in class, I think...' (July 23, 2016).

In a traditional teacher-centred classroom, teachers

provide basic instruction through the use of lectures and demonstrations. The teacher holds all the power because of his or her outstanding knowledge, while classroom management is focused on rules and expectations.

In a student-centred classroom, the teacher and students process information with the teacher's primary role as a facilitator for student learning. A variety of assessment methods – formal and informal, project-based, performance-based, and the use of portfolios – measure learning more deeply than a written test.

In active learning, teachers lead by example, showing students how to engage, access and understand the lesson through engaged demonstration. Is it perceived to mirror our country's ideology? The Chinese teachers noticed comparative differences and felt active learning strategies were an improvement for them.

'Chinese – 70 students in a class. Think we must be humble (sic). America – 20 students in a class. Full of confidence (sic) (July 18, 2016).

'We don't allow the students to do anything but listening to the teachers and doing homework' (July 7, 2016).

'American teaching is very vivid and active and creative, but Chinese teaching is

very serious and short of creative' (July 7, 2016).

'Michigan teachers have classes freely, but our Chinese teachers have classes dully. We should learn from you' (July, 2015).

A total of five or 2.25% of the Chinese teachers felt:

'There are more students in China. And there are more rules in classes. If the classes are a little bit more active than before, school managers may ask teachers to do class control... I think I can use some of strategies (sic) in my class. I can change them according to my students' styles' (July 5, 2015).

97.7% of the Chinese teachers expressed support for active learning strategies:

'The students in America are more active than those in China. The teachers in America are more active than those in China, too. I think the active way can make teaching more effective' (July 24, 2016).

'The spirit of American teachers' contribution inspires me a lot. Their teaching strategies are very important to us. So I think the American teachers are very serious about their jobs' (July 23, 2016).

'Interest is the best teacher. Role-playing

is great. Interactions is (sic) important, too. When we are in trouble, we should communication (sic) each other, understand each other' (July 23, 2016).

'I find working together is powerful. During discussion everybody is inspired and may come up with new ideas' (July 18, 2015).

The students learn through observation first and then through using the teacher's demonstration, copying the process. The emphasis is on critical, creative and higher-order thinking.

'It's useful to keep students active and learn to cooperate. And also to keep students' differences in mind is important' (July 4, 2015).

While China continues to score higher on the international PISA test than any other nation in math, science and reading, award-winning author Yong Zhao (2014) contends that in order to cultivate new talents, his country must have an education that enhances *'individual strengths, follows children's passions, and fosters their social-emotional development'* (Zhao, 2014, p. 10).

6. THE TEACHING CONTEXT

Our Chinese colleagues noted the mentors and the workshop participants agree that we all, *'want our students to get more knowledge'* and to *'find the best way to reach students'*.

'We all hope they will succeed one day' (July, 2015).

Yet two Chinese colleagues said:

'I really didn't find any similarities between China and America. I think the teaching goals may be similar but the teaching methods are entirely different' (July 18, 2015).

76% of all participants described their teaching context as *'an emphasis on discipline and obedience,' 'a focus on efficiency,' 'teachers talk more and students listen more,' 'servicing the examination'*.

'In China, the final goal of school teaching is to help all students to go to the university. In America, not all the students are intended to go to the university' (July 23, 2016).

'We must pay attention to scores and rules. The principal is willing to control everything' (July 23, 2016).

'In China, the education is the exam-oriented education. What we do is not only teaching students, but let them get high score. They judge just according to the score' (July 23, 2016).

'China: tradition and our thinking confinement. America: open-minded and active

atmosphere' (July 23, 2016).

'Most schools, parents and students themselves focus on scores instead of learning experience. It's a pity' (July 23, 2016).

'Teaching in China is a big challenge. Some children are raised by their grandpa or grandma, and their parents are far away. In this way, the grandparents love these children very much. If they make some mistakes in school, their family would think it doesn't matter. You, teacher, shouldn't punish them' (July 23, 2016).

China is wealthy in its traditions, thinking and peoples. The United States is a fledgling country whose teachers, when left to their professional knowledge, make decisions for its students based on best practice research. Simpson (2008) notes that China sees its teachers as dispensers of wisdom. As with ancient thinkers, a teacher must transmit knowledge, provide for study and dispel confusion. This is reminiscent of Friere's (2006) 'banking' model of education that holds students are passive, empty vessels into which teachers pour knowledge.

This then poses challenges in bridging the perceptual and positional gap, respecting Eastern thought while at the same time teaching effective learning strategies. Simpson (2008) contends Chinese students (in this case, teachers) do not

participate in class for fear of giving the 'wrong answer' and, therefore, losing face. To some this would appear to block western thought and action; however, the team diligently worked to construct a safe environment. Soon the hesitant were contributing active class members.

'Teaching strategies in America is (sic) different from ours. We only stress scores and ranks. They (Americans) pay attention to 'develop and inspire' – develop student's ability through various methods especially by demonstrating and inspiring students' confidence and braveness' (July 10, 2015).

'I find the way to make sure everyone is involved in the class very useful. Preparing for the lessons consists of different aspects including getting a better understanding of the different students, the teaching strategies' (July 9, 2016).

'I came to the PD thinking I would make many friends and learn from them. I would improve my oral English. But now I think I should speak English more' (July 10, 2016).

'Learning English is not just speaking, writing, listening. It depends on people who are brave and has (sic) much motivation' (July 10, 2016).

79% of all respondents commented on the teachers in much this way.

91% of all respondents said:

'I have learned many teaching strategies. That opens my eyes' (sic) (July 20, 2016).

Given the perceived disjuncture between teacher-centred and student-centred learning, large numbers of foreign language teachers returned from China with dampened enthusiasm, feelings of disappointment and in some cases bitterness and rancour.

Following intense month-long sessions in stifling heat, the unanimous reaction by our mentors was quite the opposite.

7. TEACHING AS A RELATIONSHIP

7.1 Identity through social discourse

We examined the emerging identities of Chinese teachers of English, who came from Inner Mongolia, Chengdu, Beijing and Shijiazhuang. The trust and familiarity between foreign American teachers and all students/teachers from China grew and self-identity continued to evolve.

Because the paper examines the positionality of relational teaching and the attendant effects on changing constituents' position of self and Other, it is noted the participants' mutative development of identity became more viable and productive, as constituted through communal interactional contexts and continued linguistic interaction that

'The further we progressed through each session, the more we experienced a group dynamic that suggested the intercommunal construction of identity'

enabled learning. The consequent positionality was responsive to the varied communities' traditions and values from which they had come.

Relational teaching is the interactional engagement of the self to and with the Other based on varied contextual layers of dispositionality. Unlike Brofenbrenner's (1986) layered 'bogs of alienation', these intentional and yet overlapping contexts were layers of regional, racial, social strata, and cultural experiences. Bucholtz and Hall (2005) noted, although identity held a secondary focus of our work what naturally emerged was identity as a result of the relational positioning of self with the Other. As such, the social cultural paradigm offered a rich framework upon which to build identity and interactive teaching for it examines the nexus of socio-emotional thought, tradition, artefact and linguacultural discourse, and their complex analytical interplay. We use a multidisciplinary as well as an interactive lens.

'The things inspired me most was the way you

teach, the way you think and the way you do for me. I am the actor in my class. I did most of the job while the students just listening, taking notes and doing exercises by themselves. We are lacking in communication. There are less chances for the students to show themselves. Students learn best when they are involved in' (sic) (July 23, 2016).

'The work is intense but rewarding. The people are unlike anything you can imagine: friendly, hospitable, appreciative. Participants have the opportunity to make a real difference' (July 23, 2016).

The further we progressed through each session, the more we experienced a group dynamic that suggested the intercommunal construction of identity. Bucholtz and Hall (2005) suggest five principles of note in the emergence of the individual and more dynamically collective identity with regard to language immersion and production.

This paper has adapted those principles specifically to help interpret these intensive multiple, two-week sessions for Chinese teachers of English.

7.2 Dialogic trust building

Language is developed collectively in relationship with others rather than solely within the developing mind. The anthropological view of the

dialogic rather than single-development theory adapted from Hymes (1975) was expanded by Bauman and Biggs (1990). As seen in our research, language developed particularly in interaction with native speakers and secondarily with colleagues. Those who did not feel confident enough to speak in a foreign tongue, were voluntarily sharing in English by the end of each two-week intensive session based on relationships.

'The Michigan teachers are so friendly that I'm not afraid to talk to you. Now I think I'm more outgoing' (July 22, 2016).

'We not only learn the teaching method. We were also affected by your enthusiasm of teaching' (July 6, 2015).

'Looking back over the last eight days, the most valuable to me is the friendship from American friends and teaching methods I have learned' (July 24, 2016).

'I value the friendship between teachers and students, between classmates and I enjoy the happy time' (July 24, 2016).

'The unity and exciting way of teaching is the most valuable for me. The whole class and the family are full of happiness and warmth' (July 22, 2016).

'I love the teaching style and the good

relationship' (July 23, 2016).

'Your spirit of devotion encourages me. In the future, I will try my best to teach my students and I'll help my students to be a better person (sic)' (July 6, 2015).

The emphasis was on Total Immersion in English, which required workshop participants to speak in English at all times. Although the teaching mentors did not correct them or demand proper sentence structure, the emphasis was on interactive experiences using the language.

Therefore, an important point not to be lost was the building of trust in themselves and in us and support for the Chinese teachers' usage of language. In sociocultural linguistics, particularly in the ethnomethodological perspective, the concept of 'acting out' or active social engagement is an interactionally dynamic construct that is born of intentionality and engagement (Fenstermaker & West, 2002; Garfinkel, 1967).

7.3 Dispositional shifting

The levelled degree of socio-cultural linguistics appeared to be mutating as the participants engaged in a daily variety of experiences, as well. And 4% of all respondents similarly noted:

'Although my English is poor, I believe where there

is a will there is a way' (July 24, 2016).

'If I am brave enough I will have more chance to take part in more activities to improve myself' (July 24, 2016).

'Now I think opening my mouth is very important. I can make my students learn more by this' (July 24, 2016).

'I came to the PD thinking, I hardly ever communicate with foreigners. I'm worried that I would not understand the teacher, I'm afraid to answer. Now I think I really like the American teachers' (July 21, 2016).

The emphasis on Total Immersion English required them to speak in English at all times. Those who initially sat in the back of the room, through active, student-centred engagement not only literally moved to the front, but began to express positionality of linguistic confidence through voluntary role engagement with colleagues.

They commented on the newly-found confidence in community and in themselves:

'I made many new friends who are friendly and helpful to me They gave me confidence and help which I will use and never forget' (July 21, 2016).

'What has inspired me most is group work. The

‘Recognising that when varied languages and cultures engage in experiences, economic and political dispositional power may either arise as a barrier to trust and engagement or become a bridge to thoughtful activity’

teammates work together and show the work proudly’ (July 21, 2016).

‘I came to this workshop thinking I would be afraid of speaking in front of our foreign teachers. I was afraid to make myself understood, but now I think I should change my idea’ (July 23, 2016).

‘Confidence is the first important. If you teach your students well. (sic) We ourselves must improve step by step’ (July 25, 2016).

‘I’m scared to speak with teachers although I know they are friendly. So I think I’ll care about those who don’t talk with. That doesn’t mean they don’t like me. Maybe they need more help’ (July 23, 2016).

‘...being an English teacher in China is different from the teacher in America. Maybe I should open my mind, learn more and practice more to improve myself’ (July 23, 2016).

‘I came to this thinking my English is poor, my students are naughty, there is something wrong with my teaching, but I can’t figure it out. Now I think I get something from here, something good and important’ (July 22, 2016).

And finally, 14 respondents indicated, ‘Teachers are leaders and the future. This inspires me most. I never think that I’m that important and powerful’ (July 23, 2016).

‘I know what I am to be in the future. I know I am the leader of my students I know I must get the students involved, so they can have interests or confidence in themselves and also in life’ (July 23, 2016).

‘The words, ‘Teacher is the leader Teacher is the professionals’ inspired me on my teaching. I will change myself constantly to give my students what they want’ (July 19, 2016).

Although the teaching mentors did not correct their grammar or demand proper sentence structure, the emphasis was on interactive experiences, on using the language. Important is the personal building of trust in, respect for and support between mentors and Chinese teachers’ usage of language in many instances emergent, in others more proficient language usage. In some instances identities that emerge from spoken

dialects or other characteristics that may represent lower SES populations, were clearly more vulnerable.

'I'm shy to speak and oral communication and reading is difficult. Because I left school about eleven years old, I often have some work to do. So I don't have some free time to learn English I forgot' (July 24, 2016).

'I'm from countryside school (sic). It's difficult for my students to learn English well' (July 9, 2015).

Although this is not a cross-cultural comparison, intercultural roles were noted and tracked through the session. After two to three days of varied sessions and interactions with different American mentors, as well as having a 'homeroom' foreign teacher, the levels of linguistic confidence transcended the perceived binding SES stratifications that were in the beginning prohibitive.

Social linguistic development was noted by all mentor teachers as experiences inside and outside the formal classroom were shared.

Recognising that when varied languages and cultures engage in experiences, economic and political dispositional power may either arise as a barrier to trust and engagement or become a bridge to thoughtful activity.

7.4 Social positioning

Numbers one and two address the state of identity in ontological terms. The formation of identity through the indexical process of labels evaluates the epistemic orientation of continued talk, use of ideological systems of speech which are markers of social position markers of speech orientation.

Micro-level linguistic structure speech patterns are tied to social positioning in that they may be recognised as markers from a particular part of the country, the region, the area. In this case teachers could easily distinguish who was from Inner Mongolia, from Beijing, from the poor mountain areas around Shijiazhuang, and from the lesser or more affluent areas of Chouyang.

'They will know I came from the poor families who live in the mountains. My culture is very different from Beijing. We have little but we share everything!' (Day 1, July 6, 2017).

'I'm sorry. I come from vocational school. I'm poor in oral English so this afternoon, I can't understand all the teacher said I try my best' (Day 4, July 10, 2015).

There is a variety of linguistic markers, such as code choice, labelling, implications, inflection and tonal inflection, (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005, p. 598) which contribute to the construction of self-identity and self-identification and suggest the

most dynamic form of self-identity creation.

7.5 Interconnection and mutuality – the linguistic construction of identity

Identity is a relational construct not only with regard to self but also from teacher to student, a symbiotic relationship, from a teacher to his or her class and to communal relational identity. Just as a young person's developing sense of self is constructed against a collective and rather amorphous 'other', so too is the linguistic learner. Students are more likely to succeed as linguistic learners when they feel connected to the school, to the teacher, to classmates. Nearly half of all U.S. high school students think the adults in the school do not care about them or about their learning. Often this study's exit cards asked what could be done with the 'naughty' student. Young people misbehave when the work is too simple or boring, when it is too difficult and they don't know where to begin, when the home situation carries uncomfortable and troublesome exchanges into the classroom, or when they feel unconnected to the teacher or to the institution of school itself. Although there may be far fewer Chinese students who feel this, nonetheless, interconnection and mutuality turn a vulnerable learning situation into a successful accomplishment. Positive personal interactions between a student and a teacher, between an administrator and a student, or even between students will provoke learners to step out into the frontier of linguistic

thinking and acting (Blum, 2005). This is not devaluation of self, where identity becomes subjugated and seen as problematic (Bailey, 2000), but a challenge for skilled educators to know their students:

'As a teacher I must know my students, what do my students want to learn? What did the students learn from the lesson? I must communicate with my students' (July 9, 2015).

'We should encourage students to be themselves and be enthusiastic about life. We everybody have our own personality. It's so good to be different from others' (July 23, 2016).

'What has inspired me most about teaching is the students' thirst for knowledge and the teachers' sense of mission' (July 23, 2016).

'The students' warmth and their future inspired me most' (July 21, 2016).

'The responsibility for our students and enthusiasm of my students for knowledge have inspired me most. Everyone should do something for our country' (July 23, 2016).

'I learned that students are different. What inspired me most is that you think a lot for every different student. You always give students so much as

encouragement, let them have confidence in themselves' (July 23, 2016).

'We must open and free minds to solve problems in different ways' (July 17, 2016).

TPD (Teacher Professional Development) makes me realise, *'that as a teacher, we can do so many things to motivate our students Sometimes, if we are brave to get changed, we'll find that our students are so talented'* (July 23, 2016).

'that teachers help students to be better people' (July 24, 2016).

'that as a teacher I should be open-minded. We teachers not only teach our students to learn the knowledge in books, but also we should help them improve their all-around abilities' (July 21, 2015).

'I must remember the ideology that we should teach students alternatively and patiently and the methods to achieve it' (July 24, 2016).

'I am not only a teacher but also a partner. I should teach them through many active ways, so that my class will be fun' (July 24, 2016).

'I have learned from the foreign teachers' confidence and love to their students, influence me in the future (sic). I'll try my best to love my students, to influence them' (July 16, 2016).

Teachers must scaffold their students' linguistic success, negotiate the murky waters of doubt, not regardless of a student's given personal situation but knowing the situation and embracing the student. This is also not a process of denaturalisation wherein identity becomes subjugated and seen as problematic.

7.6 Partialness principle

Identity is more than one's own sense of self as linguistically expressed. Both identity construction and deconstruction draw from multiple, interrelated contexts. *'Because identity is inherently relational, it will always be partially produced through contextually situated and ideologically informed configuration of self and the Other'* (Bucholtz, 2003).

Linguistic researchers hold that instead of identity being static to nationality or in this case particular to the native or regional language, it is mutable, a changing and emerging experience through the process of linguistic integration (Rajagopalan, 2001). Accordingly, the unwillingness to communicate or unavailability of the means to do so creates insurmountable linguistic barriers that poses problems for some. This was a transformative process for both mentors and Chinese nationals. The classroom as community was intentionally created to provide the safety in which students could venture into what they felt to be the tenuous areas of second language

acquisition. This sense of community was created through a variety of communal and pedagogical strategies that were culturally responsive.

8. CONCLUSION

Identity is a relational construct that inevitably exists in a mutable state of perception as well as in linguistic, cultural, societal, biological and psychological realms. It is more than the single self

or a classroom collective or the expression of a nation's distinctive ideology. Beyond labels, epistemic orientations, or linguistic structures, identity is inherently unlike any other aspect of our being, self- or other-shaped. Through spoken and unheard linguistics, teachers help shape that part of us that is not seen but is obsequiously demonstrative, at once complexly invisible and creatively apparent.

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Linguistic and functional cognitive peculiarities of media language as the basis of interpretations in the communicative sphere

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The study deals with linguistic and functional cognitive aspects of language use in the media with a focus on typical actualisation of linguistic units in continental European business and political press which contain borrowings from the English language alongside original words and collocations, vividly shown by the examples taken from French sources. In the course of communication, the problem of transferring and understanding information arises, thus involving pragmatic and functional cognitive aspects of research. This raises the problem of notions and concepts, particularly in differentiating between strict logical mental structures and formations possessing both logical and sub-logical bases that deal with emotional and evaluative characteristics subject to various interpretations, which is vividly shown in the analysis of the English examples.

KEYWORDS: media language, interpretation, neologisation, borrowing, business press, political press, concept, notion, context, multiculturalism

1. INTRODUCTION

The speed of modern social, scientific and technical evolution has had an inevitable impact on the processes occurring in the language system. Modern mass media, which texts constitute empirical material for the study, are becoming a reflection of new trends. The language of the media has been studied by many scholars from the perspective of sociolinguistics, pragmatics, functional stylistics, and discursive analysis with the recent emergence of the cognitive approach. However, with all the variety of research

perspectives, a range of issues related to the development of language in modern media has still not been fully studied. The study considers linguistic, functional and cognitive aspects of the media language drawing on examples of French and English media discourse.

Language of the media refers to: (1) the entire body of texts produced and disseminated by the media; (2) a stable intra-linguistic system bearing a certain set of linguistic properties and attributes; (3) a special sign system of a mixed type with a

certain ratio of verbal and audio-visual components specific for each particular media: print, radio, television, and the Internet (Johnson & Milani, 2010).

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

As global news pertaining to the realm of economics, business and business communication affects all, it is the business vocabulary that represents the greatest area of interest. Saturation in the information field of human activity promotes the popularisation of business vocabulary, which is becoming more accessible to the public at large. A significant role in the penetration of business vocabulary into the language of everyday communication is played by the media.

The materials used in the present study comprise articles from the most authoritative business newspapers and magazines in French (daily editions of *Les Echos*, *La Tribune*, *Le Figaro Economie* and *Le Monde*, weekly periodicals such as *Challenge*, *Stratégies* and *Le Nouvel Economiste*) and English (*The Economist*, *The Times*, *The Guardian*, *The Independent*, *The Daily Telegraph*, *Standpoint* and in broadcast media, *BBC News*).

3. STUDY AND RESULTS

3.1 French media language and its English flavour

The language and style of French business press

‘Business periodicals are first of all addressed to professionals and require a certain level of knowledge and awareness on the part of the readers’

reflect a tendency towards a more formal and laconic expression of thoughts, the rejection of subjectivity and excessive expression. These principles are manifested, in particular, in the almost unacceptable use of 1st person singular pronoun by the author and in the need to separate his or her own opinion from the opinion of experts. Complex epithets, metaphors and comparisons are not welcome either.

Striving for a more concise exposition can also be explained by the active use of complex words, including abbreviations in the texts of French business articles. For example:

Dieselgate: la BEI sollicite la justice française.

Dieselgate: The European Investment Bank solicits the support of French justice (*Le Figaro*, March 24, 2017).

Comment le fisc et la Sécu vont taxer les revenus de l'économie collaborative. How the Tax office and Social Security are going to tax the income of the collaborative economic community (*Le Figaro*, February 3, 2017).

‘In recent years, the French business press has increasingly been deploying English borrowings in the form of abbreviations’

Unédic: le patronat fait des ouvertures. The National Union for Employment in Industry: The bosses make overtures (Les Echos, March 24, 2017).

A large lexical layer in business periodicals consists of terms and professional expressions taken from the language of general economics, business, finance, politics and advertising. French business periodicals are no exception. Business periodicals are first of all addressed to professionals and require a certain level of knowledge and awareness on the part of the readers. However, excessive use of special vocabulary is undesirable, for otherwise the text of the article becomes cumbersome and difficult to understand. French business journals quite often contain terminology that is accessible not only to the specialists in this field, but also to readers who lack the appropriate vocational training.

One of the trends is the use of borrowed vocabulary. A significant part of the borrowings are terms and concepts related to the spheres of the economy, management, marketing, and

advertising. These borrowings are usually of English origin: *le business*, *le meeting*, *le sourcing*, *le feedback*, *l'output*, *le workshop*, *le stock*, *customer-friendly*, etc. Some borrowings formed derivative adjectives, nouns, verbs with French affixes, as in *mailer*, *googler*, *drafter*, *le stockage*, *le packaging*, etc.

In recent years, the French business press has increasingly been deploying English borrowings in the form of abbreviations. For example: *le MoU* ('memorandum of understanding'), *une CP* ('condition precedent'), *le MoM* ('minutes of meeting'), etc.

English vocabulary and symbols are often used in the names of headings. For example, in the business newspaper *Les Echos* there are headings such as, '*Start-Up*' (on new business projects), and '*Business*' (on the development of business and trade enterprises). *La Tribune* features headings such as '*Entreprises & Finance*', '*Trackers*', '*Hi-tech*'; *Le Nouvel Economiste* – '*Innovation & Stratégie*', '*Finance & Juridique*', '*Marketing & Technologie*', '*Management & RH*'.

There are many examples of the use of English language vocabulary in the headlines of newspaper materials. For example:

La compagnie présente aujourd'hui sa stratégie de base en province, inspirée des méthodes du low-

cost. The company is presenting today its basic provincial strategy inspired by low-cost methods (*Le Figaro Economie*, July 11, 2015).

Karen Aiach, du consulting à la thérapie génétique. Karen Aiach, of consulting according to genetic therapy (*Le Figaro Economie*, February 15, 2017).

StartUp Sum'up 12: l'actu de la semaine des start-up de la FrenchTech. Start-up, Sum Up 12: The news of the week on French technology start-ups (*Les Echos*, March 26, 2016).

Today, the verb 'booster' (derived from the English 'to boost' meaning 'to stimulate', 'promote growth') has firmly established itself in the business French press. For example:

Des clients contents boostent la performance financière. Satisfied clients boost financial performance (*Les Echos*, March 20, 2017).

Booster l'entrepreneuriat féminin: un levier de croissance pour la France. Female entrepreneurs; a lever of growth for the French economy (*Le Monde*, March 8, 2012).

In 1972, the first terminology commission (Commission de terminologie) was founded under the Ministry of Economy and Finance of France. According to the resolutions of this commission, more than 250 terms recommended for use in

official documents would boot out numerous Anglo-American borrowings from the language of business communication (Soubrier, 1998). Getting the attention of the press, various public and private bodies, as well as the efforts of terminologists have made an undeniable contribution to the enrichment of the French language. So, to date such words as *détaillant*, *espèces*, *libre échange*, *billet de banque* have steadily become entrenched in the French language instead of *retailer*, *cash*, *free trade*, *banknote* and *en ligne* instead of *online*.

Later, the General Terminology and Neologisms Commission (*Commission générale de terminologie et de néologie*) was established on July 3, 1996 by Government Decree No. 96-602. The Commission reports directly to the Prime Minister and has become the main body for the normalisation of terminology in France. In close cooperation with the French Academy of Sciences, this commission is considering proposals for the development and standardisation of terms introduced by the specialised commissions on terminology and neologisms created under various ministries. In addition, the General Delegation to the French and other Languages supervised by the French Ministry of Culture has been operating since 1997 in various special fields of activity. Within the framework of this organisation, the APFA Association (*Actions pour promouvoir le français des affaires*), established in 1984, is also

‘The emergence of newly coined words – as, in the majority of neologisms – is predetermined by extralinguistic factors, but newly coined words reveal intra-system processes occurring in the language’

working to develop and disseminate the French language and Francophonie. The Association does a great job collecting material, systematising and recording terminological units. The activities of the French Association for Standardisation (*Association Française de Normalization*) established in 1926 should also be noted. As a national body, the Association is engaged in the development of national standards of France, including standards in the field of the language of business communication.

Nevertheless, English terms still actively penetrate the French business language, including the language of the French business press. Thus, French neologisms *mercatique*, *challenge*, *marchandisage*, *tenante*, *marchéage* are much less common in the pages of the French business press than their English counterparts *marketing*, *challenge*, *merchandising*, *holding* and, *mix* (marketing mix).

In fact, calques (loan words in translation) from

English do not cause big problems for non-specialists, since these words are easy to find in the text, and their meanings can be easily found in a dictionary or on the Internet. Moreover, such terms usually enter the language along with a designated phenomenon, which – at least at the initial stage – has the same characteristics as the one in the culture they are borrowed from. Thus, Soubrier (1998) states that each borrowed term is always used in its connotative meaning. For example, the term ‘manager’ is relatively neutral in English and can mean both the director of an enterprise and the manager of a service station. Naturally, such attributes as modernity, efficiency, or youth are implied only if the term is perceived as borrowed, for example, in a job application (*qualités de manager*). French spelling *manager* deprives the term of these connotations and reduces it to the level of *responsables*, *directeurs* et autres *chefs de service* (*officials, directors and heads of departments*). In most cases, according to Soubrier, the connotation significance of Anglicism is the only sign of its vitality. And this happens in cases when Anglicism doesn’t denote English reality, but designates a purely French concept, for which the French language has its own designation: discount (*rabais*), sales (*ventes*), process (*procédé*).

The most interesting aspect of the language of the modern French business press is the tendency towards neologisation. The emergence of newly

‘The lexical-semantic analysis of coin words allows us to conclude that the most productive mechanisms of morphological neology in the language of the business French press are prefixation, suffixation, and composition’

coined words – as, in the majority of neologisms – is predetermined by extralinguistic factors, but newly coined words reveal intrasystem processes occurring in the language. This group of neologisms presents the greatest difficulty, because often their definitions cannot be found in the dictionary, they can only be derived from the context.

The basic methods of word formation in French include the affix method, that is, incorporation of a prefix and/or suffix to the stem, and the stem can be either borrowed from the native language or another, while the affixes in the overwhelming majority of cases belong to the language of neologisation (Depecker, 2002).

Comparing the conclusions of linguists regarding the effectiveness of certain affixes, some of them are used constantly, while the popularity of others is determined by extralinguistic factors (Armstrong, 2005; Giraudo & Grainger, 2003; De Cat, 2007).

Thus, the French historical prefixes, which retain their productivity nowadays, include: **re-** (*réinsération* – *re-insertion*), **sur-** (*surperformer* – *above average performer*), **hyper-** (*hypervisibilité* – *hypervisibility*), **pré-** (*préprogrammation* – *preset time*) and **dé-** (*défiscaliser* – *untax*).

As reflected in the analysis of empirical material, in recent years the following prefixes have emerged and become very common in the business environment:

bio-, éco-, agri- reflect people’s commitment to lead a healthy lifestyle and care for the environment (*bioénergie* – *bioenergetic*, *bioaccumulation* – *bioaccumulation* and *écobilan* – *ecological balance sheet*).

cyber-, e-, nano- have been widely used in French in connection with the spread of the Internet, communications and ICT (Information and Communications technologies in (*cybermodèle* – *cybermodel*, *cyberconsommateur* – *cyber consumer*, *e-commerce* – *e-commerce*, *nanotechnologies* – *nanotechnology*).

euro- is used for the nomination and description of phenomena, concepts and attitudes associated with the European Union (*eurobanque* – *Eurobank* – *europhobia*, *europhobie*).

sur- reflect the meaning of ‘excess of norm’,

'excessiveness (surplus)' (*surplacer* – mark time, *surestimer* – overestimate, *surchoix*-top quality).

The most productive suffixes in the language of the French business press are the following:

-isme describes a phenomenon, a movement typical for someone's behaviour (*mercantilisme* – mercantilism, *monétarisme* – monetarism, *misérabilisme* – pessimism).

-iste denotes an adherent of a political movement or a person with certain views (*obamiste* – follower of former US President Obama's policies, *syndicaliste* – relating to trade unions).

-able, -ible is used to form verbal adjectives with the meaning of possibility of accomplishing an action (*contribuable* – contributable, *rentable* – profitable, *traçable* – traceable, *credibile* – credible).

-tion is a suffix through which verbals are formed with the meaning of action (*syndicalisation* – trade unionism, *externalisation* – outsourcing).

-phobe indicating irritation or fear something (phobia) (*macronphobe* – a person who fears or hates Emmanuel Macron, President of France and/or his policies).

In French, the prefix-suffix method is also used, for

example, to join prefixes *dé-* and *-iser* to the *-isation* stem: *débruxelliser* (take out of the control of Brussels, that is, the EU); *décentralisation* (decentralisation empowering local authorities with independent management of local affairs); *déresponsabilisation* (deflect responsibility).

Other productive ways of word formation are composition and telescoping. The difference between them is that telescoping is actually a language game, and new words are formed according to different principles from different parts of words, not necessarily from roots or stems. Here are some examples of composition and telescoping: *commisaire-priseur* (m) (Engl. 'auctioneer'); *après-vente* = *après* + *vente* (Engl. 'after-sales'); *plus-value* (engl. 'capital gains'); *publipostage* (m) = *publi(cité)* + *postage* (Engl. 'mailshot'; 'bulk mailing').

Thus, the peculiarities of the development of the French language, which has great opportunities for enriching and changing the composition of its vocabulary, lie in the tendency to use internal linguistic resources for reinterpreting lexemes and adapting to the rapidly changing conditions of life.

Neologisms are extremely effective in terms of replenishing the vocabulary. The lexical-semantic analysis of coin words allows us to conclude that the most productive mechanisms of morphological neology in the language of the business French

‘Previous investigations made it clear that conceptual formations possess different conventional status in terms of echoing reality’

press are prefixation, suffixation, and composition.

Moreover, in recent years there has been a clear trend towards a wider use of stylistically and emotionally marked lexical-phraseological units. It can be exemplified by the following phraseological units found in the articles on business topics:

Avoir du pain sur la planche (avoir une quantité importante de tâches à remplir pour effectuer le travail; to have one's hands full).

Avoir un poil dans la main (se dit d'un collaborateur qui ne fournit pas une quantité de travail satisfaisante; be lazy at work, workshy).

Gagnant-gagnant (se dit d'un accord dans lequel les deux parties trouvent leur avantage; win-win, mutual benefit).

Mettre le turbo (accélérer le rythme du travail; work faster).

Sortir de ses gonds (sortir hors de soi-même

pendant le travail, sous l'effet de la colère; losing your temper at work).

The language of the modern business press in France is characterised by a high degree of imagery. On the pages of French business newspapers and magazines, one can come across various examples of metaphorical expressions, such as:

Banques en exil: comment les grandes banques européennes profitent des paradis fiscaux. Banks in exile: how the big European banks profit from tax havens (La Tribune, March 27, 2017).

‘Paradis fiscal’ – the ‘tax haven’, a country that provides tax benefits to foreigners.

Présidentielle 2017: Fillon continue de perdre du terrain (‘perdre du terrain’ – to lose ground, retreat, fail). In this example reference is made to the falling rating of one of the favourites of the pre-election race in France, François Fillon, who was at the centre of a political and financial scandal.

Thus, it is evident that the language of modern French business periodicals is characterised by the use of both neutral informative and stylistically coloured words. In the context of fierce competition with other types of media, the modern French business press is actively deploying various language techniques. Thus, metaphorical

expressions are one of the distinguishing features of the material studied.

3.2 Language of English media in terms of conceptual analysis

The language of the media is of utmost interest in terms of conceptual analysis as well, due to the interdisciplinary character of the new paradigm of scientific knowledge. In the course of the presentation of European languages in the scope of the media analysis, one comes to the conclusion that the process of realisation of verbal structures and their linguistic interpretations is to a great extent determined by such characteristics as the purport of the utterance and the ability of the reader to decipher (decode) the message adequately. This problem arises while taking into consideration both the knowledge of the language, its semantic and structural peculiarities, and the knowledge of its cultural and conceptual basis. In other words, this refers to the problems of verbal representation of concepts in a particular discourse.

3.3 Concept vs notion

Things tend to be further complicated when one makes an attempt to distinguish between 'concepts' and 'notions' which represent both philosophical and linguistic categories in the scope of human knowledge. Significant difficulties may also arise in connection with the terminological aspect of this issue, primarily due

to a rather extensive number of variable definitions suggested by researchers to interpret these phenomena. The terminological situation with 'concepts' has been described by linguists dealing with linguistic and conceptual studies, suggesting that while this term finds various interpretations with different scholars, in its general functional meaning it is easily acceptable as a certain kind of an 'umbrella term' simultaneously covering the boundary subject domains of cognitive linguistics, linguistic psychology, as well as cultural studies in linguistics.

The question of the concept vs notion differentiation has been discussed extensively. It is a well-established fact that in the traditional philosophical sense concepts and notions proceed from generalisation of the basic features of a phenomenon or object of reality, and therefore they come into being as abstract entities (Kramer & de Smit, 2013).

Previous investigations made it clear that conceptual formations possess different conventional status in terms of echoing reality. Hence the need to differentiate between concepts and notions as multidimensional structures of human consciousness, since concepts, unlike notions, do not fit into rigid formal-logical schemes. The content structure of a naive notion in the proper sense of the word is constant and can be defined (on the level of language) as the sum of

‘Dealing with concepts in the proper sense of the word, one should bear in mind that a concept usually possesses an open semantic sphere, easily penetrable by the whole conglomerate of associations, including expressive, evaluative, and emotional meanings

linguistically relevant characteristics capable of differentiating names and classes of phenomena behind those names.

Speaking about concepts proper, one should bear in mind that a concept is a structure premised on both logical and sub-logical grounds. Its content is not limited to the notion that it includes, but covers the whole range of content characteristics that represent, among other things, its associative sphere. The qualities of permeability and openness manifested in a concept are determined by the permeability and openness of its associative field that reflects the peculiarities of the unlimited process of cognition. For that matter, there is a thesis suggesting that concepts are not attached to any specific material form, but rather hover over material forms. Unlike notions, concepts do not exist in the form of thought only, concepts are ‘experienced’. They possess emotions, evaluations,

and expressivity (Shapiro, 2014).

As has been shown in a number of studies (Laurence & Margolis, 1999; Carey, 2009), the boundary between the notion and the concept which stands behind it is extremely fragile and mobile. One of the crucial issues is the decisive role of the linguistic representation of the conceptual meaning in question. The thing is that not only the adequate choice of a linguistic form and meaning but the context of situation, both linguistic and extralinguistic, should be taken into consideration as well. Basically, the real speech functioning process should be regarded as a reliable criterion that helps establish a certain cognitive status of the mental lingual structure under analysis as the analysis of a basic mental and linguistic unit suggested in this paper will demonstrate.

3.4 Multiculturalism as one of the basic concepts in the English media

This section considers verbal representation of the content structure of ‘multiculturalism’, which is a political and cultural concept reflecting one of the most important and complicated phenomena of modern social organisation. The term is defined in various ways.

1. Multiculturalism is the belief that it is important and good to integrate people or ideas from many different countries, races, or religions (Shohat &

Stam, 2014).

2. Multiculturalism is a situation in which all the different cultural or racial groups in a society have equal rights and opportunities, and none is ignored or considered unimportant (May & Sleeter, 2010).

3. As a philosophy, multiculturalism began as part of the pragmatism of the movement in the nineteenth century in Europe and the United States, then as political and cultural pluralism at the turn of the twentieth (Caputi et al., 2006).

4. Multiculturalism, or cultural pluralism, is a term describing the coexistence of many cultures in a locality, without any one culture dominating the region. By making the broadest range of human differences acceptable to the largest number of people, multiculturalism seeks to overcome racism, sexism, and other forms of discrimination (Haste & Abrahams, 2008).

As a linguistic unit, 'multiculturalism' can be viewed as a kind of terminological unit which is used to determine the relevant key concept functioning in the proper contexts and conveying objective information. Nevertheless, it may possess evaluative connotations as in Haste and Abrahams's (2008) definition above where it definitely possesses positive connotations of adherent character, which is also due to its

contextual association with the phrase 'to overcome racism, sexism... discrimination', including the negatively coloured (from the point of view of social, ethical and moral values) 'racism, sexism, and other forms of discrimination' opposed to the positive evaluation of the concept represented by the linguistic unit 'multiculturalism', which involves transformations in its semantic interpretation due to the emerging evaluative connotations. This means that the content sphere of the 'pure', logically verified notion of 'multiculturalism' acquires expressive evaluative meanings and tends to be characterised in terms of the concept proper.

This point can be illustrated with examples showing the interpretational abilities of the concept in question.

1. *'Tony Blair, in language Winston Churchill would have enjoyed, has now made it clear that multiculturalism is not what we thought it was.... He declared that tolerance was a must. 'Conform to it,' he said, 'or don't come here' (Walden, 2006).*

2. *'So many hurdles: gender, race, class, height, accent. These things shouldn't matter but this Labour government is obsessed with multiculturalism, diversity, equality and difference. It has made an industry monitoring every part of our lives. I hate those snide questions about my*

‘A concept may be represented by a number of linguistic meanings, very close to each other in terms of their semantic functions’

ethnicity’ (Morrison, 2009).

Dealing with concepts in the proper sense of the word, one should bear in mind that a concept usually possesses an open semantic sphere, easily penetrable by the whole conglomerate of associations, including expressive, evaluative, and emotional meanings. An associative sphere of a concept comprises other concepts which may to a great extent differ from each other in their form of linguistic representation and semantic structure. A concept may be represented by a number of linguistic meanings, very close to each other in terms of their semantic functions. For example, the concept of multiculturalism includes meanings represented by the linguistic unit ‘immigration’:

‘Immigration in the UK increased greatly after World War II. During the 1950s, the country was still rebuilding its economy after the war. It needed workers for the factories, and for the hospitals of the New National Health Service. Immigrants were encouraged to come to Britain to take up these jobs. ... At first, they were considered to be different and not welcomed. In the 1970s, a law

was passed that was made to the black people differently from anyone else. Now, 50 years later, the children and grandchildren of the earlier immigrants are well-established members of British society’ (LDELC, 2005, p. A14).

The unit ‘immigrant’ bears neutral stylistic and emotional properties and in a number of cases can be considered to be a terminological unit of a narrow social sphere, presented in the context of sociocultural content in the meaning of *‘someone coming into a country from abroad to make their home there’* (LDELC, 2005, p. A14).

At the same time, in some contexts the unit ‘immigrants’ is accompanied by a number of negatively coloured words and phrases that directly affect the tenor of discourse and can be characterised by a certain ambiguity of presentation due to the expressive evaluative connotations. For example, in the course of dictionary entries analysis concerning the problem of concepts characterised by their extensive representation in the media, we sometimes find that lexicographic sources containing explanations and commentaries comprise various interpretations referring to some policies or ideologies as well as some ethical and religious issues:

‘The UK has received large numbers of immigrants. Some were refugees, especially before and during

World War II. In the 1950s and 1960s, many people went to the UK from the Commonwealth, especially from the Caribbean, India, and Pakistan. In the 1970s, a number of people from the United States were allowed to live in the UK. Today there are strict rules for people from the United States and the UK. It is very difficult for someone to live in either country permanently unless one of their parents is from there, they are married to a US or UK citizen or they have a large amount of money with them. Asylum seekers are allowed to live in the UK and the US until it is safe for them to return to their own country, and some are given permission to live in the UK or the US permanently' (LDELC, 2005, p. 697).

The above passage introduces information essential for immigrants coming to the UK ('unless one of their parents is from there', 'they are married to a US citizen', 'a large amount of money with them'). It is repeatedly emphasised that the immigration process itself, which depends primarily on the British authorities, is rather complex: 'were allowed to live in the UK', 'strict rule', 'prevent people from going to live in the USA and the UK', 'very difficult for someone to live in the United States and the UK', etc., which include lexical units with a regulative component of meaning ('allowed', 'rules', 'strict', 'permission', 'prevention').

Thus, the source of information that contains

positively coloured evaluative components of multiculturalism as a special national policy at the same time represents controversial ideas demonstrating that the *notion* of multiculturalism being represented in actual speech by the linguistic meanings in question has acquired a number of peculiarities that enable its transference into the sphere of *concepts* due to its evaluative and emotional loading achieved by its linguistic representational peculiarities. The following examples illustrate the point:

'Have you forgotten, Mr. Todd, the large numbers of European immigrants who have settled in Britain? They did not get a very warm welcome out of all of you, I cannot tell you! In fact, I would not like to repeat some of them! But now they and their children – and grandchildren – are just like any other British citizen.

'I think there will be a long period of difficulty, misunderstanding, and even bitterness where there are ghettos. But yes, on the whole, I am hopeful. As Mrs. Dawkins said, other foreign immigrants have been integrated – in the end. It may take longer with us because our colour is a continual reminder. Then, with Pakistanis and Indians, there are the problems of religion, dress and eating habits.'

'Foreigners have settled in Britain since the beginning of the century. The number of

immigrants was controlled, except for Commonwealth citizens, who, until 1962, were allowed to enter freely' (Musman, 1996, p. 45-51).

The word 'immigrants' has the following contextual synonyms: 'foreigners', 'large racial groups', 'people who live in separate communities', 'foreign immigrants', 'different', etc., thus creating a sad, negative tenor of discourse, at the expense of their emotional-evaluative connotations.

Basically, multiculturalism as a term is hard to explain from the point of view of its use in different contexts due to different interpretations of the concept of multiculturalism itself by the representatives of various social political movements. Therefore, the writers or speakers use various techniques to explain it in terms of the semantic and pragmatic potential of the language to demonstrate to their target audience what is meant by this or that linguistic unit representing the concept of multiculturalism within certain contexts and political views. For example:

'But is multiculturalism really a counter-racist, inclusive ideal? On the contrary, it seems to me, the so-called British model of multiculturalism is quite profoundly racist in a rather subtle way, which in turn reveals what British Anglophobia and British Islamophobia have in common' ('Racist' English nationalism, 2010).

'Although many English borrowings are used in French media texts, one comes across new linguistic units presented in the language of modern press, first and foremost due to extralinguistic factors that influence their use in appropriate contexts'

Thus, in the statement above, British multiculturalism is characterised as a concept based on the policy of cultural pluralism. The author deploys phrases bearing negative connotations like *'the so-called British model of multiculturalism'* (in which the lexical unit 'so-called' determines the speaker's attitude towards the content of the statement), *'profoundly racist'* (where the unit 'profoundly' functions as an intensifier referring to the adjective 'racist', which is characterised by a high frequency of use in contexts with 'multiculturalism'). The most vivid example of the linguistic semiotic choice of the author is the parallel construction with the negatively coloured linguistic units comprising the -phobia element, *'What British Anglophobia and British Islamophobia have in common.'*

4. CONCLUSION

The language of the modern European business

and political press is characterised by a specific way of presenting information by means of a particular repertoire of linguistic units organised in a particular order. Although many English borrowings are used in French media texts, one comes across new linguistic units presented in the language of modern press, first and foremost due to extralinguistic factors that influence their use in appropriate contexts.

As the study shows, the texts of the modern business and political press are marked by an expressive component realised by means of linguistic representations that are emotional-evaluative in nature. For example, the conceptual sphere of 'multiculturalism' is characterised by a high representational ability to express evaluative meanings associated with the semantic

peculiarities of the concept, which manifests itself as a political and social notion causing ambiguous interpretations and assessments and thus acquiring the whole range of associative characteristics and new conceptual meanings. In this case, the logical strictness of the notion is being damaged and due to its content boundary's mobility a number of associative and evaluative meanings come into being. This process is not determined by the extralinguistic situation, which is one of the most powerful factors affecting media discourse.

To conclude, the language of the media may serve as a valuable source of examples in the field of linguistic and functional cognitive analysis as well as traditionally accepted linguistic disquisitions based on the content and structural analyses of various linguistic levels presentation.

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Review

Modern English Grammar: Morphology and Syntax

by Olga V. Alexandrova and Tatiana A. Komova

Moscow: Academy 2013

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It is not an easy job to write a new course-book on theoretical grammar entitled '*Modern English Grammar: Morphology and Syntax*'. This course-book addresses a topical issue, as it requires the authors not only to have the highest level of scientific competence, but also creativity and an innovative approach to the presentation of educational material.

The specific feature of the course-book by Olga V. Aleksandrova and Tatiana A. Komova, which distinguishes it from any other course-book on a similar subject, is its form and principles of educational material presentation. In the preface, the authors write that it is addressed to foreign students of English, not to native speakers, and that it is important for teachers to overcome the biased attitude of their students to theoretical grammar as super complex. The content of the course-book is well organised, with the material well matched to

the topics, with the methodological and general linguistic aspects of English morphology and syntax developed coherently. The authors have adopted a training model that can be used to teach the appropriate skills and competences with results conducive to practical results that will achieve productive theoretical applications. In doing so, the authors quote reliable sources, use well-defined scientific language, and deploy domain-specific terminology. The sections of the course-book '*Modern English Grammar: Morphology and Syntax*' are logically interrelated; research evidence is present in sufficient volume and is confirmed by quotes and references to scientific publications.

The course-book is clearly the fruit of long, hard work by the scholars and lecturers who have researched it and it is topical both in content, in form, and in its pedagogical concept. The editors

have accumulated a vast amount of information in the field of the theoretical grammar of the English language and provided teachers with the opportunity to select from the abundance of topics on offer, corresponding to the level of linguistic competence and interests of the students. This way, learners receive exceptionally engaging and useful information.

The course-book can be of great help for lecturers, especially beginners, in their preparation for lectures and seminars on theoretical grammar. The course-book is suitable for both the transition to the two-tier system of higher education in Russia and for training young scholars.

The target reader of this course-book is not a passive recipient gaining a certain body of knowledge but an intelligent, inquisitive, and active learner for whom this work should become a guide not only in mastering the educational material on theoretical grammar, but also in their further research.

The authors also demonstrate to the students the logic of scientific analysis, the path the researcher is following – from problem statement to its solution. Working with the course-book, the students can master the conceptual and terminological apparatus of theoretical grammar, become aware of modern methods of linguistic research, compare different scientific concepts and

define their explanatory power, learn to compress information, formulate conclusions and independently express their opinion on the grammatical phenomena under study, choose a particular research methodology to analyse theoretical and empirical material and illustrate various propositions of particular linguistic material.

Undoubtedly, the advantage of this course-book is that it offers a model for dynamic, active development of English theoretical grammar and the application of the acquired knowledge to practice.

The course-book is aimed at different levels of theoretical background of students in higher education institutions studying philology and contains the systematised description of every grammar phenomenon of the English language, while its differentiated approach provides the implementation of such principles in education as continuity and succession. Along with students of linguistics, it can also be useful for students majoring in political sciences, art and humanities taking English as the main subject.

This course-book consists of two parts: Part 1 on Morphology and Part 2 on Syntax and Discourse.

The description of the grammatical material in the course-book is preceded by a preface, in which

the authors specify the basic idea of the course-book – to connect the already existing facts about grammatical units with their use in authentic oral and written speech.

The course-book contains 14 thematic sections, which allow the students to see how separate words combine to form the phrases and sentences of which our chain of speech consists. It describes the range of key words relevant to a particular topic, the definitions of the basic concepts, and includes excerpts from the works of well-known researchers offered for comparison and discussion. It also offers examples of linguistic analysis of some grammatical phenomena. Attention is drawn to the wide study of the morphology and syntax phenomena studied in the course-book in close connection with text categories (coherence, referentiality, modality, etc.). The general list of topics include:

MORPHOLOGY:

1. Morphology, its definition and its place among other grammar issues
2. Categorisation in morphology
3. Parts-of-speech classification
4. Morphology and syntax

These sections help understand the nature and function of synthetic and analytical forms in English.

SYNTAX AND DISCOURSE:

1. The subject of syntax
2. The ultimate and the consummate units of speech
3. Minor syntax
4. Syntax and prosody
5. Syntax and punctuation
6. Simple sentence and its parts
7. Multiple sentences
8. Predication
9. Parenthesis
10. The pragmatic approach to the study of grammar

This section covers the peculiarities of English prosody and punctuation, which show the syntactic construction of speech as well as demonstrate the correlation between syntax and pragmatics, syntax and stylistics and other areas of linguistics.

The consistency of the material in the course-book is a decisive factor in understanding the specific features of English grammatical structure, increasing students' awareness of English sentence structure and enabling them to perform syntactic and discourse analysis.

The course-book is clearly organised. It is logically structured to include sections and subsections thus ensuring detailed presentation of materials, as, for

instance, in Chapter 6. *The Simple Sentence and its Parts*, which includes the following sections.

6.4 Syntactic diremes

6.4.1. Completive bond

6.4.2. Copulative syntactic bond

6.4.3. Predicative bond

6.4.4. Content plane

6.4.5. Prosody and punctuation

Drawing on this structural arrangement, the learner can easily track all the sections and subsections required, which is obviously one of the great merits of this course-book.

Another obvious advantage is that it consistently shows the multifaceted nature of grammatical phenomena, proves the admissibility and sound reasoning for the plurality of their interpretations.

The authors cite a wide range of linguistic literature in the field of theoretical grammar, which has recently appeared. This allows concentration on the extremely important pedagogical idea of traditions in the development of linguistics, the close connection between the classical interpretations of the phenomena under discussion and their latest interpretations in theoretical grammar.

'*Modern English Grammar: Morphology and Syntax*' can be used not only as a teaching guide

but also as a reference book on the subject. The structure and layout of the material involves a rigid learning progression.

The course-book can be used not only in class under the teacher's supervision, but also for self-study to consolidate and develop the knowledge and skills acquired earlier.

The choice of grammatical material is a strong recommendation for the professional community. It is generally difficult to choose from the wide range of grammatical material the issues that will help provide practical literacy in written and oral speech in the majority of communicative situations, but the authors have succeeded in this challenging task. The arrangement of material according to grammatical topics (as is usual in theoretical works and reference books) makes this course-book universal and is not only in the framework of a systematic study of English grammar, but also in working over individual, including rather narrow, issues in accordance with students' academic competence, the needs of specific groups of students and the goals of the training process.

The course-book is user friendly for the purpose of revision before examinations and concludes with a detailed alphabetical index.

Another strong point of the course-book is that it

includes examples, all centred on authentic lexical material. The use of this course-book in the group for preparing for a candidacy examination in English or in the process of independent preparation for entrance and candidate examinations, as well as for the revision of grammatical material and the acquisition of the skill of reading difficult authentic texts, will undoubtedly prove to be useful and effective.

In compiling the course-book, the authors took

into account the new requirements for the vocational training of philologists based on the implementation of modern pedagogical methods. It is a high-quality product, explaining some of the most difficult issues of English morphology and syntax in an exhaustive but clear way. Its precise targeting of the topics and exercises and its effective organisation make extremely engaging material to work with. The first edition has already been tested for several years at various Russian universities with good results.

Review

Why English? Confronting the Hydra

by Pauline Bunce, Robert Phillipson, Vaughan Rapatahana and
Ruanni Tupas (Eds.)

Multilingual Matters 2016

Reviewed by ⁽¹⁾Robert Williams

⁽¹⁾University of Westminster

The position of English as the language of globalisation, as the language of choice for international business and as the enabling tool for those who seek better employment and higher wages is considered common knowledge. At a time when the merits of globalisation are being questioned, this volume presents a wide-ranging and thought-provoking set of articles questioning the received wisdom of such widespread acceptance of the merits of English and reasons for choosing to embrace English in the first place. Describing the English language as a Hydra¹, the book continues the metaphor and explores various areas where the incursion of English is considered

to be at best problematic and at worst harmful. The editors set out the position of the book from the outset and those familiar with the writings of Phillipson et al will not be surprised to see that the book presents a view of the use to which English is put as being, if no longer colonial or imperialist, then at least neo-colonial.

Divided into four sections, the book first considers more general concepts of linguistic imperialism and colonialism, then moves to explode mythologies surrounding the benefits of learning English before looking at ways in which the dominance of English has been challenged and

¹ The Hydra is a creature from Greek mythology with many heads (the number varies according to which account you read). If you cut off one head two grow back in its place. The presence and use of English is therefore portrayed as unassailable and all devouring – if it is ‘vanquished’ in one area it will find ways to re-emerge in many others.

finally considering the challenges of living with English and another language. These themes are used to link a series of reports and anecdotes from all over the globe and perhaps what is most pleasing about the work is its accessibility, blending more traditionally academic articles with personalised accounts, letters and even poetry to provide a collage of styles and genres.

In essence the book deals with themes of language and power, language and identity and language pedagogy. The colonial legacy of English is seen as a vehicle for social stratification in many parts of the world. According to one contributor, in Pakistan lack of English language competence is shown to exclude large numbers of citizens from higher education and areas of employment – even where English is unnecessary for the particular job. In the case of India, Rao writes on page 206, *‘English has become a source of social division and exclusion, thereby undermining the social justice agenda of education in a democracy.’*

Stratification is also portrayed as the result of ‘emerging’ economies embracing western ideologies and English and the language policy decisions that are made as a result. Examples are provided from Bulgaria, Indonesia and China among others.

Language and identity is portrayed at individual and societal levels.

At the individual level there is the saddening account of a Chicana (Mexican American) with both ‘sub-standard’ English and Spanish and the consequences that has for her sense of identity. It shows how language and sense of self are inextricably linked and the challenges that a person whose language does not conform to the wider norms faces. At the societal level, we are warned of the possible demise of the Icelandic language through the increased use of English in Iceland and the lack of possible investment in technology to support a ‘minority language’, Icelandic, that is only spoken by a population of 650,000. Social identity being constructed through language features in accounts of Singapore forgetting its past or Indonesia losing some of its local languages as a result of the advance of English.

Discussions of pedagogy include not only what happens in the classroom itself, but also how English language teaching is represented. The expectation of what an English language teacher should look like is considered under the provocative title *‘Must the Western Hydra be Blond(e)?’*, where student visions have been coloured in part by media images and eye-catching publicity. It is no longer a case of what English to teach, but also who teaches it. The notion of unreal expectations is picked up discussing the impacts of education aid and how young inexperienced English native speakers

sometimes pay to travel and 'help' by 'teaching' with no prior experience or training.

In the classroom, what it means to be literate in different vocabularies and the influence this should have on the teaching of reading is discussed, as well as the availability and quality of language training programmes and teacher training initiatives as well as the attitude of those carrying out the training. In my own work as a teacher and teacher trainer, I have met those who can best be described as embracing the communicative approach with missionary zeal. However, this teaching methodology very much reflects a popular 'western' teaching approach. Is this the best way to learn or teach a language anywhere in the world? After all, the authors argue, why should teaching methodologies that work in one context be the panacea for all classroom interaction?

The authors and editors are at pains to point out that they have no issue with English, as such, rather the uses to which it has been put. If there are villains of the piece, they are those that created the hydra: the colonial legacy, the social elites, the dominant narratives that create unequal status between social groups, that relegate the standing of languages, that imbue people with unrealistic hopes and dreams based on the mere ability to use this continent bridging code. The purveyors of the 'English language dream', including state organisations such as the British Council –

although it now positions itself as an international relations organisation – volunteer organisations including VolunTourism, a form of tourism where volunteers travel abroad to do charity work, are portrayed as complicit either by manipulative design or through arrogant ignorance.

The hydra metaphor, whilst perhaps seeming rather an artificial construct and a catchy shorthand for all that is bad, is nonetheless a useful leitmotif, as the work interweaves the various strands that have created and sustained the perceived hegemony of English and supported the self-interest of those involved.

This collection is interdisciplinary, but in some respects could have gone further. In stating that the hydra needs to be combated on many fronts, more of these fronts could have been explored. Links to writings on language and power to public diplomacy and soft power would have widened the theoretical context and add to the practical examples presented in the book. In addition, the image of English and English language teachers could be seen through the wider context of media representation, Hollywoodisation, TV formats, and myth making.

So, in some senses this work could be seen as a missed opportunity.

Conversely, at times there appears to be little

attempt to balance views and to consider counter arguments. One example is the question of whether the teaching of other subjects through the medium of English (CLIL) may be a barrier to cognitive development. This is explored in detail in a number of scenarios. Criticism of monolingual language policy is an underpinning thread of many of the articles and builds on a wide literature. However, the problems faced in formulating a language policy that is inclusive, where hundreds of languages exist across a national territory, are hardly touched on.

In such circumstances, the question arises of how is it possible to formulate a language policy that does not exclude certain groups, that does not perpetuate a segregated society? At that point comes the choice of who is exploited by whom? This book seems to eschew such discussion in favour of a critique of the way English is used.

There seems to be little attempt to countenance that learning English may indeed be positive and necessary in the information age we find ourselves in. Nor is much time spent on the appropriation of English.

There are those who firmly believe in the power of English as a force for good. It is important that such beliefs are continually questioned and that equal voice is given to alternative narratives. The 'bottom up' resistance approach advocated in some of the articles mirrors this, although sometimes there is also the feeling that the resistance to English language hegemony is in search of a utopian vision when what is really at issue is power and who wields it. Nonetheless, this book offers a range of perspectives that should be taken into account if language policy-making and language education (not just English language education) are to progress.

Review

Language Ideology, Policy and Planning in Peru

by Serafín M. Coronel-Molina

Multilingual Matters 2015

Reviewed by ⁽¹⁾Claudia Schuhbeck

⁽¹⁾Paris-Lodron University of Salzburg

In this book, Mr. Coronel-Molina shows his personal interest in preserving and standardising the Quechua language in Peru. Quechua is an Amerindian language spoken, according to the author's estimation, by around six to twelve million people in the Andean region of South America.

With his perspective as a Quechua speaker-teacher-scholar, he questions the effectiveness of the practices in the High Academy of Quechua Language (HAQL) and the role it has played in language policy and planning in the Andean region, where according to him, the language has struggled to survive not only because of the HAQL position but for cultural reasons as well, since the time of the Spanish occupation of the region.

Therefore, the author proposes an ethnographic approach to research to fully understand the

sociolinguistic background and find ways to preserve language purity.

With this research, Mr. Coronel-Molina seeks to provide enough information to help policy makers and educators work towards an efficient language policy planning for Andean governments. This study would be helpful in the development of corpus planning and acquisition planning, as well for the maintenance and revitalisation of the language he seeks to achieve.

In chapter three, the author mentions the benefits of Language Academies established around the world. As early as in the 15th century, Europeans began to standardise languages. Records show that in the 1400s Italy was apparently the first country to gather intellectuals to conform to and prescribe proper language usage, with France and Spain following in their footsteps. American language

academies included the Academia de las Lenguas Mayas, The Navajo Language Academy, the Hebrew Language Academy, and the Arabic Language Academy. The author's personal challenge is to provide substantial input for the development of the best Quechua Academy.

Although ethnographic analysis was the author's research method of choice, this is not exactly the easiest approach. To elicit information, he had to use more Spanish than Quechua; even his research instruments were designed in Spanish and English. However, Mr. Coronel-Molina managed to differentiate his translations, give a more authentic voice to the speakers and probably a better understanding of the variables within the language itself.

His thorough compilation of historical issues between the two worlds reflects the resistance that all Amerindian tongues still face. Whether colonisation is presented historically as a means of evangelisation and progress, the final result was rejection instead of integration. Since the data is not accurate and presented by the 'conquistadores', the way the conquerors imposed their beliefs on the new world inhabitants is still unknown. One of the most infamous techniques was the inquisition, but prior to that dark era, nothing else was fully recorded. All conquests or wars are dark and tainted by savagery and domination, and the colonisation of the Americas

was no different. This is one of the reasons many cultures disappeared and will never be heard of again.

A good example is the annihilation of indigenous peoples in North America, particularly what is now the United States. Those who survived and were sent to the reservations had to struggle to preserve their culture and deal with the new owners of their lands. The negative feelings for their conquerors are indeed justified, and these feelings were shared by all Amerindian cultures in the Americas: the French and the British dominated in Canada and the United States, in Mexico and Latin America, in Brazil and Portugal. People were forced to abandon their beliefs and preferred to 'express' their resentment by hiding their culture from their enemies at the time. This became their only way to be safe and live quietly. Moreover, their mother tongue became a code used to express or hide their hatred. The many conquerors did everything in their power to wipe out the Native American population and almost succeeded. As a result, the world lost valuable people that could have contributed with their knowledge of their culture. This rejection is noted in the discrimination that Quechua speakers still face in the region, as Coronel-Molina mentions.

The other side of the coin is how much are the Quechua people themselves willing to contribute to Mr Coronel-Molina's project?

To revitalise a language is an incredible enterprise. In the case of Quechua like many other indigenous languages, there is no current alphabet or symbols to represent phonemes, as they were either lost or nobody can interpret them accurately. Other cultures have their own symbols such as Chinese, Hebrew, Arab, etc. However, for learners of any of these languages, it still has to be Romanised. If the Quechua had it, it is lost now, and every sound had to be represented and interpreted in Spanish (Romanised), which is the predominant language in the region.

As the author experienced, most of his diagnostic instruments had to be written in Spanish and in some cases – English. This leads us to the purity of the language that Mr. Coronel-Medina is looking for, considering that the difficulty of preserving the purity of the Quechua roots and the use of language without the intrusion of Spanish definitely complicates his goal. All languages have imported words from other languages and cultures, and Quechua is no exception. Varieties of the language among their speakers are endless.

A good example is the accent of each region. For example, Quechua speakers from the north of Bolivia would definitely use a different accent and word choice to a speaker from Ecuador. If we add the cultural diversity of South American countries, it is very likely that the historical use of the language is completely different.

Analysing the influence of Amerindian languages will involve recognition of different varieties of Quechua in the countries mentioned above plus defining where the source of purity resides. Who will decide, the expert or the authorities, Bolivian Quechuas or Peruvian Quechuas? As the author mentions, the HAQL still don't know if they would collaborate. The same applies to government.

The conflicts Coronel-Medina foresees in the development of corpus planning are internal and external. Which body will decide the best options for the Andean region? Will HAQL rise to the challenge? This raises more questions than answers. The supporters of revitalisation and modernisation of the language are opposed to the conservative group that wishes to preserve traditions and a notion of purity. Any language incorporates new words and concepts, and borrows words from other languages, and finding the right approach in order to please everyone is a major issue. Quechua current experts admire the 31 phonemes that the language has, but so far have not agreed on whether any new vowel or consonant sounds should be incorporated as well. The expert community has to decide whether the language should be used in its original or modernised form. A standard has to be set to define what will be considered the best version of pure Quechua.

Coronel-Medina shares a dream of disseminating

and enriching his language and culture. His proposals cover many aspects of what it would take to achieve it, but he faces the same paradox that all indigenous language defenders encounter: governments and authorities with no plans.

Over millennia cultures have vanished for different reasons, either due to human action or natural catastrophe. The outcome for researchers is the same. They are 'scratching' small vestiges of ancient civilisations, where their knowledge of them is little more than a best guess. And these assumptions are frequently based on current ways of thinking. We hope these perished cultures thrived with the same success of our recorded 21st century. But their progress was probably based on a very different perspective that is difficult or impossible to understand by our modern culture., reviving unknown history is just a lucky

presumption.

Investigating and preserving the record of the world's culture and history is part of being human. The collection and preservation of information helped us survive as a species; our culture is defined by the human race and the world we have built around ourselves. It doesn't matter what country or culture people are part of, one thing is certain, it will be transformed by technology, ethnicity, beliefs, and Quechua has changed, much more than its speakers care to admit. Coronel-Medina's desire to share his language and culture is laudable, but in a region where language ideology, policy and planning do not really exist, it is up to the Quechua community to untangle their conflicts and find the key to preserve their language and culture by contributing and sharing.

ICC News

by Michael Carrier

ICC Board Member

ICC Conference

The annual ICC Conference was held in Graz, Austria, in the premises of the EU-funded European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML). The theme of the conference was *Language Teaching and Technology in 2020*, and topics of the talks included the impact of speech recognition, virtual exchange & internationalising the classroom, and teaching languages in the digital age.

Conference speakers came from various countries including Mexico, UK, Spain, Germany and Austria and the keynotes were delivered by Dr Robert O'Dowd, University of Leon in Spain, and Dr Ursula Stickler of the Open University in the UK.

EUROLTA Teacher Training Certificate

The EUROLTA teacher training certificate continues to grow with the addition of new centres in Europe and beyond, and the development of new Train the Trainer courses to assist centres deliver consistent quality. The EUROLTA team led by Myriam Fischer-Callus are also working with Turku University in Finland to develop their idea of

EUROLTA for Online Teaching, a training programme for teachers teaching online and in virtual learning environments. This is based on an earlier EU Project led by ICC, called EUROVOLT.

Digital Language Learning: New Book by ICC

Author

ICC Board member Michael Carrier has produced a new book for language teachers, *Digital Language Learning and Teaching*, published by Routledge Education. The book was written and co-edited with colleagues from the TIRF foundation in the United States, with chapters from digital experts such as Nicky Hockly, and Pete Sharma.

The book includes chapters on blended learning, how to become a digital teacher, virtual reality, digital assessment, and case studies of research projects focusing on digital learning approaches. It will be reviewed in the next issue of TLC in September.

COMOVIWO News Update

The EU project COMOVIWO (Communication in Mobile and Virtual Work) is entering its final stages. The project brings together universities from Turku, Gdansk, Valencia, Manchester and the ICC to produce materials to teach intercultural communication skills specifically for those who work across nations and for whom much of their communication does not take place face to face.

Initial questionnaires identified online negotiation and meeting management as one of the key areas that people in the workplace felt they needed to improve as well as refining written communication.

The project aims to provide material for those attending courses – face-to-face, blended and online – as well as for self-study. It was the self-study element that was the main focus of the final project meeting in Turku in May. Following feedback from both external and internal evaluators, the team added an e-portfolio to the materials and a series of more detailed reflection tasks to enable the self-study learner to consolidate their understanding of the issues involved in virtual intercultural communication and how these might apply to their work.

There was also the opportunity for teachers and other interested professionals to find out more about the project at a public event, where Rob O'Dowd spoke (perhaps appropriately given the nature of the project) via skype from Leon and a series of workshops were held by the project team.

Future events will be held in Manchester and in Germany in June. The materials will be live for general use in August.

For more information please visit comoviwo.eu or ICC website icc-languages.eu.

EUROLTA News

by Myriam Fischer Callus

EUROLTA Co-ordinator

EUROLTA and the Refugees

More than one million migrants and refugees crossed into Germany in 2016. They mostly came from Syria, Afghanistan, Iraq and Eritrea. Germany struggled to cope with the influx, putting an enormous strain on its ability to provide services to all newcomers.

All over Germany, volunteers, government ministries, organisations and institutions helped the incoming refugees and initiated a huge number of projects. Our small town of Aschaffenburg in Bavaria (68,000 inhabitants) has recruited about 500 volunteers in different fields. The local government together with the volunteers are running innumerable projects such as clothes bazaars, sports activities, translating services, bicycle repair classes, football matches, German classes, swimming lessons, sewing classes, children's play groups, cooking sessions, café meetings, counselling, etc.

Persons granted asylum or refugee status receive a temporary residence permit. They are entitled to social welfare, child benefits, integration allowances and German courses. The latter has

posed a major challenge. Mastering German is vital if the refugees are to be integrated in the German society and become full participants in the economy. The complexity of German led Mark Twain to quip that a gifted person ought to learn English in 30 hours, French in 30 days and German in 30 years. The need to overcome the language problem has become a pressing problem for the German government.

According to Financial Times (June 2, 2016), *‘Germany has doubled its budget for language courses to €559m this year, enough to send about 300,000 refugees on the 660-hour course that is meant to equip them with the certificates needed to work and a basic understanding of German society.’* These language courses, funded by the state, consist of a language and an orientation component. They cover everyday topics and the refugees learn about dealing with administrative offices, writing emails and interviewing for a job. However, Germany is currently suffering from a serious shortage of teachers qualified to teach German as a second language to foreigners.

‘Germany will need 20,000 new teachers for refugees’ (Spiegel Online February 19, 2016). Many German states are offering a large number of teacher training courses in order to provide professionals with the necessary qualifications.

The Federal Office for Migration and Refugees

(Bamf) has recognised EUROLTA as a partial qualification for those professionals who have not studied German as a second language at a University. EUROLTA (European Certificate in Language Teaching to Adults) is an internationally recognised teacher-training programme for people who want to teach languages to adults using up to date methodologies. It is open to teachers of all language. For more information please contact Myriam Fischer-Callus at info@icc-languages.eu.

RUDN University News

by Elena Malyuga

Joint Managing Editor TLC

A Tribute

The Editors and colleagues would like to pay tribute to the memory of the honoured professor of Moscow State University, Komova Tatyana Andreevna. Prof Komova made an outstanding contribution to the development of such promising areas of research as linguistic identity in personal, political, socially-oriented and pedagogical discourse; the language of history and culture and grammatical semantics as an object of stylistics. Not only did Prof Komova’s professional qualities arouse admiration, but also her tact and dignity combined with subtle humour made an

extraordinary impression on all who encountered her. Apart from her scientific achievements, Prof Komova was kind-hearted, sincere, always reliable and ready to help her colleagues, who will remember her forever.

RUDN University QS Stars University Ratings

Peoples' Friendship University of Russia got 5 stars in 5 categories of QS Stars University Ratings. RUDN University scored a total of 4 stars within 8 main categories. The University has made the list of the 26 top world universities, which also includes MIT and Glasgow University, recognised in this ranking as a four-star educational institution. It has also become the second Russian institution featured in this list of top universities, providing an excellent environment for students and staff.

A typical four-star university is highly international, demonstrating excellence in both research and teaching.

QS Stars is a rating system that presents a wider picture of an institution's qualities, considering everything from graduate employability to sports facilities and community engagement. It independently highlights the world's top universities in a range of popular subject areas based on academic reputation, employer reputation, and research impact. University Rector Vladimir Filippov noted:

"We acknowledged that the University needed to play its role in making a fresh start to become one of the world's best institutions. Scoring an overall four, which is an impressive first entry for the ratings system, RUDN University was successful because of its sustained efforts to build a stronger international credibility and extend its attractiveness that can pave the way to progress, including under the 5-100 Programme. This is a great starting point for us as we move to establish ourselves with a rating system among world's best universities."

According to the Round University Ranking, RUDN University ranks fourth among 104 Russian Universities. As well as being ranked among the top 5 national universities, it is also featured as the best Russian university in terms of internationalisation.

Workshop on New Reality and Russian Markets at Harvard University Davis Center for Russian and Eurasian Studies

In April, the Davis Center for Russian and Eurasian Studies at Harvard University hosted a workshop on *New Reality and Russian Markets*.

Presentations were delivered by RUDN University representatives: on *International Centre for Emerging Market Studies* by Vice-Rector Prof Kyrabayev and Prof Bruno Sergio; and on *The Russian Economy Under the Conditions of a New Reality* by Prof Moseykin.

RUDN University Signs Cooperation Agreement with Loughborough University

In February, Dean of the Faculty of Economics Prof Yuri Moseikin and Head of Foreign Languages Dpt Prof Elena Malyuga signed a cooperation agreement with the Director of the Academy of Diplomacy and International Governance of Loughborough Prof Nabil Ayad and Dean of Loughborough University London Campus Prof Michael Caine. The agreement provides for various joint academic and scientific activities potentially including:

- academic exchanges, visits by academic staff for lecturing and workshop sessions;
- organisation of joint scientific events (conferences, round tables and workshops);
- joint research within the framework of educational projects;
- development of teaching materials in the areas of linguistics and economics;
- joint application for grants awarded by the state, international, public, and private foundations.

RUDN University Signs Cooperation Agreement with the Autonomous University of Santo Domingo

In March, Prof Yuri Moseikin visited the Dominican Republic (Santo Domingo). Prof Moseikin discussed a cooperation programme

between the Economics Faculty of the Peoples' Friendship University of Russia and the Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences of the Autonomous University of Santo Domingo, and signed an agreement between the universities developing and coordinating double diploma Master and PhD programmes.

International Applied Research Conference on Economic, Geopolitical and Regional Development

In May, the Faculty of Economics of RUDN University in association with Lomonosov Moscow State University, the Higher School of Economics, the National Research University, the Financial University and the University of Nice, Sophia Antipolis, and the Jean Monnet Dpt held an international applied research conference *The Future of Europe and Russia in the Context of Multifaceted Crisis: The Issues of Economic, Geopolitical and Regional Development*. The participants discussed the issues of geopolitical cooperation between the EU states, Eastern Europe and Russia, social reforms in Europe and Russia, issues and features of regional socio-economic development.

3rd Inter-University Conference on Media and Communication Studies:

In February, students of the Institute of World Economy and Business at RUDN University took part in the 3rd interuniversity research and

practical conference of BA, MA and graduate students *Media and Communication Studies: Theories, Practices, Research Perspectives*. The participants discussed:

- theories and history of media and communications;
- methodology of media and communications research;
- economics and management in the field of media and communications;
- media education and digital culture.

International Research and Practical Conference on Migration Processes in the EU and Russia

In June, RUDN University is organising an international research and practical conference *Migration Processes in the European Union and Russia in the Context of the Preservation and Development of Russian and National Languages*. The conference to be held in Paris includes the following topics:

- Global challenges of migration in the world, the legal framework of citizenship and migration in Russia and the EU.

- Issues of socio-cultural adaptation and integration of migrants: Does it mean the loss or preservation of Russian and national languages?
- Migration and the economy.

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Training Language and Culture

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