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INSTITUTE OF LAW
Department of Foreign Languages

**SOCIETY AND LANGUAGES
IN THE THIRD MILLENNIUM
COMMUNICATION. EDUCATION.
TRANSLATION**

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of Annual International Conference**

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Dear colleagues,

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The conference is held annually at the RUDN University (Moscow, Russia).

The representatives of 48 institutions and organizations took part in the conference in 2018.

The conference participants represented 19 countries including Algeria, Amman, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Egypt, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Iran, Japan, Poland, Russia, Slovakia, South Korea, Spain, the UK, the USA.

The Conference organizers express their deepest gratitude to MUDr Jiří Maštálka (Member of the European Parliament, Czech Republic) and Dr. Anne Renate Schönhagen (Leader of the Language Department, Deputy Director of the Goethe Institute in Moscow) for their support.

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The Conference organizers convey their acknowledgment and thanks to all the conference participants as their active engagement and wide experience lent substantial weight to the Conference discussions.

The conference organizers hope for further cooperation with colleagues to exchange views, share experiences and discuss problems of current importance regarding the role of language in society with particular emphasis on communication, education, and translation. The materials have been published in the authors' edition.

Conference Participants' Affiliations

1. All-Russian State University of Justice, Russia
2. Association of Police and Court Interpreters, UK
3. Athene National University, Greece
4. Austrian Institute in Moscow for German Language Studies, Austria
5. Balkanstroy, Japan- Russia
6. Buryat State University, Russia
7. Catholic University in Ruzomberok, Slovakia
8. Comprehensive secondary school №1525, Russia
9. Cornell University, USA
10. Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu Limited, USA- Russia
11. European Commission
12. European Parliament, Czech Republic
13. Goethe Institute in Moscow, Germany
14. Hanul Hangeul Hakdang, South Korea-Russia
15. Kyung Hee University, South Korea
16. Islamic Azad University, Iran
17. Kazan Federal University, Russia
18. Military University, Russia
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48. University Souk-Ahras, Algeria

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LANGUAGES AND EDUCATION

Antwi Addai

Steps for Change Humanity Foundation, Ghana

Abstract. Language as school subject, perhaps more than any area of the curriculum, has created different traditions and orientations. These have been influenced by theoretical perspectives drawn from a number of disciplines such as psychology, linguistics and philosophy. A Framework for Language Education would address (both in the document itself and in supporting papers) some of the key thinking that has influenced pedagogical practice in the teaching of language as school subject and would help users of the Framework to evaluate their own approach in relation to different theoretical perspectives.

The study of language is such a broad subject that the theoretical perspectives are considerable and varied: psychology, linguistics, philosophy and many other disciplines have much to contribute about the nature of language and the way it functions in society. If literature is included as a component of languages of education the range of theoretical influences becomes even wider, embracing in addition literary and cultural theory. A Framework for Language Education would address (both in the document itself and in supporting papers) some of the key thinking that has influenced pedagogical practice in the teaching of language as school subject (LS). The field has changed considerably in recent decades and A Framework for Language Education would bring together concepts, theory and research that have guided practice in order to help users reflect on the development of their own policies and approaches. Language as school subject, perhaps more than any area of the curriculum, has created competing traditions and orientations; these need to be mapped out and the different positions explored in relation to the relevant theory background.

Key words: Education, Language education, Linguistics

MULTILINGUAL ASPECTS OF COMPLEX INFORMATION TRANSFER AND INFORMATION PROCESSING IN SPOKEN JOURNALISTIC TEXTS

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Abstract. “Non-neutral” content in spoken journalistic and political texts related to ambiguity, implied information, connotative and socio-cultural features can be detected at various levels of analysis. We focus on the role of

individual words, as they are elements easily detected in spoken texts and their processing constitutes a less complex task in speech applications, transcription tools and online Machine Translation and propose a set of solutions related to interactive processing with Machine Translation software and Language Resources and annotation in transcription tools.

Key words: transcription, spoken journalistic texts, connotative features, Machine Translation.

1. Introduction

The translation or machine translation of transcribed journalistic texts is often a complex task. In interviews and discussions, beyond headline news and formal statements, spoken journalistic texts concern a wide range of elements that pose challenges in their translation and processing. Furthermore, the degree of complexity increases with the existence of elements concerning non-native speakers of a language. Unlike spoken domain-specific texts, such as spoken communication among experts and professionals, not only what is said, but how it is said is of equal importance.

Machine Translation is ideal for written and domain-specific texts [7, 11]. Transcribed Journalistic Texts are originally spoken texts and are usually not domain-specific. The following phenomena constitute issues in the machine translation of transcribed journalistic texts: Spoken texts, especially if they not domain-specific, specialized texts, are often characterized by (a) ambiguity, (b) implied information and connotative features, as well as (c) (c) socio-cultural features.

Spoken texts contain additional information constituting paralinguistic features, which are also related to socio-cultural features. Spoken-transcribed journalistic texts may contain a high degree of the above-presented phenomena, due to the nature of their content related to politics and society. An additional factor of complexity are general cross-cultural differences in respect to communication where opinions may or may not be explicitly expressed, where silence may or may not function as an acceptable response [5] or where elements such as word play, understatements and irony may or may not be widely used.

The spoken texts, including transcribed spoken journalistic texts, concern a combination of information from the (I) Linguistic Level and the (II) Paralinguistic Level. Interactive processing with Machine Assisted Translation (MAT) (Computer Assisted Translation – CAT) tools and Translation Memories is proposed, possibly in combination with the annotation of linguistic and paralinguistic features in transcription tools [13,14,15] during the working stages of translation.

2. Linguistic Parameters Design and User Interaction

Content in spoken journalistic and political texts related to ambiguity, implied information, connotative and socio-cultural features can be detected at various levels of analysis. We henceforth refer to the above-described content as “non-neutral content”. Here, we focus on the role of individual words, as they are elements easily detected in spoken texts and their processing constitutes a less complex task in speech applications, transcription tools [13,14,15] and online Machine Translation.

We summarize “non-neutral content” related to grammatical category and word structure at the Morphosyntactic Level under “Grammatical Features”. “Non-neutral content” not directly related to grammatical category and word structure but to “deeper” associative and sociocultural aspects of word meaning is summarized under “Semantic Features”. “Non-neutral content” concerning the Paralinguistic Level is summarized under Paralinguistic Features.

The three general categories of “Non-neutral content” in the Linguistic (I) and the Paralinguistic (II) Level can, therefore, be listed as follows: Word level (I): Word category and word structure – Grammatical Features, Word level (I): “Deeper” mainly associative and sociocultural aspects of word meaning – connection to Prosody and Phonology – Semantic Features and Paralinguistic Level (II) –Paralinguistic Features.

3. Grammatical Features

Grammatical features are detected and processed at the Morphosyntactic Level. Taggers, parsers and/or existing or specially constructed Wordnets and databases are tools used in the immediate detection and processing of implied connotative features in journalistic texts. Tools such as the Stanford Part-of-Speech Tagger have been used to achieve these results [1]. This process results to their automatic classification based on percentage of detected non-neutral content and implied connotative features [1].

3.1. Percentage and Choice of Adjectives

Previous studies [1] have demonstrated the link of a large percentage of adjectives to non-neutral content and implied connotative features in journalistic texts. The choice of adjectives is, additionally, related to semantic features related to (i) mode (ii) malignant/benign action or (iii) emotional/ethical gravity [2, 3]. These types of features have been labeled as “Implied Connotative Features”.

3.2 Semantic features of Verbs

Features have been labeled as “Implied Connotative Features” and are also present in the stems of verbs. In particular, verbs (or nominalizations of verbs) containing semantic features related to (i) mode (ii) malignant/benign action or (iii) emotional/ethical gravity [2, 3] are related to texts containing mostly non-

neutral content. A characteristic example is the verb “plummet”, (of stock market prices) as opposed to the more general term “fall”. Another example from a spoken German text concerning domestic policy is “zurueckrudern” (“to row back”), as opposed to the more general term “go-back”. These descriptive words are rich in semantic features functioning as additional semantic restrictions or “Selectional Restrictions” [6,12], located at the end-nodes of an ontology of words [16] (or in a Wordnet). The features defining each verb, ranging from the more general to the more restrictive concept, are formalized from standard and formal definitions and examples from dictionaries, a methodology encountered in data mining applications [8].

3.3 Derivational Suffixes

Word groups with Implied Connotative Features also include nouns with suffixes producing diminutives, derivational suffixes resulting to a (i) verbalization, (ii) an adjectivization or (iii) an additional nominalization of proper nouns [2, 3]. From the overall category of derivational suffixes, diminutives typically occurring in German and Greek may be perplexing to the International Public in cases where the International Users mother tongue makes a limited use of such elements. In particular, in German and in Greek, the boundaries between literal or of connotatively “marked” use of diminutives is not always clear. Furthermore, in Greek, diminutives (for example, “-aki”) are also used as a form of positive politeness [9]. Additionally, in English, a subset of connotatively “marked” derivational suffixes related to suffixes from foreign languages is typically observable. Examples are the derivational suffixes “-istas” from Spanish and “-ette” and “-esque” derivational suffixes of French origin which may contain connotative elements in some contexts. We note that stems of words of French origin in German can - in certain cases, be of connotative content, even of a slight nuance of irony. An example of a connotatively “marked” derivational suffixes in German is “-erei” used for the nominalization of a verb or appended to a noun. For a non-native speaker, the boundary between neutral or connotatively “marked” derivational suffix “-erei” may not always be clear. For example, in the word “Malerei” (“a painting”), the “erei” suffix nominalizes the verb “malen” (“to paint”). However, there are connotative features in the “erei” suffix in the case of the word “Schreierei”, a nominalization of “schreien” (“to scream”).

3.4 Modal Verbs

The multiple uses of modal verbs is typical of languages such as English and German. Modal verbs such as “must”, “should” (“soll” in German) and even “would” (“würde” in German) and “shall” constitute a typical problem since the distinction between their literal semantic meaning and their polite or connotative use is not always visible to the international recipient. Typical examples are the

utterances: [2]: (i) "In this case, all negotiations must start within the next few hours" (ii) "In this case, all negotiations should start within the next few hours". Additionally, the semantic interpretation of verbs such as "may" and "might" can be identical in some contexts. The semantics of some modal verbs may be weaker or stronger. For example, the verb "must" is related to the strongest expression and is usually characterized by less complex semantics, however, this is not always the case in many contexts. Modal verbs (a) may be used literally, (b) may be used to express a suggestion or a prediction, (c) an understatement or even irony. We note that modal verbs and other phenomena related to politeness in English and German demonstrate an incompatibility to in respect to other European languages, such as Polish and Russian. However, the boundaries of the possible differentiations in respect to the semantics of modal verbs become less evident in the context of journalistic texts, especially in spoken texts. For example, in some political and journalistic texts, the phrase "We would like to see further reforms" may be equivalent to "We demand further reforms".

3.5 Adverbials and Particles

Adverbials and particles may either be used (i) to emphasize the semantic content of the spoken phase or sentence overall utterance (emphasis) or (ii) to allow a more casual or spontaneous effect of the overall spoken utterance (casual). In spoken language, typical examples are the expressions "merely", "utterly", "surely", "doch" (German), "eben" (German) and temporal expression such as "now" and "gleich" (German).

In English, discourse markers comprising particles, adverbials and exclamations may be used in various ways, allowing multiple interpretations, according to the context in which they are produced. For example, the expression "Right", originally an adjective, may be used literally to express agreement or any other form of confirmation agreement, as well as a reluctant or hesitant acceptance or confirmation and, in some cases, even frustration, expressed from the side of the speaker. Another characteristic example is the expression "Well", originally an adverb, is also used as discourse marker for the opening of sentence or the expression of hesitation or a feeling of awkwardness expressed by the speaker. This expression may also be used in a casual, communicative spirit, such as in the sentence "Well, hello to you too".

4. Semantic Features

Features in Semantics are related to semantic and sociolinguistic parameters in the language concerned, requiring an in-depth knowledge of the language (i), including a perspective from history and/or literature and (symbolisms, associations) and a perspective from the current use of the word/ expression in the present socio-cultural context (politics, trends, society) (ii). The resolution

of problems and other issues related to features in Semantics is heavily dependent on the Translator's knowledge and the Translator's decision to modify or not to modify the actual type of expressions processed in order to correctly convey the Speaker's intention.

Features in Semantics can be detected at a context-specific or "horizontal" level. A facet of the word's semantic content related to its current use in politics is easily retrievable with online search in journalistic texts and political speeches. A wide range of available online corpora and lexica and other resources can assist in the above-described process, which in some cases may be time consuming.

However, there are types of commonly used words that, in some contexts, can be related to implied connotative features and non-neutral content. These words are so common, that a search in available online corpora and lexica usually cannot highlight their non-neutral content in in journalistic texts and political speeches. The facets of the semantic content of these word types may be described as existing in a deeper level ("deep level") related to symbolisms, associations and even to their phonological structure. Commonly used words are often primitive nouns, verbs and adjectives and are usually located at the upper nodes of ontologies [16] and Wordnets. In languages such as Chinese, primitive nouns, verbs and adjectives can correspond to pictograms (for example, "moon", "mountain", "mother", "big").

The "deep level" can also connect aspects of the word's semantic content ("Meaning") with the Phonological and Prosodic level ("Prosody-Phonology").

4.1 "Gravity" of Words

Commonly used, semantically "primitive" nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs may sometimes be problematic when it comes to their correct interpretation and transfer in another language. It is often observed that the semantic equivalent of the same word on one language sometimes may appear more formal or with more gravity than in another language. These words with "gravity" in their meaning may either emphasize the role of the word in an utterance or be related to word play and subtle suggested information. In particular, the presence of such words may contribute to the degree of formality or intensity of conveyed information in a spoken utterance.

The above-described differences between languages are often related to polysemy, where the possible meanings and uses of a word seem to "cast a shadow" over its most commonly used meaning. Therefore, the most commonly used meaning, appearing as the "first" meaning in a dictionary, online lexicon or translation memory, may not always correspond to a correct transfer in the target language. For example, the word "lazy" has a negative connotation in English, but in some contexts, it is also associated with the meaning of "laid

back” (“a lazy afternoon”). The equivalent of “lazy” in German, the word “faul” may, in some contexts, appear to be of too negative “gravity” to accurately correspond to the English word “lazy”. We note that in German the word “faul” also means “rotten”, for example “faule Eier” (“rotten eggs”). Another example of polysemy which may be related to the “gravity” of a word connected to its multiple meanings is “logos” in Greek which is connected to meanings such as “speech”, “logic”, “intelligence”, “reason”, “word of honor”, “ratio” (in mathematics) and even “God” (in religious texts).

Such words can often be related to Lexical Bias concerning semantic perception [10]. International speakers may misinterpret the intention of a native speaker due to the “gravity” of words in their native tongue. On the other hand, word play and subtle suggested information may often be unnoticed by an international public in political discussions and interviews. Words with perceived “gravity” in their semantic content that can create complications in their correct interpretation, transfer and/or processing are linked to the following properties: (i) Commonly used, semantically “primitive” nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, (ii) Polysemy – multiple uses and meanings.

The detection and processing of “gravity” words may be difficult to integrate in automatic procedures. With the aid of ontologies and other resources, “gravity” words can be included in post-processing procedures.

4.2 “Evocative” Words

Another word group that can be related to Lexical Bias concerning their semantic perception [10] is a group which we refer to as “evocative” words. Similarly to the above-described category, “evocative” words are commonly used, semantically “primitive” nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs. Their evocative element concerns their “deeper” meanings related to their use in tradition, in music and in literature and may sometimes be related to emotional impact in discussions and speeches. Since this word category concerns common every day words, their evocative features are less obvious and are not always consciously used or perceived by native speakers. As in previously presented words with “gravity” in their meaning, with “evocative” words, word play and subtle nuances in expressions may often be unnoticed by an international public.

In contrast to “gravity” words, “evocative” words usually contribute to a descriptive or emotional tone in an utterance. These common words may be related to concepts such as colors, for example, “grau” (“grey”) in German or the natural world, for example, “thalassa” (“sea”) in Greek or “moon” in English. These words are not easily detected with automatic procedures. However, in many cases they either receive prosodic emphasis and/or their phonetic-phonological features are intensified when articulated by native speakers.

These elusive words are linked to the following properties: (i) Commonly used, semantically “primitive” nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, (ii) Commonly used in tradition, in music and in literature, (iii) Often have prosodic and phonetic-phonological features intensified. As in the case of “gravity” words, the detection and processing of “evocative” words is not easily integrated in automatic procedures. A more realistic approach would be including this word group in post-processing procedures, with the aid of ontologies and other resources.

4.3 “Prosodically Sensitive” and “Prosodically Determined” Words

Prosody is related to language-specific phonological rules, tone and intonation, language-specific acceptable forms of articulation and expression as well as Speaker-related factors (mood, intention, other factors). Prosody may play a decisive role in the meaning of a phrase or sentence, often determining sentence type. However, prosody may also be related to the semantic content of words. In particular, in some languages, prosodic emphasis in words or expressions may also influence their semantic content. In languages such as English, prosodic emphasis is used to emphasize semantic content. Characteristic examples with “prosodically sensitive” words [2] in English are the following “It was a big(emphasis) truck” = It was a (really) big truck, “Wow, that was some(emphasis) dessert! = Wow, that was some (very good) dessert. In languages such as Greek, prosodic emphasis is used to determine semantic content. In this case, the words are “prosodically determined” [2]. Characteristic examples in Greek are the following: “Wait for two minutes(emphasis)” = Wait a little bit, “Wait for two(emphasis) minutes” = Wait for two minutes. Specifically, for spatial and temporal expressions, and for a subgroup of quantifiers and numericals, the presence of prosodic emphasis signalizes an indexical interpretation (“exactly”) as opposed to a vague, interpretation or a fixed expression [2], where in the latter cases, there is an absence of prosodic emphasis. For example, for the temporal expression “oso” (Greek) with its indexical interpretation as “for as long as” as opposed to its vague interpretation as “while” in the same sentence. For discourse particles identified as “politeness markers”, the absence of prosodic emphasis signalizes them as politeness markers, while with the presence of prosodic emphasis they only have the property of discourse particles. Thus, absence of prosodic emphasis in the discourse particles “Tell me (‘pite mou)” and “Mabey” (‘mipos) signalizes positive politeness and friendliness [2].

“Prosodically sensitive” and “prosodically determined” word groups are language-specific and constitute elements that are not easily perceived by an international public, especially to native speakers of languages where prosodic emphasis does not influence semantic content or to native speakers of languages

where there are strict rules concerning prosody and/or tone. “Prosodically sensitive” and “prosodically determined” words are linked to the following properties: (i) Language-specific (ii) Involve particular grammatical categories and word groups, according to natural language concerned. Prosodic emphasis can be detected and signalized with the aid of most types of transcription tools [13,14, 15]. However, a special annotation is required for language-specific prosodic emphasis determining semantic content.

5. Paralinguistic Level – Paralinguistic Features

Prosody is also related to the expression of attitude, irony, intention or emotion, with language and culture-specific variations. Transcription Tools [13, 14, 15] allow the presentation, analysis and processing of linguistic features and paralinguistic features, including Prosody. Linguistic features include the recording of speaker turns and topics, as well as code switching between languages and dialects. Some tools include the presentation, analysis and processing of gestures and movement. Here, we restrict our observations on two types of paralinguistic features directly linked to the correct interpretation, transfer and processing of information content of spoken utterances.

5.1 Paralinguistic Elements and Key-Information

Prosodic emphasis and other types of paralinguistic elements may also signalize key-information in spoken utterances. Previous studies [4] have identified different types of paralinguistic elements signalizing key-information: (1) Emphasis of the key-word or phrase where, among other prosodic characteristics, an increase of the volume intensity of the speaker’s voice is recorded, (2) short pause before key-information is uttered and (3) exclamations typical of hesitation “Ah”, “Eh” and “Ih”, transcribed as [AH], [EH] and [IH].

The type of paralinguistic elements used may also depend on Speech Act type and Speaker Category [4]. The above-listed elements can be detected with the aid of transcription tools, signalized with a special annotation. According to the type of transcription tool used, the property of paralinguistic elements as pointers to key-information can be included in the annotation options of the tool or integrated in post-processing procedures following transcription and basic annotation.

5.2 Gestures, Facial Expressions and Movement

Gestures, facial expressions and movement may influence the meaning of a spoken phrase, sentence or text in the Media. The use of gestures, facial expressions and movement is related to language-specific acceptable forms of expression and Speaker-related factors (mood, intention, other factors). A typical example is an accompanying text (German) next to an image referring to the apology of an official, in spite of which the worker’s trade unions demand more. In the image, the official’s hands are most probably expressing his pensive

mood (a) or concentration in a particular issue (b). However, the placement of the hands is similar to the position of the hands during prayer (3) in Western Europe - Catholic and Protestant Christian Church and a plea for forgiveness (apology) of sins.

Gestures, facial expressions and movement may not only underline, but also determine the meaning of a spoken phrase, sentence or text in the Media. A typical example is the raising of eyebrows. The raising of eyebrows – in different European language communities- may mean: “I am surprised”, “I am listening very carefully”, “What I am saying is important”, “I have no intention of doing otherwise”. In another example, a slight raise of hand outward from the level of the chest, palm of hand slightly tilted upward– in different European language communities- may mean: “Wait a second”, “Let me speak”, “I disagree with this”, “Stop what you are doing”.

Language and culture-specific gestures, facial expressions and movement are difficult to integrate as information type in transcribed spoken texts. If applicable, the Translator’s decision may concern the possibility of adding modifiers (for example, “stressing his words”, “with a characteristic gesture”) or other linguistic means to accentuate or to clarify the Speaker’s intention.

6 Processing and Conclusions

Spoken journalistic texts often contain elements characterized by ambiguity, implied information, connotative features and socio-cultural features. The translation and processing of these non-domain-specific texts poses various challenges since what is said and how it is said is equally important. Taggers, parsers and/or existing or specially constructed Wordnets and databases can assist in the detection and processing of elements in the Linguistic Level (I) classified as “Grammatical features”. For elements in the Linguistic Level (I) classified as “Semantic features”, the detection and highlighting of their non-neutral content and subsequent processing can often be problematic since they mostly constitute common words. However, ontologies [16] and Wordnets may facilitate their detection for translation and processing. Furthermore, the detection of some types of “Semantic features” can be assisted with the use of transcription tools, where phonetic-phonological and prosodic information can be recorded, in addition to elements in the Paralinguistic Level (II).

A collaborative construction of specialized databases by researchers, translation experts, journalists and other professionals may result to an upgrading or adaptation of existing tools and language resources.

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TRANSLATING TABOOS: THE ETHICS OF TRANSLATION THROUGH TWO PERSPECTIVES

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Abstract. The study investigates some strategies used for the translation of taboos of two types, *direct* and *euphemized*. Specifically, it assesses the translation of a selected corpus of taboos (made of 34 tabooed excerpts) driven from an Arabic novel entitled "Azazeel", authored by Egyptian Novelist Yousef Zeidan and translated into English by translator Jonathan Wright. Wright's translation of the study corpus is compared to a translation by two practitioners for the same corpus. The comparison focused on investigating the strategies used by each translator for reproducing the source taboos from Arabic into English in order to find out if they succeeded in reproducing the euphemistic element present in the source text using the same euphemizing techniques of the author as well as the translators' motives behind either complying with or deviating from the author's techniques in their translations. In the light of our observations, we recommend a practical approach to analysis and translation assessment of taboos. This approach is expected to assist translation practitioners and students in analyzing source text taboos and in translating taboos without neglecting the aesthetic element present in the source text.

Key words: translation, taboo, translation strategies

**THE SEMANTIC FOSSILIZATION OF A FILIPINO
HOUSEKEEPER:
A CASE STUDY ABOUT THE EFFECTS OF L1 ON
L2 VOCABULARY ACQUISITION**

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Abstract. This research is based on a case study of Jasmin, a Filipino housekeeper who has been working in Jordan for the last seven years and lives and works in a household where English is the main spoken language of the family. Based on informal interviews and observation, the study aims to examine the extent of semantic fossilization present in Jasmin's L2, namely English (which she has learnt since a child), and the extent to which her L1, namely, Filipino, affects the successful acquisition of second language vocabulary. The study further examines how Jasmin reacts to both overt and covert correction of fossilized lexical items and whether she is receptive to them or not. It is found that although Jasmin is a proficient speaker of English and actively attempts to defossilize certain semantic elements within her L2, this negative transfer reemerges time and time again. The study concludes that more research is needed on individuals like Jasmin in determining the nature of semantic fossilization and how to prevent or at least counteract it.

Key words: acquisition, fossilization, lexicon, L1 interference, multilingualism, semantics.

**DIACHRONIC ADVERTISING LANGUAGE CHANGE ON THE
EXAMPLE OF “BARNUM’S AMERICAN MUSEUM” AND “THE
GREATEST SHOWMAN”**

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Abstract. This paper puts emphasis on the multi-media-development of advertisements from 1850-2017 on the example of the historical show palace *Bar-num’s American Circus* and the Hollywood production *The Greatest Showman*. The diachronic comparison benefits from an almost unaltered narrative that continuously varied its formal, structural and medial appearance. Whereas the 19th century beginning of circus advertisement had to rely on print advertisement and compositions of texts and images, the 1970s Broadway adaptation of the Barnum family’s history could use a broader media range of

TV and radio spots. The beginning third millennium finally allows the usage of a broad multi-media-environment: the release of the 2017 cinematic production is supported by online dance tutorials, sing-along-spots on YouTube, film advertisements of any kind as well as performances picking up on numerous details from the mov-ie at hand. The following aims to describe the fast media turn(s) throughout the last 150+ years with the purpose of contemporary advertising of the circus.

Key words: Advertising Language, Diachronology, Image Linguistics, Multi-Modality, Mixed Methods

1. Introduction

This paper aims to focus on the history of language and modality of advertising from the 1850s until today, using examples of print advertisements for the original *Barnum's American Museum* and its multi-media adaptations. These examples are meant to sketch the development from traditional advertising strategies towards current and upcoming language use and the according media variety for commercial purposes. "Just a few generations ago, at the end of the 19th century, giant circuses crisscrossed the country on the new transcontinental railroads, attracting millions of viewers each year. The wild success of these circuses was unique among all other forms of entertainment, giving rise to the pop culture we know today" [1] and has been opening a new interdisciplinary research area since the 1850s [2].

Selected examples from the original print advertisements from the 1950s onwards via the 1970s Broadway adaptation with its according commercials until the 2017 Hollywood release aim to reconstruct the development of media usage within advertising language during the last 150+ years on the example of the *Barnum* narrative. The results shall contribute to a deeper understanding of how the interrelation of language and (analogue and digital) media was shaped to fulfill the needs of contemporary advertising language; in particular, to a "concept of a multi-media-message constructed as a 'text', i.e. a finite set of elements having the status of signs and being logically interconnected so as to form an intelligible whole[.] The level of observation on which this analysis was conducted remained close to the experience of an attentive spectator immersed in the circus performance situation" [3]. The media strategy – i.e. of an advertisement – can also be seen as part of an overall performance with a changing variety of utilized media [4, 5]. The following stations of the Barnum complex will now describe the development from the original circus advertisement to the contemporary multi-media-adaptation.

2. Barnum's 1850s press and print campaigns

P. T. Barnum can be seen as one of the most famous show advertisers of the time [6]. Around 1850 mainly posters and flyers were composed to advertise the permanent exhibitions and shows at *Barnum's American Museum* in New York City. Targeting an audience that was not necessarily able to read properly, the then current campaign-ing put a major emphasis on visually displaying the individual attractions at the ven-ue. The variety of image-text-compositions represent the understanding and the indi-visual aesthetics of the beginning era of modernity from 1850 onwards [7] as can now be reviewed in a variety of collections [8].

Usually, these posters are composed of a key visual showing one of the human “at-tractions” such as a bearded lady, extraordinary over- or underweight individuals, a “mermaid”, and many other curiosities. The visuals are colorful drawings in a roman-tic style. The main characteristic feature is a bold headline in red capital letters saying “The Barnum & Bailey Greatest Show on Earth”; framing a semi-fictional attraction with commercial appeal: “One female predecessor (from circa 1873) was P. T. Bar-num’s Mademoiselle Angela, sketched lifting a canon with a man (Monsieur D’Atalie) on top, carrying weights in either hand, and described as ‘The Female Sampson’, ‘artillerist heroine’, and ‘beautifully formed woman’” [9].

In addition, print and newspaper outtakes demonstrate the creation of a linguistic sub-genre around the advertisement of the circus. P.T. Barnum’s stuff contained more than 20 journalists, who continuously produced what would nowadays be known as *fake news*: the press releases did not only spread the above mentioned announcements such as the display of mythical creatures – which obviously could only be false truths – but also claimed commercial testifies without any journalistic proof.

In particular the US tour with Swedish singer Jenny Lind was proclaimed to be an extraordinary success before it even started; the singer was named the *Swedish Night-ingale* and praised in such a glamorous way that the tickets for her tour were actually sold by auction – a huge surprise because “[a]lthough she had earned a great reputa-tion in Europe, Miss Lind was relatively unknown in the USA. Beginning with her American debut, a brilliantly planned and heralded concert at Castle Garden, Barnum’s publicity made her the most famous woman in North America” [10]. Text-image-compositions (posters, flyers, even caricatures) were used to draw attention utilizing typical stylistics from the semiotic word and image field ‘circus’. Emphasis was put on imagery in order to augment oral delivery across language areas (mainly in Europe and North America).

The first advertising strategies kept emphasis on striking narratives that focused on singular characters. These were trade with glossy posters and other

print formats as well with word of mouth that predated the commercial appeal over the factual truth of the message – 1850's circus advertising can therefore be seen as an early version of conscious and strategic *fake news*.

3. Broadway adaptation

Print advertisements for the later *Barnum Circus* remained in the rhetoric style of classic announcement posters for more than a century, while changing their language and imagery continuously, which is shown based on a selection of posters from that period. 1970's Broadway musical *Barnum* was advertised with print, radio and TV commercials mainly featuring outtakes of the upcoming show. This period moved away from print advertisements to create room for multi-modal advertising language development. These advertisements rely much stronger on spoken language and/or (moving) visual impact. A classic print advertisement can be found on Broadway playbills with advertisements as magazine covers. These advertisements consist of headline, key visual and sublines and therefore show a structural analogy with the classic *Barnum* advertisement. Following the media offers of the time, a much broader audience was targeted with TV and radio spots that showed audio-visual snippets from the actual show. The characters shown fit the same stereotyped and clichéd style as the original posters, but now benefit from the opportunities of audio-visual display [11].

The 1970's release transforms the historical event of the Barnum complex into a mainstream Broadway production. The advertisement follows the trends of the time and comes up with a dual strategy utilizing classic posters and print format simultaneously with moving imagery to target a broader audience.

4. Hollywood and contemporary advertising

The 2017 Hollywood musical movie *The Greatest Showman* relies on advertisement in the form of performances. The classic iconic signs from the 1850's circus are reactivated and represented in a contemporary way. Actress Keala Settle portrays the bearded lady in the movie and repeatedly performs the main song "This is me" at public events, e.g. at the 2018 Academy Awards ceremony. This symbolism is internationally picked up by other artists, for example German travesty performer and former Grand prix winner Conchita Wurst (also known as a "bearded woman") presented the same song at New Year's Eve in Berlin 2017/18. YouTube holds a broad spectrum of official cover versions of the movie's soundtrack, often either performed by popular interpreters or social projects. These contain sing-along-versions of the most popular songs from the soundtrack, e.g. sung by big choirs or public groups. Overall, the 2017 advertising content-wise reminds of the original print advertisement. The only difference is the recent media development that leads from the classic analogue paper version to digital multi-media-scenarios that go viral online.

Not only the fictional characters are promoted in a similar – but technically updated – way; also the performing actors are supported by the advertisement of young and upcoming celebrities. Supporting actress Zendaya (portraying the aerial artist *Anne* in the movie) is often dressed in dresses with butterfly motives. Her gown at the opening night as well featured a butterfly wing – very likely referring to her current music single “Butterflies”.

The overall advertisement of the circus movie relies on traditional tools and methods: posters and print advertisements follow the usual compositions of headline and key visual, often accompanied by additional text bodies that change due to the individual print formats. The TV advertising is similar to the formats of 1970’s Broadway release and works with outtakes, samples, remixes and songs from the movie.

More interesting is the advertising footage on social media: in comparison to earlier advertisements, the formats shape into more interactive offers. YouTube provides dance tutorials to the highlight songs from the movie, individual artists and choirs upload cover versions, the *Greatest Showman* merchandise complements these with sing-along versions. Making-of-footage and individual interviews with the director, leading and supporting actors, music supervisors or costume designers broaden the range of filmic advertisement.

The overall advertisement relies on cross-references and remixed versions of original narratives. For example, the “bearded lady” Keala Settle has been performing (beard-less) at the Academy Awards 2018; the main song “This is me” is currently promoting individuality, diversity and equality – and is therefore performed at various public occasions. Another example for spreading the “bearded lady” is former Euro-vision Song Contest winner Conchita Wurst, who performed the song at New Year’s Eve in Berlin. The 2017/18 advertisement broadens the media displays and does barely rely on print advertisements. Online formats with high involvement potential and live performances (usually with online live streams) complement the movie and simultaneously form a surrounding “environment” of additional offers. The multi-media-strategy does not only advertise the original product, the movie, but also promotes the corresponding, music, celebrities and the overall merchandise.

5. Conclusion & outlook

The ongoing and fast media change, however, does not necessarily have an impact on the given narrative. On the concrete example of the *Barnum* complex the subject isn’t influenced or modified by media at all, it is moreover displayed in a current technical way. It is likely to be said that the traditional *Barnum’s American Museum* would have used the same technical tools to advertise the original show as the Hollywood marketing is channeling today. The future media choice within advertising circus narratives will very likely contribute to

the readability of images from a linguistic point of view; merging in a verbal turn [12] that encourages the semiotic similarity of text and image [13]. This rather basic amalgamation of only two media is continuously challenged by an audience that demands for new and innovative entertaining formats. In contrast to earlier advertising with focus on sustainability, practical use and durability of items contemporary trends put far more emphasis on individuality, self-realization and lifestyle [14]. Following this trend – that, of course, manifests in a broad and colourful multi-media range – latest linguistic investigations proclaim a much broader acceptance of multi-media as part of the new traditional advertising language [15].

The overall summary of the comparison of three historical stages of circus advertising show the consistency of a traditional circus narrative and in contrast the rapid media change and fast development of technological features. This manifests that the media choice in advertising must not mandatorily have an impact on the message it portrays. Moreover, advertisers benefit from a multi-media-variety in order to broaden their product to a broader growing audience.

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SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING: CURRENT CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS

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Abstract. This research focuses on challenges in simultaneous interpreting in the areas that are closely connected with it including history, current status, training, quality and assessment, necessary skills, non-language issues, working issues and strategies used in simultaneous interpreting based on the survey findings and interpreted speech analysis from Russian into English. The importance of this study is explained by the rapidly-developing simultaneous interpreting which has become an essential part in international organisations. The research covered quantitative and qualitative analysis of the findings obtained during the survey and speech analysis which allowed to draw a number of conclusions and propose recommendations which can be implemented and enhance the sphere of simultaneous interpreting. The results and findings of current research contribute to the study of a relatively new and fast-developing profession of the simultaneous interpreter.

Key words: simultaneous interpreting, challenges to simultaneous interpreting, interpreter's training, quality and assessment, interpreter's competencies and skills.

1. Introduction

In the past few decades there has been a growing interest in simultaneous interpreting due to the world globalisation. A great number of international organisations started appearing back in 1950s after the WWII which inevitably lead to the rapid development of conference interpreting. Translation itself has

a long-standing history. Translators and consecutive interpreters existed already in the Ancient world and fulfilled functions of mediators and negotiators. Throughout the centuries, the main goal of translation and interpreting has not changed, whereas the means and tools for translation and interpreting have drastically altered [25, 11].

Initially, translation and interpreting were used for political and economic purposes, for instance, trade, wars as well as travelling and adopting experiences from different countries [11]. Nowadays interpreting plays an essential role in the modern world and is an integral part of the global society. This is one of the reasons why there is so much significance attached to this subject. It goes without saying that meetings and conferences today cannot be held without interpreters since they often involve representatives from different countries and nations. For instance, NATO, the EU, UN and many other world-known organisations have their inbound simultaneous interpreters and translators whose importance has grown to such an extent that they have become key elements for the international cooperation which identifies the importance of this research [27].

Particularly the field of simultaneous interpreting is still under-researched, such areas as the training of simultaneous interpreters, the processes that occur in the brain in the course of interpreting, possible challenges that arise in the workplace, and the possibility of becoming a universal simultaneous interpreter who is able to work with any topic [7]. The process of interpreting itself still rises many questions and debates, such as the use of strategies and stages in interpreting [15, 24]. Moreover, due to the technological research and availability of different courses, the area of interpreting is constantly evolving which leads to the appearance of new elements and processes within the area. Thus, this research studies and analyses current challenges that arise in the world of simultaneous interpreting and, according to the hypothesis of the study, there might be made improvements to the area as well as recommendations proposed and solutions found that can be used by other researchers, practicing simultaneous interpreters and by those who are interested in the interpreting sphere itself.

Taking into account the current state of simultaneous interpreting, **the present research goal** is to study and analyse the area of simultaneous interpreting in the fast-developing world and the challenges that interpreters are still confronted with.

In order to achieve the goal of the research, a number of tasks were set which included analysis of the development of the profession of a simultaneous interpreter; studying the actual status of the area of simultaneous interpreting, including training, teaching methods and aims and the development of

technologies within the interpreting area; looking into the strategies used by simultaneous interpreters in the course of interpreting; analysis of the strategies used by the interpreters from Russian into English based on the real interpreting at the United Nations in order to understand the challenges within the transmission of language elements; and, finally, conducting a survey targeting simultaneous interpreters in order to identify real situation and challenges that they face at work and in the course of interpreting simultaneously.

The methodology of the study included desk and area research, gathering and analysing findings of previous works and studies conducted by a various number of linguists, conducting a survey titled Current Challenges in Simultaneous Interpreting in order to collect quantitative and qualitative data provided by practicing interpreters, analysis of the actual interpreting in real conditions, as well as studying and analysing of previous materials and studies.

During the research, there has been used a wide range of materials including books, guides, articles, videos and audios by American, English, Russian, Dutch and other researches, scientists and linguists. Researchers who dealt with the issues regarding the sphere of simultaneous interpreting includes Boeri J., Bowen M., Chernov G., Færch C., Kasper G., Roditi E. Ilykhin V., Pöchhacker F., Shiryaev A., Jones R., Kalinina S., Kohn K., Visson L., etc. These authors studied the main aspects of simultaneous interpreting which cover training, standing of the profession, inbound processes of interpreting such as the use of strategies or mental processes that occur in the brain of the interpreter [4, 5, 7, 12, 15, 18, 22, 23, 25, 27, 29].

The research included conducting a survey which targeted those who are closely connected with simultaneous interpreting and have had actual experience in simultaneous interpreting attracting 32 participants from Belgium, Russian and the United States. The questionnaire consisted out of 21 questions which helped identify current challenges in simultaneous interpreting regarding difficulties with customers, the accessibility of education for simultaneous interpreters, challenges in workplace, assessment of interpretation and training, strategies and techniques within simultaneous interpreting. The survey was carried out in the interpreter and translator's group on Facebook, as well as at the RUDN university including professors who often engaged into the interpreting simultaneously which helped analyse the situation from different angles.

The final stage of the research included the analysis of an actual interpreting by interpreters from the UN which contributed to identifying the challenges that simultaneous interpreters are confronted with during the interpreting which included speech rate, terminology, different language structures, abstract notions, Latinisms and the Bible phrases, as well as polysemy. The length of the

speech totalled in 36 minutes or 4758 words in interpreter's output (EN) and 2972 words of the original speech (RU). These analyses helped identify the challenges within simultaneous interpreting not only in general, as it was analysed in the previous studies but to understand the internal processes within the simultaneous interpreting as well as external or extralinguistic challenges in combination with the results of the survey.

At the end of the overall research, recommendations and solutions which cover the area of simultaneous interpreting were proposed.

The practical significance of the research concluded in the proposal of the above recommendations which can be used for the further research by linguists, interpreters and for interpreter's training.

2. Results and Discussion

The overall research covered four main stages which contributed to identifying current challenges and constraints within the area of simultaneous interpreting:

1. General and detailed overview of different areas that are connected with simultaneous interpreting
2. Simultaneous interpreter's training, quality and assessment
3. Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data obtained during the survey
4. Analysis of the strategies used by simultaneous interpreters in real working conditions

2.1 General and detailed overview of different areas that are connected with simultaneous interpreting

Having studied and analysed the development of the interpreter's profession, equipment used in simultaneous interpreting, future trends and such a relatively new notion as remote interpreting as well as the process of simultaneous interpreting itself and its place among other forms, there have been drawn a number of conclusions identifying the importance of simultaneous interpreting in the modern world of globalization:

1. Most of the time, interpreters co-existed together with translators, however, their activities were not differentiated from the latter, and only the 1920th saw the establishment of a profession of simultaneous interpreter, as we see them now, with headphones and microphones in the booth. These explain the absence of profound and proved by centuries theory and studying of the profession.

2. Today simultaneous interpretation sees its further development and is widely used by the majority of international organisations which are unlikely to design any other device which will replace simultaneous interpreters. Thus, the profession of a simultaneous interpreter will not be replaced or vanish.

3. Nowadays the process of conference interpreting, namely simultaneous interpreting, involves the use of different computer assisted tools (CATs) and information and communication technologies (ICT), and such a relatively new notion as remote interpreting is being developed and integrated into the area.

2.2. Simultaneous interpreter's training, quality and assessment

The following step of the research included studying of such aspects as simultaneous interpreter's training, assessment of interpreter's competencies, and skills that interpreters need to possess and are vital for the understanding of the whole interpretation process. These helped understand current challenges in interpreting sphere while analysing simultaneous interpreting in real conditions and the survey data which contained questions about the education, training and interpreter's skills. The following conclusions were drawn:

1. Interpreter's training is an integral part in developing necessary skills and abilities.
2. Due to the development of various technologies, training has become more advanced and practical.
3. Quality assessment of simultaneous interpreters and their skills still poses challenges for both clients and interpreters.
4. Simultaneous interpreters must possess certain skills, competencies and abilities in order to overcome difficulties during interpreting and provide high-quality and adequate services.
5. Interpreters should remember the provisions of the Code of Ethics and follow them not to lose their credibility.

2.3 Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data obtained during the survey

Thirdly, the research included analytical and practical data analyses focusing on challenges, simultaneous interpreters are confronted with at the workplace which are backed by the data from the survey. The following findings and statistics were produced:

1. Problems with equipment and clients' issues still exist in the sphere of simultaneous interpreting with client issues prevailing.
2. The interpreter's training and practice play an important part for the interpreter's skills and proficiency. The most frequent exercises that are found useful by practicing interpreters are video and audio interpreting which maximumly reflects the interpretation in real conditions.
3. Despite the advanced technology, remote interpreting still presents challenges for the interpreters.
4. The most frequently used strategies, according to participants, are reformulation and generalisation

2.4 Analysis of the strategies used by simultaneous interpreters in real working conditions

Last stage of the research lay in analysing the quantitative and qualitative use of strategies in simultaneous interpreting and studying the causes and effects of their use. Thus, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The work of a simultaneous interpreter can be impacted by a wide number of factors which still present in the modern world which include: defective equipment, contract disputes, working relations, language factors such as terminology, accents, speech rate, complex syntax, abstract ideas, Latinisms and Bible phrases.

2. Due to the fact, that simultaneous interpreting is a complex process itself, the interpretation deteriorates when interpreter meets numbers, proper names and abstract notions.

3. In order to overcome the difficulties during interpreting, the interpreter uses the strategies whereas the most used strategies are reformulation, simplification and addition.

4. Simultaneous interpreting from Russian into English adds to the difficult process of interpreting since the languages' structures are different.

5. A complex nature of simultaneous interpreting requires knowledge of certain strategies which help to overcome difficulties during the process of interpreting and the use of which must be automatized.

6. The use of emergency strategies in simultaneous interpreting points out at the presence of various challenges in the work of a simultaneous interpreter.

3 Conclusions

To sum up, this research helped establish and identify challenges in simultaneous interpreting by a detailed study of different areas which are connected with simultaneous interpreting and interpreter's: history, current status, training, quality and assessment, necessary skills, non-language issues and strategies. These enabled to establish and propose recommendations which could contribute and enhance the area of simultaneous interpreting. These are:

1. Since simultaneous interpreting is a rapidly developing phenomenon, it requires a deeper investigation and study of its current status not only in international organisations but in other areas where it is used, for instance, in different settings.

2. The development of online technologies has indeed drastically changed and contributed to the training of simultaneous interpreting thus the teaching methods could be analysed in order to make online training and training at the universities interact and complement each other;

3. Quality assessment of interpreter's performance is still under researched and requires a comprehensive structure of criteria which are used for assessing simultaneous interpreters' competencies;

4. Since simultaneous interpreting is a relatively new branch of oral interpreting, it requires a distinct analysis of the processes that occur during interpreting since the theoretical materials are relatively old and scarce;

5. There must be carried out a profound analysis not only of the problems that interpreters face during interpreting itself, such as strategies and processes, but also a detailed study of other challenges, such as the cooperation between the interpreter and the employer, the equipment issues, contract disputes as well as the training of simultaneous interpreters via the Interpret.

6. Current status of simultaneous interpreting in Russia still presents an unclear and vague picture and future trends which could be studied as well;

Thus, in the course of analysing theoretical and practical materials, it has been confirmed that the challenges are still present in the area of simultaneous interpreting. Thus, the overall standing of simultaneous interpreting could be improved which would help those interested in simultaneous interpreting to overcome current challenges.

The results and findings of current research contribute to the study of the relatively new and fast-developing profession of a simultaneous interpreter. The further research could help identify more challenges focusing on certain areas of interpreting, countries or languages. The limitations of this work included time and resource constraints which can be avoided by further researches and linguists.

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INAUGURAL ADDRESSES OF BRAZILIAN, RUSSIAN, US, AND CHILEAN PRESIDENTS: NATIONAL POLITICAL CULTURES IN NATIONAL DISCOURSES

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Abstract. The topicality of the research is stipulated by the rhetorical and lexical features of the inaugural speeches of the presidents of Brazil, Russia, the United States, and Chile and the ways in which they are used to meet the demands of their voters and establish themselves as presidents. The article aims to analyze the different rhetorical devices used by presidents in inaugural speeches and to define how presidential rhetoric shapes their image and influences an audience. The methodology of the research included the use of

transcripts of Dilma Rousseff, Vladimir Putin, Barack Obama, and Michelle Bachelet's inaugural addresses as well as analytical techniques such as the deductive and inductive methods, descriptive-comparative method, and also the elements of cognitive interpretations, political discourse analysis, and rhetorical and conceptual analyses of key words. The research enhances the awareness of the verbal aspects of politics, as well as the need to develop the principles of linguistic description in political texts to monitor trends in the sphere of public consciousness. The research finds that the main ideas of our time are reflected in presidential discourse, allowing us to make a conclusion on the state of a society in the beginning of a new era. The article had both theoretical and practical value as the theoretical background and the proposed methodology can be used to explain some aspects of general linguistic and comparative linguistic plans, applying cognitive and corpus linguistic methods to analyze inaugural speeches in languages with differing typological features. The practical significance lies in the fact that the results of the study can be used for the subsequent study of the rhetorical devices and linguistic features used in political public speaking in general, not just in the inaugural genre.

Key words: political discourse analysis, inaugural speeches, rhetorical devices, presidents, Brazil, Russia, USA, Chile.

1. Introduction

Politics has always played a special role in society. A country's place in the international arena, its relationship with other states, and its role in the global community depends on a certain political position or situation. However, the way a country is represented by its political leaders plays an important role in determining its image. Politicians have the opportunity to address both the international community and citizens of their country by means of speeches.

A political speech is a well-planned action that requires long and careful preparation. Moreover, a political speech should not only inform the audience about a particular aspect of public life, but more importantly, gain their sympathy, to convince listeners to take a particular position, as well as to enlist the support of citizens.

By analyzing the speeches of politicians, it is possible to identify the strategies and tactics of argumentation they use to convince their audience. Moreover, by researching political speeches we can predict a politician's future actions and intentions on the one hand, and on the other, establish the most effective ways of influencing listeners.

The object of this research is the lexical features of inaugural speeches of the presidents of Brazil, Russia, the United States, and Chile.

Transcripts of D. Rousseff, V. Putin, B. Obama, and M. Bachelet's inaugural addresses were used to further the analysis of the rhetoric, which they used to meet the demands of their voters and establish themselves as presidents.

The subject of this research is the thematic structure and verbal phenomenon of lexical, word formation, morphological, and syntactical levels of political discourse structure.

The main aim of this research is to analyze the effects of using different rhetorical strategies and devices in the inaugural speeches on the audience.

The goals and objectives of the study defined the choice of analytical techniques. In this research, general academic devices were used such as deductive and inductive methods, descriptive-comparative method, and also the elements of cognitive interpretations, political discourse analysis, and rhetorical and conceptual analyses of key words.

2.Literature Review

Before we delve into political discourse and examine the rhetorical devices used in the inaugural speeches of heads of state, we must first come to an understanding about the basic definitions.

Language – a universal means of communication, conversation.

According to the definition of F. de Saussure and his followers, language has a systemic structure. The scholar was the first to distinguish speech (*la langue*) from speaking (*la parole*), thereby separating "1) that which is social from that which is individual; 2) that which is essential from that which is ancillary and more or less accidental" [5].

Speech communication occurs in two forms: oral and written. Oral speech is any speech sound and its main properties are that it is irreversible, progressive, and linear. It can also be prepared and unprepared, and it is normalized and regulated. Written speech differs from oral speech in that it is an ancillary sign system created by people and its main function is tied to oral speech. Its primary characteristic is its ability to store information for a long time and the fact that it is oriented towards perception by the organs of sight.

Discourse is a general term used to denote coherent speech, and text is speech recorded in writing involving the transfer of information using a graphical language system.

Since the main part of our work is devoted to the analysis of rhetorical devices – let us take a closer look at what exactly rhetoric is, and also the rhetorical techniques used in political speeches.

G. Khazagerov in his work "Political Rhetoric" defines rhetoric as the science of the influence of the word on a person [4].

However, we find a negative meaning for the term in S. Ozhegov's dictionary, with him referring to rhetoric as pompous, meaningless speech. Thus, this definition has remained associated with rhetoric ever since [6].

Etymologically, rhetoric is "the art of presentation, reasoning."

The word "rhetoric" comes from the Greek word "rhētorikē", which in turn comes from the word "rhētōr". As the verb "rhētōr" means "to speak", its noun form is "orator", "reporter".

Language and politics are inextricably linked with each other, since political action is, first and foremost, a speech action, and political processes are communicative processes constituted to a great extent by language.

French sociologist R.-G. Schwartzenberg defines political communication as "the process of transferring political information, through which information circulates between the various elements of the political system, as well as between political and social systems. A continuous process of information exchange is carried out both between individuals and between managers and the managed to achieve agreement" [8].

T.A. van Dijk distinguishes two types of political knowledge, namely: knowledge shared by participants in a particular social group, and general cultural knowledge, which is the basis for communication and interaction in society. The overwhelming part of political knowledge consists of intra-group knowledge, which for opposition groups can have a status as being "purely political opinion." Thus, the knowledge of feminists about the dominance of men in society is rejected by many male representatives, the same is true of the knowledge environmentalists, which is ignored by those who participate in activities that pollute the environment. And vice versa: racists form their own group knowledge, despite the fact that representatives of other social groups can condemn them [13].

As for political discourse, E. Sheigal at one time clearly defined its fundamental feature: "the defining feature of political discourse is the intention of the struggle for power." Sheigal expounds this definition with the following metaphor: "The basis of political discourse, which represents a battlefield, is a continuous dialogue - a duel between the 'party in power' and the opposition, in which the opponents attack each other from time to time, keep up their defenses, repel attacks, and go on the offensive" (Sheigal, 2000). The hierarchal structure of discourse analysis along with a detailed description of different semantic levels is presented in Chernyavskaya's research [2]. K. Campbell and K. Jamieson offer an in-depth analysis of all the features of epideictic speech in the context of presidential inaugural addresses [1]. The most important and distinguishing features of inaugural speeches are thoroughly detailed in the

works of R. Joslyn [3]. The description of political performatives and their classification is presented in J. Searle's research [9].

Political discourse is manipulative in nature, as its main goal is the struggle for power. In the course of language evolution, the meanings of words gradually change and are re-interpreted, increasing new semantic elements, and stylistic re-assessments of words.

3. Materials and Methods

One of the methods widely used by modern linguists to study political language, especially political discourse, is discourse analysis. Its distinguishing feature is that the sample of discourse is studied not in isolation, but taking into account the situation, the goals, the perception of the audience, and the attitude to other samples of this type.

Discourse analysis is an analytical procedure that focuses on dialogue and texts as social practices, as well as on the resources that are involved in learning and mastering these practices. Instead of explaining people's actions with their ideas, discourse analysts try to understand how these ideas and concepts are constructed and used in practice.

4. Results

The inaugural address of the president occupies a special place in the genre structure of political discourse. It is uniquely marked by a single addressee, rigidly tied to a specific political event, fixed in a temporal and spatial plan.

There are four basic functions of the inaugural address: integrative, inspirational, declarative, and performative.

The integrative function of inaugural addresses affirms the unity of the nation at such a momentous moment in its history. Explicit markers - signs of integration, play an important role in the actualization of this function: the people, my fellow citizens, our, we, both, united.

In the most explicit form, the integration function is realized in the speech act of calling for unity: "Esse projeto de nação triunfou e permanece devido aos grandes resultados que conseguiu até agora, e que porque também o povo entendeu que este é um projeto coletivo e de longo prazo. Este projeto pertence ao povo brasileiro e, mais do que nunca, é para o povo brasileiro e com o povo brasileiro que vamos governar." [14] ("This national project has triumphed and remains in place because of the great results we have achieved so far, and also because the people understand that it is a collective, long-term project. It is a project which belongs to the Brazilian people, and more than ever it is for the Brazilian people, and with the Brazilian people, that we shall govern.") [15].

Each of the basic functions of inaugural speech also finds expression in specific topoi. Thus, the integrative function of inaugural speech is realized in two basic topoi:

a) "the people and the president are united in the inaugural act and give a collective oath" (topos of mutual obligations);

b) topos of the unity of the nation as conditions for successfully solving the problems facing the country.

The inspirational function of inaugural addresses aims to inspire and evoke enthusiasm in the nation for future great deeds and laud traditional values. The new president should instill in the audience a hope for a better future, a belief in the success of his or her activities, and confirm that he or she will continue the tradition of previous great leaders: "We are true to our creed when a little girl born into the bleakest poverty knows that she has the same chance to succeed as anybody else, because she is an American; she is free, and she is equal, not just in the eyes of God but also in our own." [16].

The topos of "renewal" - metaphors with the indication of symbolisms interpreted by the community as indicators of changes and transformation: spring, restructuring, dawn, etc., are also highly effective with regard to their potential to inspire: "A decade of war is now ending. An economic recovery has begun." [16].

The obligatory component of the inaugural speech is the topos "the greatness of the nation": "Россия — страна грандиозных побед и свершений." [17]. ("Russia is a country of magnificent victories and accomplishments.") [18]. The key word in the realization of this topos is the affective "magnificent."

Another topos which embodies the inspirational intent of an inaugural speech is the topos of sublime emotions, reflecting the greatness of the moment (joy, gratitude, love). Inaugural speech in general is characterized by intense emotion, which is created by an abundance of various stylistic devices and the concentration of different types of emotives - "units whose semantics contain an emotional part": "От всего сердца благодарю граждан России за вашу сплочённость, за веру в то, что мы можем многое изменить к лучшему. Еще раз хочу сказать спасибо." [17]. ("I would like to thank the citizens of Russia for their unity, for believing that together we can change many things for the better. Let me extend my gratitude to you one more time" [18].

The declarative function of inaugural addresses entails declarations by the new president about the principles of his or her rule. However, unlike the slogan, the declaration of principles is not of a regulatory nature, i.e., it is not an immediate call to action, but is only offered for reflection. The declarative function is realized primarily through the topos of duty and work.

The key words of the topos of debt are "must", "sacred obligation", "sacred duty", and responsibility: "Вступая в должность Президента России, особенно остро осознаю свою колоссальную ответственность перед каждым из вас..." [17]. ("As I am about to take office as the President of

Russia, I am keenly aware of the immense responsibility towards each and every one of you”)[18].

The key words of the topos of work are “task”, “effort”, “service”, “work”, and “challenge”.

The declaration of political principles is, on the one hand, rather abstract in nature, as the president demonstrates loyalty to traditions and the desire to follow the principles worked out by his or her predecessors. On the other hand, any statement of the main program, even the most general provisions of the political platform, is impossible without mentioning the pressing problems of the present day. Despite the official and festive nature of the ceremony, the president considers it necessary to show the people his or her understanding and concern regarding the problems that affect the whole society, thereby once again demonstrating unity with the people. In this regard, the topos of the pressing problems of the day plays an important role in implementing the declarative function of the inaugural speech.

Let us now consider the features of the performative function. Since inaugural speech is the basis of the official ritual of the presidential inauguration, the audience expects the president to act according to his or her status role, and not as a person; i.e., to demonstrate a willingness and ability to act as the leader of a great country, as well as an understanding of his or her responsibility and recognition of the constraints imposed on the executive power [1]. With his or her oratory skills, the new president must convince the public that he or she is able to successfully play the symbolic role of the leader of the nation.

The performative function is implemented using three main topoi: the topos of taking office, the topos of the deserving leader, and the topos of law-abiding.

Topos of taking office. The president explicitly states that he or she is assuming the burden of leadership: “My fellow Americans, the oath I have sworn before you today, like the one recited by others who serve in this Capitol, was an oath to God and country, not party or faction.” [16].

Topos of a worthy leader. The inaugural address is intended to convince the public that the leader has the necessary knowledge, wisdom, and perspective vision, sufficient to protect the nation from external and internal enemies and successfully lead the nation into the future [3]. “Quiero abocar experiencia, sensibilidad y esfuerzo a la hermosa labor de conducir el país hacia un destino mejor [19]. (“I wish to bring my experience, my sensitivity, and my effort to the beautiful task of guiding this country towards a better destiny.”) [19].

Topos of law-abiding. To dispel fears of possible abuse of power, the new president must assure his or her fellow citizens that he or she will not seek to usurp power and that he or she is aware of and respects the constitutional limitations of his role: “Faço questão, também, de renovar, nesta Casa, meu

compromisso de defesa permanente e obstinada da Constituição, das leis, das liberdades individuais, dos direitos democráticos, da mais ampla liberdade de expressão e dos direitos humanos.” [14]. (“I should also like to renew, in this House, my commitment to permanently and stubbornly defending the Constitution, the law, individual freedoms, democratic rights, and the most extensive freedom of expression and human rights.”) [15].

The study of inaugural addresses is dictated by their special significance. First and foremost, presidential inaugural addresses can be fully considered as texts generated by a country’s national culture: for example, in the United States, the presidential inauguration is one of the oldest traditions of American politics, which emerged simultaneously with the presidency as an institution and has existed since 1789, for more than 228 years, and serves as a classic example for many world powers. Modern inaugural speeches of the presidents of the Russian Federation can also be viewed against the backdrop of Russian rhetorical tradition in light of modern speech sciences, in the aspect of the evolutionary tendencies in the formation of the genres of official elocution in Russia, and also as a factor in the evolution and the democratization of society. With regard to the analysis of the inaugural speeches of the first female heads of state in Brazil and Chile, we can infer that these presidencies made the region an example of the steps taken towards a more equal place for women in these South American nations.

5. Discussion

The purpose of political discourse is to capture, retain or redistribute power, persuasion, and call to action. This kind of communication is characterized by a high degree of manipulation. Language in political discourse is primarily an instrument of influence, persuasion, and control. Such manipulative orientation of political discourse is manifested in speech acts of integration, orientation, and aggression. Therefore, the communicative tactics of the ideologization of mass consciousness: legalization, unification, concealment and fragmentation in political discourse are directly related to language, namely with its linguistic manipulations and linguistic methods. The development of ideology involves the use of special mechanisms such as stereotyping, mythologization, and standardization.

Examining the linguistic features of the discourse of inaugural addresses allows one to conclude that it is characterized by linguistic imagery, which is realized with the help of stylistic means and viewed as a system of manipulative linguistic influences in the speech of the politician. Thus, stylistic means in the language of inaugural addresses are an effective verbal way of conveying emotions to listeners, as well as a means of shaping the political image of the leader.

The inaugural genre of political discourse reflects the most representative features of political discourse, realizing a communicative intention - the formation of a positive image of a politician. It is characterized by euphemization, tactics of promises and proposals for solutions, agonism, mythology, and accessibility. Communicative tactics of fragmentation are not inherent in inaugural discourse, since its purpose is to unite the audience. All communicative tactics inherent in inaugural conversion are transmitted with the help of logical argumentation, as well as stylistic means, which strengthen both the informative and aesthetic significance of the statement, appealing to the emotions and feelings of the addressee.

It is certain that the concept "we" is the most common in inaugural addresses. The words "independence, democracy, equality" are not among the most common concepts, and can be classified as temporary. From the point of view of the concepts examined, inaugural speech is characterized by the unification of people, the nation, the continuity of generations, traditions, values, the proclamation of new governing principles, and setting goals that the elected president will strive to achieve.

Inaugural speech is a significant fixture in political speech. Therefore, the analysis of inaugural speech is an inherent part of linguistics simultaneously connecting history, the development of language, and a reflection of a country's current political course. Based on the analysis of inaugural speeches, we can acquire an understanding of the current state of a country's political thought, system, and civil society. The rhetorical devices used by heads of state reflect not only their oratory skills, goals, and agenda, but also the specific devices that appeal to certain groups within a society – their electorate.

6. Conclusion

So, inaugural addresses are a reflection of the political era, linguistic and national-specific features of the four countries. Semantic and thematic centers recreate the historical, socio-political and linguistic landscapes highlighted. The resulting picture is confirmed by linguistic observations at different levels. The results of the study demonstrate the evolution of views in American, Russian, Brazilian and Chilean political discourse and provide a holistic perception of the changes. We believe that our research has a public significance, which is determined by the great influence of presidential rhetoric on the formation of the discursive field of politics. The discourse of the president finds expression of the nature of objective reality in the form of the main ideas of his time, which will allow us to describe the mental world of society at the beginning of the new millennium.

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NEW METHODS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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Abstract. The new millennium has brought new challenges in foreign language teaching. Emerging technologies along with the old methodologies are important tools in modern life. (Black)boards are being substituted with overhead projectors, textbooks are added with podcasts, interactive games, films and videos.

In this hectic life there are a lot of sites, aimed at helping both teachers and students in teaching and mastering the language. Educators, bloggers, companies are doing their utmost to facilitate our noble activity.

This article is devoted to some of the resources teachers can use in their everyday work. It highlights strong and weak points of some of them, underlying where and when the material(s) can be used.

The advice of the authors can be helpful in ESL teaching and learning both at university or school levels.

Key words: teaching methodology, natural speech environment, creative lessons, approach to teaching, ESL.

1. Introduction

These days there are a great number of methods for language teaching. Videos and films are such a good resource to take into account.

Speaking about second language teaching we need to underline that learning from films is motivating. Motivation is one of the most important factors for second-language acquisition. In today's digital life films, videos and TV shows are an integral part: so it is reasonable to bring them into the language classroom. These means, as motivators, make the language learning process more entertaining and enjoyable.

2. Research framework

2.1. What are the reasons for watching films?

They provide a source of authentic and varied language, examples of English used in ‘real’ situations outside the classroom, particularly interactive language – the language of real-life conversation. They also expose students to natural expressions and the natural flow of speech.

Film gives a visual context

Having “appeared” in a natural speech environment, the ‘visuality’ of film makes an invaluable language teaching tool for learners, thus enabling them to understand more by interpreting the language in a full visual context. Language learners are enabled to listen to language exchanges and see such visual supports as facial expressions and gestures simultaneously. These visual clues support the verbal message and provide a focus of attention.

2.2 Variety and flexibility

Film and videos (as well as TV shows) bring variety and flexibility to the language classroom by extending the range of teaching techniques and resources, helping students to develop all four communicative skills. Any part of the film or the whole of it can be used to practice listening and reading, and as a model for speaking and writing. Film can also act as a trigger for follow-up tasks such as discussions, debates on social issues, role plays, reconstructing a dialogue or summarising.

The problem that arises here is to find the most convenient material for classroom usage. Yes, there are millions of films and videos along with internet resources, but it is sometimes difficult for teachers to see the wood for the trees.

There are many websites and blogs (see as examples the links 1-4 in Sitography section) which provide detailed and well-structured lesson plans based on film and television clips, short films and viral videos, which save the busy teacher a lot of time. Here are some of them:

Allat C is the blog by Steve Muir and Tom Spain supplies lesson plans based on short videos, especially clips from television series, for teachers of advanced students (C1 and C2).

Lessonstream, Jamie Keddie’s website, has a wealth of creative and imaginative lesson plans based on short videos.

In Viral ELT Ian James is exploiting viral videos in language teaching.

Film English is the resource site of Kieran Donaghy with more than 120 detailed lesson plans based on short films.

Until recently, teachers had to spend many hours creating their own film guides, but nowadays there are several sites where teachers can find free, high-quality film guides to use in the language classroom. *Film guides* is here to assist.

ESL Notes is an outstanding resource site, created by Raymond Weschler. It provides more than 200 detailed film guides. Each individual guide is a detailed synopsis of a popular classic or contemporary film with an extensive glossary of vocabulary and expressions students come across in the film.

Film in Language Teaching Association (FILTA) is an association of language teachers, film educators and researchers, which provides film guides to use in language teaching.

Film Club is a UK charity, which gives children and young people the opportunity to watch, discuss and review films, supplies hundreds of pedagogically sound, free film guides.

Film Education produces well-structured and engaging film guides for a wide range of films.

The internet now offers students the opportunity to improve their lexical, listening and speaking skills through watching short film clips and short films.

English Central can possibly be the best website for students to improve their speaking and pronunciation. This site provides students with videos with subtitles. The students watch the videos, practice vocabulary used in the video, record themselves repeating what they hear, and then get feedback on their pronunciation.

English Attack is dedicated to young students can improve their English on this community website, which uses clips from film and TV series.

For those who want to create their own films, shows or cartoons, these sites can be useful:

Learn English Teens Film UK gives students the opportunity to watch short films made by young people, and do a variety of activities based on the films.

In Go Animate learners can create their own animated short films, write the subtitles and create a voice-over.

Zimmer Twins allows to create short cartoon animations, add subtitles and voice-overs.

As a fun activity, or possibly for the students of B1 /B2 levels to improve their vocabulary, writing and speaking these addresses can be helpful:

Bombay TV - a fun site where learners can add subtitles and voice-overs to Indian television and film clips.

Clip Flair -a site where learners can 'revoice' (dub) and 'caption' (subtitle) video clips.

While teaching the students as foreign language teachers, many of us might have faced the problem of authentic language. Along with films and videos that we mentioned above, authentic text is very important. By saying authentic texts we will mean any text which has not been produced for the purpose of language-learning. The mere understanding that you read something designed for a native

speaker is motivating. But how helpful the authentic text we choose actually is for our students? There are some problems to discuss.

3. Text Issues under Study

Text organization is one of the challenges: how clearly is the text organised? This can be a real headache with newspaper texts, which often have very short paragraphs, not necessarily linked clearly to the surrounding text. The students have to be made aware that the first paragraph of a newspaper article usually sums up the whole story.

Headlines can also be hard to decipher. They often use puns or cultural references. This is particularly true of tabloid newspapers, which you might think would use simpler language, but are in fact about the hardest to decipher.

If we are going to work with news articles, students need some help and training in understanding the features of the genre. For example, the headline can be frequently confusing, but there is often a subheadline to make things clearer.

We need to deliver to students that the first paragraph nearly always contains what journalists call the 5 Ws (who, what, when, where and why). Getting students to try and find the 5 Ws (or as many as possible), just using the headline and first paragraph, is a way of leading them into the rest of the text, which usually just adds detail to these main points.

Another common feature is the use of reference devices. Obviously, we find these in all texts, but because of the concise way newspaper texts are written, it can be particularly hard to follow the chain of reference. To help students with this, we could ask them to underline the reference words and then draw arrows to what they refer to.

There are a lot of idioms, especially in the tabloids. We can ask the learners to underline any idioms they find and look them up. They could then try and rewrite the article (or a section of it) without any idioms, putting the original idioms in a list below. If the students have read different texts, they could then swap and ask their partner to try and rewrite the article using the list of idioms given.

4 Assignments

Comprehension questions are important and we can achieve the goal by asking the '5Ws' questions outlined above. Other possibilities:

- Ask learners to choose, say, no more than five sentences that seem to carry the main points of the article. This can then be checked by a peer.
- Ask learners to rewrite a short article, changing some of the information to make it a lie. A partner then reads it and spots the lies.
- Ask learners to write their own headlines, and talk to decide on the best one (which will involve discussing the content of the text).

Along with emerging teaching methodologies there still remain the old ones. They can be obsolete but still in use by some of us. How can we mix modern language teaching methods for maximum student success?

We do not think that we need radical changes, elimination of the old methods and creating something new. Sometimes, a smart update is necessary to turn something good into something great. What useful updates can be brought to our own classrooms? What are their pros and cons?

5. Methods and Approaches to Use Sources under Study

The Audio-lingual Method

As modern language teaching methods go, this is one of the older ones. Teachers begin by systematically teaching the sounds of the target language. Then, we drill sentence structure in order to give students a thorough grounding in correct pronunciation and sentence formation.

As with the **Direct Method**, instruction is almost completely in the target language and explanations of grammar are minimal. The pros are: students get lots of exposure to vocabulary in an authentic context. And the cons: hypothetically, drills, repetition and memorization can become boring if you do them all the time.

The Cognitive-code Approach

Contrary to audio-lingual method, essential language structures can and should be explicitly laid out by the teacher. For instance, teaching a lesson about the past tense, you might start with a brief explanation and then present the students with several dialogues or passages in which the past tense is used. Students will learn grammar rules through these examples rather than explicit instruction.

Pros: this approach allows students to master grammatical structures in a more natural way than through the Grammar Translation method.

Cons: it is difficult to assess student learning with this model.

Communicative Approach is concerned with the use of language for meaningful communication. It is very learner-centered, relying on authentic materials. Instead of structures, the emphasis is on practical skills for conveying and understanding meaning.

This approach facilitates a harmonious teacher-student relationship. It also tends to build student interest. At the same time the lack of emphasis on structure and syntax can feel disorderly and illogical.

In the **Task-based Approach** language use is driven by tasks that students must accomplish. The teacher gives directions for a task and the students then work in pairs or small groups to accomplish it in the target language, reporting back to the whole class when finished.

Pros: This approach encourages students to be active and engaged in their learning. It also builds a sense of community and cooperation. But if this method is used at the exclusion of all others, it can result in gaps in student learning, as they'll only learn vocabulary related to the accomplishment of specific tasks.

Total Physical Response (TPR) channels the natural energy of students into active, engaging lessons: students learn vocabulary through physical examples, such as holding up objects or acting out words. Lessons involve lots of movement.

Pros: Full use of the often untapped connection between movement and memory. However, it is difficult to teach vocabulary for academic or abstract concepts with this method.

The Natural Approach

In this approach, students learn through students learn to speak before they learn to write. A typical lesson might involve viewing pictures while the teacher repeats the word, then listening to recordings of these words used in a comprehensible dialogue.

Pros: The natural approach facilitates spontaneous interactions in the target language.

At the same time this method requires a simulation of real-life settings, which can be difficult.

In English language teaching (ELT) resources now one can notice some new ideas, such as *spaced repetition*, which involves keeping track of a lot of words. More and more language-learning apps use the principles of spaced repetition, such as *Lingopolis* (a new vocabulary game powered by Cambridge Dictionaries that is designed to make English vocabulary learning fun, social and fast) or *Olive Green* (The axis of this language course is a 3-hour interactive action film, divided into 60 episodes. While watching, you can decide what course the action will take, as well as solve games and language puzzles to proceed).

Digitalisation is affecting ELT resources, *connecting learners with the outside world*. Students nowadays have access to an incredible amount of English-language material online. But while this is clearly beneficial, it can also be a bit overwhelming. Teachers may also have a lot of problems while finding, selecting and preparing materials.

To help us, more and more sites adapt materials for students. *Easier English Wiki* provides students (and teachers) with free materials based on articles from *New Internationalist* magazine. *News mart* is an app that uses daily, up-to-date content from the *Wall Street Journal* to teach language and develop reading and listening skills.

The growth in more specialised ELT materials can be seen written for specific groups of learners. Take Dr Chris Lima's *EAP Shakespeare* materials, nominated for the Macmillan Award for New Talent in Writing.

Teachers are starting to create materials. Web tools and access to authentic materials online mean that teachers can create courses tailored to the specific needs and interests of their students.

But not all the latest trends rely on technology. A very noticeable trend is towards *more creativity in the classroom*. *The C Group* is a group of ELT teachers and materials writers dedicated to encouraging creativity in the classroom.

Creativity is often about seeing things from a new perspective. The 21st-century skills are used to refer to skills that are felt to be of particular importance in today's world. *Oxford Discover* is based on the 'four Cs' (critical thinking, communication, collaboration and creativity). Another example is the *Macmillan Life Skills* series, which treats broader soft skills such as raising self-awareness, and influencing and managing others.

6. Conclusions

With all these trends we are sure to look forward to the future education positively in a solid belief that both students and their educators are engaged in one noble activity: creating the person of the third millennium. It is needless to state that the above mentioned approaches and methods are not the only methods to take into account.

Acknowledgement

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Sitography

1. <https://www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/how-can-film-help-you-teach-or-learn-english>
2. <https://www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/how-use-newspaper-articles-language-class>
3. <https://www.fluentu.com/blog/educator/modern-language-teaching-methods/>
4. <https://www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/whats-new-english-language-teaching>

LINGUISTIC AND METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF LAW-STUDENTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS FORMATION

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Abstract. This paper is a contribution to the discussion and analysis of the law-students' English language professionally directed communicative skills formation. This article examines methodological and linguistic issues of skills' formation and abilities' development of adequate English-language professional communication of law-students studying English at the Law institute, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University). This paper's actuality and relevance is based on the need for equal involvement of law students with different levels of language competence into the studying process. The paper's primary purposes are *to identify* the effectiveness of the applied Socratic method and the method of role-playing games (moot court/ mock trial) and expediency of their implementation in formation English-language professionally directed communication skills of law students studying in a multicultural environment (CIS, Afghanistan, Colombia, Cyprus, Iran, Mongolia, Syria, Vietnam) and *to analyse* some frequently used English terminology. To achieve this goal, a descriptive analysis is proposed as a means of presenting key concepts. The methodological bases of the paper are the conceptual provisions of Russian and foreign researchers in the field of theory and methodology of teaching foreign languages, intercultural interaction, methods of modern educational technologies usage in the learning process. The results of the study may be implemented in the system of teaching foreign languages at non-linguistic universities because the students developed their abilities to discuss legal information, comment on it keeping in mind issues of disputes, they got used to fast-thinking and articulating professional issues in English convincingly. Acknowledgement of the described experience of these methods implementation in teaching professional communication to law-students studying in multinational environment can be useful in further development of effective teaching methods.

Key words: English-language professionally directed communication; Socratic method; Moot court; Mock trial; Law institute.

1. Introduction

The specificity of professional activity of modern lawyers means not only work with the legislation, but also representation of clients in courts and state

bodies or support at the process of corporate negotiations. Many lawyers in the field of international law need to carry out these activities in a foreign language, for example, in English. In this regard, the formation of skills and the development of the abilities of correct and convincing English-language professionally directed communication is one of the key issues of legal education. In the process of teaching English, attention should be paid to the development of skills of legal information and concepts presentation as well as writing abstracts, reports on legal issues or legal processes, and the ability to answer various legal questions. The paper touches upon the issues of skills' formation and abilities' development of adequate English-language professional communication of law-students studying English in a multicultural environment (CIS, Afghanistan, Colombia, Cyprus, Iran, Mongolia, Syria, Vietnam) at the Law institute, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University). The experience of using the Socratic method and the method of role-playing games (moot court/ mock trial), proving the effectiveness and expediency of their implementation in formation of law students' English-language professionally directed communicative skills is analyzed and considered.

2. Objective

The objective of this article is to demonstrate that the implementation of Socratic method and the method of role games (moot court / mock trial) are effective methods of forming English-language professionally directed communication skills of law students studying English at the Institute of Law, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University). To achieve this goal, a descriptive analysis is proposed as a means of presenting key concepts.

3. Methodology

The methodological basis of this work are the conceptual provisions of Russian and foreign researchers in the field of theory and methodology of teaching foreign languages and intercultural communication, the theory of speech activity, the provisions of scientific papers on psychology and methodology of teaching foreign languages in non-linguistic universities, communicative and cognitive approaches to teaching foreign languages, methods of preparing students for productive self-studies, theory and methods of modern educational technologies application in the learning process. In the research on the methods of teaching foreign languages of Russian and foreign scientists Bim I.L. [1-2]; Zimnyaya I.A. [3-4]; Leontiev A.A. [5-6]; Passov E.I. [7]; Hutchinson T. & Waters A. [8]; Widdowson G. G. [9], there is stressed the need to take into account the so-called model of a specialist, to form actual professional skills, to organize the process of teaching a foreign language and to create conditions for mastering language skills of students in the context of professionally oriented activities. The problem of the law students' English

language communicative skills formation is still actual for the professors teaching bachelors studying at non-linguistic universities. Being widely used by the teachers of Law faculties and universities in Russia, Socratic method became quite popular in the process of teaching English to law students; it presupposes the task of revealing the truth in the process of conversation, discussion and debate; that is, the teacher divides the statement into small segments and presents each of them in the form of a question that implies a short, simple and predictable answer. In fact, this is a shortened, well-organized dialogue with the interception of the initiative. The obvious advantages of using the Socratic method in the process of forming professionally directed English language communicative skills of law students is stated in this paper. The students can keep the interlocutor's attention not allowing him to distract but stay involved into the process of a professional dialogue; so the students can come to the right conclusions, reasoning and arguing their conclusions in the process of argument or discussion. Normally, the process is organized by the teacher illogically and unconvincingly so that the students could get to the right decision themselves. One of the methods of active learning in law schools is the imitation of lawsuits (in the US and UK, the moot court / mock trial). The form of training like imitation of litigation includes the preparation of a legal position on the case and its presentation to court by two rival teams. In the United Kingdom, the United States of America, other foreign countries, and increasingly in Russia, imitation of litigation in various branches of law is an important component of the training system, focused on the development of various abilities and the formation of professionally oriented skills of students studying at law universities.

3. Main Arguments, Results and Discussion

It is logical to assume that the Socratic method is widely used, since it is a fairly good educational tool, its implementation in the process of teaching English for special purposes to the students at the Institute of Law, RUDN University helps to form their communication skills. The most obvious advantage is that students get used to quick thinking and formulating professional questions in English. The questions asked by the teacher of English during classroom activities must be formulated to demonstrate the students' understanding of legal issues in the process of solving a particular case. They cannot prepare for the answers in advance, because they do not know the questions I ask, so they should respond to them as they arise. Inexperienced in discussions, argumentation and analysis, law students find themselves in a difficult situation, because Socrates' method sets them to thoroughly and adequately communicate on the subject matter of legal issues, therefore they prepare for real professional interaction in English in courts, state bodies, to

deliver a public speech and make official statements. Adaptation and implementation of Socrates' method in the Russian system of education, especially in teaching the English language at the Institute of Law, is relevant for the training of general practitioners and especially lawyers in the field of international law. Socratic method to find out the truth in the process of solving a particular case allows to form the students' skills of thinking and analysis, argumentation and oratory in English, adhering to the legal style of thinking of foreign specialists. The Socratic method of conducting the dispute in English is effective in order to deepen the professional knowledge of the lawyer, because in the process of training, law students improve their skills and abilities to consider this legal problem in various aspects.

Another effective method of teaching English to law students at non-language universities is the role play (moot court / mock trial). This is a dynamic series of interrelated simulated problem situations and a chain of symbolic actions of the participants in the game in accordance with the goal and rules set to obtain a logical sequence of decision-making. The rules of the role-playing game in English determine the process of interaction of players - legal students, there are also some limitations, but within this framework, participants can show their individual abilities. The clarity of the task and the formal rules of the role-playing game should not exclude the freedom of individual behavior of players - legal students. Moreover, these rules stimulate the development of creativity, initiative; create prerequisites for making more effective decisions. Participating in the role-playing game law students of the Institute of Law, RUDN University made full use of their personal abilities, professionally oriented knowledge in the conditions of creative interaction in the English language. In each role-playing game, real-life or fictional situations were modeled as close to modern reality as possible. Communication of participants in the game was always motivated; each of them acted out their given roles. Participating in role-playing games in English while studying the program material on the themes "Judiciary", "Judges", "Courts' activities", law students followed certain rules, namely, adapted to a specific role in a typical situation that could occur outside the audience in real life, interacted and behaved as close as possible to natural conditions, adequately participated in interaction according to the specified behavioral roles of classmates at the same time focusing on the process itself and on linguistic means of communication. The main features of the role-playing game in English are the existence of a problem situation, which contains a cognitive conflict based on a certain legal issue, as well as set by the rules characters - players of roles that have different significance in the discussed issues. The role-playing games in English helped the law students to develop various skills including perception, acceptance and fulfillment of a given role.

Participating in the above activities, the law students were trained to orient themselves in a problem situation in accordance with the roles of partners; to choose appropriate verbal and non-verbal means of communication; to formulate legal problems and suggest ways to solve them, based on current legislation; to defend their points of view in the content of the issues discussed, if necessary, incline to a compromise and find ways of eliminating the conflict. It is necessary to emphasize the development of reflection skills, expressions of gratitude, requests, consent, objections, etc., the ability to change the tactics of their behavior in accordance with the situation and communication strategy when it is appropriate to use speech and etiquette formulas, to apply the formulas of appeals adopted in the legal sphere.

4. Conclusion

Using the Socratic method and the role play method (moot court / mock trial) in the formation of the English language professionally directed communicative skills of law students proves the effectiveness and expediency of their implementation. It is also a powerful tool for upbringing and self-education of law students of the Institute of Law, RUDN University as it prepares them for real professional interaction, since games are based on real-life legal situations. Participation in them provokes some difficulties, overcoming which law students use their creative and organizational skills, flexibility, ability to adapt to real-time situations; they adjust to motivated and quick decision-making. The implementation of the Socratic method and the role play method ensures high efficiency of teaching English for special purposes, especially, the process of formation of law students' English-language professionally directed communicative skills, in particular, necessary for bachelors studying English in a multicultural environment (CIS, Afghanistan, Colombia, Cyprus, Iran, Mongolia, Syria, Vietnam) at the Institute of Law, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University).

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**TERMINOLOGY AS MIRROR OF NATIONAL HISTORY AND
DOMAIN SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE: SOUTH KOREA'S
EXPERIENCE IN TERMINOLOGY STUDIES**

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Abstract. The paper explores the development of Korean terminology with particular trends and developments thereof in South Korea. The research goal is to analyze peculiarities of the Korean language terminology development, to identify those tools for its investigation that might be useful for further teaching of Korean terminology to foreigner. The paper start with the hypotheses that the teaching activities to develop students' competence in South Korean terminology in whatever domain of knowledge should rest on the integrated approach, that coves understanding of historical and sociocultural data, international dimensions of knowledge production and its concepts verbalization through terms, digital interlingual corpora support.

Bearing in mind the above the paper explores the specifics of the Korean language development, its current trends, institutions that deal with modern language policy and terminology issues in South Korea. Special emphasis is laid on the institutions and activities that accumulate digital tools to process multilingual terminology banks. A special part of the analysis focused on South Korean terminology acquisition issues. A brief survey was conducted to identify thoughts and opinions of Russian teachers of Korean while dealing with terminology training.

The conclusion maps those approaches that should be taken into account while teaching terminology to foreign students.

Key words: Korean language, terminology, digital technologies, LSP

1. Introduction

Terms and terminology in general have been the subject of research by many linguists across the world.

Scholars agree that there is not a single branch of a random accumulation of terms [systematically unrelated and unorganized], because in any sphere the objects and their attributes are correlated and connected, therefore, the concepts of this area of knowledge are systematically organized.

Thus, the correlation of the term with the branches of people's labor activity serves as the basis for typological division and description of terminological systems. All terms of one branch of knowledge or professional activity form a single whole of elements [terms], necessarily interrelated on an extralinguistic (conceptual or subjective) level that is subject to the hierarchy that is formed subsystems consisting of series of terms united by some type of connection.

Despite the fact that within the terminological word-formation, there are cases when new language terms are formed according to original models, on the whole, terminological word-formation repeats the word-formation patterns inherent in the non-specialized vocabulary of the literary language. New word-formation types and methods of term use basic terms, expanding the word-building capabilities of the literary language.

Recognition of terminology as part of the language system is difficult to challenge but there is huge variety of interpretations and definitions regarding the concept of term.

In order to carry out further research the present research understands the term as a word or phrase that maps the concept of a special sphere of knowledge or activity and functions in a given field with a definite meaning.

The term concentrates a certain level of knowledge about the concept, its attributes, properties, connections. The term represents the scientific concept in speech, the result of the logical category being fixed in verbal form.

Terminology is in a constant movement: the views of scientists are changing on the nature and scope of a particular science, as a result, some terms disappear, others appear; as a result, different strata appear in the terminology.

Extralinguistic factors at the present stage are favorable for the further development of terminology, the diversity of the directions of modern science and research leads to the fact that terms in various languages are subject to multilateral linguistic analysis. However, despite the multidimensionality and sometimes even contradictory approaches to the terminology and terminology, the unifying and standardization of terminology should become the decisive component of scientific research.

The above state of affairs explains different approaches that exist within terminology studies, including discussion and development general issues within theory of terminology [26], focus on sociolinguistic approach to terminology studies [6], communicative angle of terminology [2], sociocognitive approach to terminology analysis [22], and frame-based studies of terminology development [5].

On the other hand it should be mentioned that modern theories of foreign language learning lay specific emphasis on the importance for students to master terminology that refers to their particular field of future professions

From the angle of didactics and foreign language teaching, the last three approaches seem to be of current importance as they provide practical implications for both the teacher and students, regarding the terms selection for appropriate contexts, students' language mastery level, and cognitive abilities. The above parameters are in the focus of foreign language teachers' analysis [14].

Although it should be mentioned that the didactics for terminology acquisition process depends on the relevant branch development in the concrete national language studies within historic and cultural contexts.

The goal of the present research is to explore the grounds and peculiarities of the Korean language terminology development and current tools for its investigation that might be relevant to identify possible difficulties and successful ways for the teacher to develop relevant sources and methodology and for the student to learn the necessary terminology.

The research hypothesis states that the teaching activities to develop students' competence in South Korean terminology in whatever domain of knowledge should rest on the integrated approach, that covers understanding of historical and sociocultural data, international dimensions of knowledge production and its concepts verbalization through terms, digital interlingual corpora support.

The research methodology design derives from the goal. The above goal requires understanding the current state of affairs and development trends in the Korean language terminology studies. Therefore the present paper produces mostly results of desk research. The next two sections include a brief overview of factors that influenced the development of modern terminology in the Republic of Korea and the analysis of technological support for terminology studies. As part of the research a brief survey was conducted to get comments from Russian teachers of Korean regarding the difficulties with terminology acquisition. 16 respondents took part in the free style interviews.

2. Factors that Influenced the Development of Modern Terminology in the Republic of Korea

The development of any language is determined by the interaction of intra-linguistic and extra-linguistic factors that exert the most direct influence on the entire linguistic system, and its terminology development, in particular.

Korean is the native language of Koreans who live on the Korean peninsula and beyond [13].

The Korean alphabet, commonly known as han'gul was invented in 1443 and promulgated in 1446 by King Sejong [1418-1450], sage ruler of the Yi dynasty [1392-1910] [12].

Although Chinese writing for many centuries performed for the countries of the region the same role as Latin in Medieval Europe. The actual recognition of the status of the national language took place only in the 19th century [23,17].

In the first decade of the 20th century the founder of Korean scientific linguistics, Ju Si-Gyeong, developed the doctrine of the Korean grammar and Phonetics.

Further there were attempts to protect the Korean language from the pressure of Japanese language [21], though indirect influence of the "Japanization" policy can be characterized by the fact that on the wave of national strive to protect the national language. The Dictionary of the Korean Language was published in 1938 and then revised and reprinted, gaining increasing fame, becoming the first and authoritative source of Korean lexicography.

However, after the formation of two independent states, the Korean language got split between two nations, two Koreas have been divided for over 70 years due to the differences in political

systems. Because of the long period of separation and absence of communication between the countries, the languages of each Korea have developed in their own ways.

Regarding the language development in the south Korea it could be mentioned that the decade of the 1980s can be called the period when the Korean language became actively replenished with borrowings from the English language, possibly due to the fact that many students began to receive education in the United States, and the percentage of English-speaking citizens increased significantly.

Due to the understanding of the language studies and policy importance, Research Institute of Korean Language was established "for the purpose of developing the Korean language, improving the language-life of the people and administering research activities" in 1984, further was renamed several times

and today operates as the National Institute of Korean Language that aims to promote research, development and teaching of the Korean Language.

The 1990s are marked by rapid social changes, the Republic of Korea strengthens its ties with the countries of America, Europe, Asia and Africa, joins WTO, organizes the World Technical Exhibition "EXPO-93".

The above patterns in the Korean language historical development explain the current status of Korean terminology and trends in terminology research, studies and teaching activities.

In recent studies conducted by the International Organization of Standards, it turned out that lexical differences between the South and the North, formed "over 50 years are about 50 thousand units" [20]. The same concerns specialized terminology. Medical terminology can be taken as an example. Researches point out in the case of South Korea and North Korea, medical terminologies started to diverge because of the division into two distinct sociopolitical systems, education systems, and differences in academic exchange with foreign countries [7].

Bearing in mind the above information we can make preliminary conclusions that South Korean terminology intensively develops in the late 20th and 21st centuries. Moreover, with the advent of the age of high technology and the Internet, the age of globalization and informatization, in the South language processes have acquired other forms and trends of development than in the North that stands apart from intensive international integration and globalization.

However, it should be underlined that terminology studies bear applied and not strongly theoretical focus. This angle can be really useful in terms of multilingual development of national industry and economy[24].

3. Technology and Terminology Studies Development in the Republic of Korea

The understanding of importance to study and explore South Korean terminology for applied purposes led to the establishment of KORTERM-Korea Terminology Research Center for Language and Knowledge Engineering at the Department of Computer Science, Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology in 1998 [15].

This institution was set up as a response to meet those challenges that arise in the digital era, when "new terminology has swept into the lives of people in general" [Choi, 2003]. Scholars point out that today terminology research and processing has become one of vital necessities as Korea neighbors with China, Japan, North Korea and Russia, communicates with many other countries. The above means that documents and communication process encounter localization and "harmonization problems among these geographical regions as well as the language unification problem with South/North Korea [3].

According to Key-Sun Choi and Young-Soog Chae, 90% of Korean terms derive from foreign languages, including English, Japanese, and other European languages [4]. Therefore, every term should be translated or transliterated to Korean [8].

When KORTERM researches build up the corpus, they underline that “bilingual texts are preferably selected through comparative analysis and terms further pass through several tests, etc.[4].

Another trend in South Korean terminology studies development refers to “the ongoing national dictionary development project, and online dictionary development, using corpus data for lexical analysis” [11].

Bilingual communication is always a tricky issue. This can be proved by the research findings provided by a team of researchers who found that satisfaction among Korean public institutions with the outcomes of bilingual documents production did not reach 60% [16, 19], among the reasons not sufficient quality of terminology and administrative culture bound concepts are mentioned.

This figure confirms the importance integrating the data from the dictionaries, parallel corpora and term banks to reach the interlingual communication goals in particular domains.

4. South Korean Terminology Acquisition Issues

While turning to issues in acquisition of South Korean terminology we come into the real of language for specific purposes training [LSP] within which the domain dependent terminology is taught and learnt

The search through reaching/learning resources on Korean for Specific Purposes reveals that there are some language for specific purposes textbooks and resources, including, for instance., those for healthcare workers [9], see also *naver* links in the sitography section. The comprehensive materials for diplomats and specialists in international relations have been developed by professors of Moscow State Institute [university] of International relations. Although we have to acknowledge that the Korean language has not become a wide spread subject among LSP learners. A brief survey to get comments from Russian teachers of Korean regarding their students’ difficulties with terminology acquisition reveal that teachers themselves use the data from on-line dictionaries, corpora and other sources to collect material for terminology training. Moreover, teachers confirmed they informed students about such sources. Moreover, there are cases when it is students and not a teacher that discover new useful link.

At the same time, teachers pointed out that sometimes there was lack of information regarding particular terminology in the field of law, or engineering.

Among major problems related to the organizational issues teachers mentioned the following possible negative situations that are subject to their control and consistent monitoring:

- students limit themselves with the dictionary which sometimes provides little information on the term meaning and use specific issues
- students do not refer to corpora & encyclopedia sources
- students do not spend their time on specific comparative analysis of a particular term within bilingual or multilingual context.

On the other hand respondents mentioned that they did not have time to discuss these issues during classroom activities and the above things should better be organized through flipped classroom mode. Such an approach correlate with the general observations by scholars regarding flipped classroom based model for Korean learning [10, 25].

5. Conclusions

The study makes it possible to sum up that Korean terminology studies are on the rise, the advance in research and production of term banks and parallel corpora speeds up due to active international engagement and international digital breakthrough that the country is part of.

The approaches to terminology studies and terminology development in South Korea rest on careful analysis of historical, social, cultural, domain specific issues.

Digital processing and development of multilingual terminology stands in the focus on the national language policy regarding both lexicography and terminology.

The analysis confirms the that teaching activities to develop students' competence in South Korean terminology should rest on the integrated approach, that covers understanding of historical and sociocultural data, international dimensions of knowledge production and its concepts verbalization through terms, digital interlingual corpora support.

Further study should be conducted regarding the linguistics and didactics specifics of domain-specific terminology in various industries to speed up students' acquisition of particular terminology field.

A course on Korean language for specific purposes should include links to the relevant corpora and bilingual dictionaries. The terminology training should exploit the benefits of flipped classroom model to provide students with opportunity to learn the necessity concepts in an most suitable individual mode of studies with further classroom-based activities aimed to practice terminology in quasi professional settings.

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Sitography

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EXPRESSIVE MEANS IN MODERN IRONIC POLITICAL DISCOURSE

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Abstract. The paper focuses on the use of irony and humour in modern political discourse and explores the recent trends in the use of expressive means. Due to its shift from official style to entertainment, political discourse of recent years undergoes various changes in lexical and stylistic spheres. Its features, such as theatricality, destructiveness, ironic character – presuppose frequent use of metaphor, wordplay, ironic comparison etc. The author illustrates the use and peculiarities of the expressive means by numerous examples. The material analyzed contains speeches of English and American politicians of the recent years. The analysis of speeches shows the efficiency of those statesmen, who often use irony. The conclusion is drawn that the use of expressive language not only makes a politician's speech more efficient, but contributes to his/her image and charisma. Thus, irony is regarded as an integral part of a successful leader's image. The analysis of politicians' speeches shows the efficiency of those who often use irony.

Key words: Political Discourse, Irony, Humour, Expressive Means, Metaphor, Wordplay, Ironic Comparison.

1. Introduction

Political discourse in modern society is undergoing a number of changes. The traditional official style has given way in favour of a talk-show manner; it has also acquired the features of entertainment, theatricality, showing off. The need to inform public is replaced by the intention to amaze and shock it, which is reflected in the choice of certain expressive means and stylistic devices.

In this paper I will first speak about the use of irony and humour in political discourse, touch upon their role and functions; then proceed to language means which help to convey irony, namely metaphor, comparison and wordplay. In conclusion I will try to establish a connection between the wide usage of expressive means in ironic political discourse and the effect made on the addressee, which contributes to positive politician's image. 1

2. Research and Methodology

In terms of power, political discourse is an ideal instrument of convincing, manipulating and, ultimately, influencing and controlling people. According to critical discourse analysis (CDA), language itself creates power hierarchy,

constructs ideology and determines politics [1, 2, 3]. Currently political discourse tends to use new ways of attracting attention and winning proponents. It turns to be theatrical, playful, more emotional than before, shocking and even full of fun [4, 5, 6, 7].

Political language reflects the existing reality, changes it and is involved in the change itself. Each turn in the life of society brings about innovations in linguistic sphere, which affect lexis and stylistics. New symbols, metaphors, phraseological units are used by politicians to rule and withhold power [8]. Thus, the development of political language and political reality are closely connected. **The goal** of this research is to analyze the role of irony in recent political speeches of English and American politicians and single out expressive means in ironic political discourse.

The hypothesis is: wide usage of irony, expressed through different language means, makes the speech more effective and contributes positively to the politician's image and charisma.

3. Irony and Humour in Political Discourse

Modern scholars recognize that irony and humour are powerful tools in interpersonal communication for different types of speakers. These instruments are efficient when used by experienced rhetors: "Laughter and irony are two interpersonal weapons that are commonly used in relations with different types of interlocutors, especially among the more skillful and charismatic politicians" [9: 417]. Even some decades ago it was observed that the nature of political humour is variable and can be adjusted to circumstances: "Political humour is public property reworked and applied to new situations over and over again" [10: 25].

However, mocking at the opponent is nothing new in political discourse. Laughter has always been a way to demoralize enemies. This line of behaviour can be regarded as a kind of agreement between the speaker and the audience, which aims at excluding the opponent from communication as the one, not deserving any attention [11: 4]. It contributes to destructiveness and aggression in political discourse, which is most vividly shown in the division "us" – "them" [2, 3].

On the other hand, irony and humour can perform positive roles and optimize interpersonal relations: discharge tension, save face, produce a favourable impression.

Researchers remark that they can help the speaker in different situations – from preelection campaigns to difficult interviews [12]. Humorous and ironic component creates an impression of spontaneous unprepared speech and makes a beneficial effect. British linguists state that the significance of humour in modern society has increased: "Humour... plays such a key role in the

maintenance of social life... much more important than social theorists have often assumed” [13: 236]. This is proved by the growing interest to humour and irony on behalf of linguists and a vast number of works

devoted to this subject at the beginning of the XXI century. Researchers of American political humour point out ambiguous attitude to it in society.

On the one hand, humour is a source of pleasure and an antidote to stress. On the other hand, it may tell the truth or a lie, disguise or accentuate the problem, give rise to love or hatred [14]. This contradiction is reflected in two opposite tendencies existing on the American political arena: integrating humour consciously in political life and resenting humour.

Apart from power desacralizing, political humour ensures comfortable communication between a politician and his audience. Irony, which is a part of humour, but at the same time has its own sphere, is more critical and directed to a definite object. Specialists point to a special role of irony in conflict political genres, such as parliamentary or pre-election debates [9]. Ironic speaker is more appealing to the audience by the skill to mock, criticize and parody, than his/her opponent, devoid of irony. Irony is an ideological notion, as well as a linguistic phenomenon. Ironic political discourse turns the listener from a passive participant into an active doer, instigates interpreting information in an active way. The use of irony requires a wide range of expressive means, such as metaphor, metonymy, hyperbole, understatement, wordplay, comparisons etc. The more skillful the speaker, the richer his speech is: “charismatic political leaders are closely associated with the skillful use of some figures of speech, such as metaphors, irony, humour and emotional discourse, as well as linguistic devices aimed at emphasizing the rhetorical effect in their audiences, like groupings of threes, parallels, inversions, repetitions, and so on” [9: 426].

4. Expressive Means – Examples and Commentary

From all the variety of expressive means the most widely used in political discourse are: metaphor, ironic comparison and wordplay.

4.1 Metaphor

Metaphor reflects the peculiarities of national mentality, stereotypes, and points out the weak points and conflicting spheres. It is a very important expressive means ‘the most relevant of the figures of speech used in political discourse’ [9: 416], which strengthens the arguments of the speaker and arises the interest of the audience. The role of metaphors is intensified by their longevity: “metaphors have the capacity to remain in the collective consciousness for a long time after they have been coined” [9:416]. They involve collaboration between the author and the recipient [15, 16], their character and frequency of usage depend a lot on the addressee. Researchers point out several topics, touched upon in metaphoric usage: war [17, 18], sport

(mainly box and baseball in American political discourse, cricket in British political discourse) [Gibbs 1994], criminal sphere, diseases: "Metaphors of disease have recently played an equally important role in shaping the image of the enemy" [8], animals (especially to divide between "us" and "them") .There is an increase of economic metaphor, particularly the one connected with crisis (*fiscal cliff*, *fiscal waterslide*). Metaphors-nicknames are of special interest. They characterize politicians, emphasizing some of their distinguishing qualities. Such as: *iron lady* (about M.Thatcher), *steel lady*(about T.May – even stronger, than the iron lady), *tough cookie* (D.Trump – about V. Putin), *the old wine in a shiny new bottle* (about the new French president E. Macron) [19].

This type of metaphors can be abusing. For example, Trump's *crooked Hillary* (about H.Clinton), *irrelevant clown*, *super low energy* (about Jeb Bush) are rather aggressive and offending. His metaphor *shithole countries* (meaning countries of the third world) caused a wave of protests in the USA and gave birth to a new sarcastic metaphor *shit for*

brains (addressing Trump himself) [20]. On the other hand, metaphors can be self-ironic, thus, self-protecting, preventing criticism. Like Boris Johnson's mentioning the Russian roots of his name during the meeting with Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs Sergei Lavrov: *I am the first foreign secretary in my office to be called Boris... And I am likely to be the last for some time* [21].

4.2 Ironic comparison

Ironic comparisons make a speech brighter, more emotional, appealing to public. They add to amusing the audience as well as highlighting the personality of the speaker. Using them, the author can save his own face and attack the opponent: *Donald really is as healthy as a horse. You know, the one Vladimir Putin rides aroundon* (H. Clinton – about D. Trump) [22]. *I love Nick Clegg's comment about having no recollection. He sounded like a shopliftercaught with his pockets full* (British MP D. Raab – about his colleague)[23]. *You have to look at the skyline of London with the Shard poking through like a giganticcocktail stick through some super colossal pickled onion to see the extent of Arabinvestment* (B. Johnson, former Mayor of London, about the highest building) [24]. This comparison reflects the scope of financial investment, but the image of an onion and a cocktail stick is rather funny, which reveals an implicit scorn.

These ironic comparisons are based on the images on an animal (horse), a thief in a shop and a vegetable (onion). The images themselves convey a comic note and, when associated with politicians, create an amusing picture, implying parody and criticism. Ironic comparison is a sort of caricature, which highlights certain qualities of the object of irony.

4.3 Wordplay

This is a rather productive way of conveying irony, especially in the English language, with its homonymous lexis, posing great challenge for skillful speakers. For example, D. Trump's daughter Ivanka Trump characterizes her father in the following way, using the two meanings of the phrase "to build bridges": *When it comes to building bridges he can do so figuratively but also has the rare ability to do so literally on time and under budget* [25]. Ironic wordplay can be based upon rhyming words, e.g. *basket of deplorables / basket of adorables* (H. Clinton about Trump's supporters and her own ones). [22].

The wordplay of Boris Johnson is based upon the similar pronunciation of the two words: *We are now celebrating the 400th anniversary of our greatest author who was of course himself a sheikh – Shakespeare. He wrote after all about the perfume of Arabia* [24]. The speech, addressed to Arab ambassadors, creates a comic effect, on the one hand (for it's common knowledge that Shakespeare was not a sheikh). On the other hand, there is a deeper sense, disguised by irony, as the perfume of Arabia is a verse from "Macbeth" – a story about murder and betrayal. Wordplay with combinability may cause additional meaning and create a humorous effect. D. Mitchell, the author for British newspapers *The Observer* и *The Guardian*, uses this strategy while speaking about economic policy: *The BBC instead of referring to "government cuts" used the word "savings". When I say "Cut the crap" do I mean "Save the crap"?* [26]. The phrase is based on the meanings of the words *cut* and *save* and their combinability. The switch from official style to a colloquial one contributes to the ironic effect. Another phrase of this author contains deliberate repetitions which seem to confuse the addressee, but in reality, reveals a simple idea – criticism of the politicians: *However balanced their reports may be, they seem unbalanced to unbalanced individuals, i.e. politicians* [26]. The analyzed material gives vivid examples of emotions and expressiveness in modern political discourse. Various expressive means serve the author to achieve his/her aim.

5. Conclusions

Irony in political discourse is the reflection of modern society's demands and values. It satisfies the need of the audience for entertainment and helps the speaker to highlight his own personality and contribute to charisma. Skillful rhetors use irony and humour to create intimacy with the audience, withhold the attention of the public, accentuating ideas and convincing people. Ironic speakers are more successful than those devoid of irony, for they are more interesting and attractive for the public.

Expressive means, used in political discourse, are variable and perform different functions – from attack and aggression to self-defense and discharging tension. Emotional and expressive speech produces a deep effect on the listeners

and helps the author to reach his/her communicative intention. A special role is played by lexis and phraseology, chosen by the speaker, in creating a certain communicative tone and determining stylistic register. They influence the character and the manner of discourse – it might be colloquial and friendly or official and reserved. The more skillful the speaker, the more emotional his speech is, the more expressive means it contains, the more irony and humour his/her discourse possesses.

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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AMBIGUITY
TOLERANCE AND INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY ACQUISITION OF
ADVANCED EFL LEARNERS THROUGH THE TED APPLICATION**

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Abstract. L2 learners develop a great part of their vocabulary incidentally through exposure to words in informative contexts. The TED application can function as a great source of audiovisual language input to EFL students. However, an L2 environment can appear ambiguous to some learners since the lexical cues may be unfamiliar to them. This study aimed to investigate the relationship between ambiguity tolerance (AT) and incidental vocabulary acquisition via the TED application. The participants were 33 advanced EFL learners whose AT levels were measured at the outset and at the end of the study

by means of two questionnaires. They were exposed to several new words through four TED videos over a 16-session treatment period. The results of the study demonstrated significant improvement in the learners' vocabulary knowledge. However, no significant relationship was found between their AT levels and delayed vocabulary post-test scores. The results of two paired samples t-tests indicated that the differences between the means of the pre- and post-administrations of the questionnaires were not significant for the whole group at the end of the treatment. Similarly, after dividing the participants into three high, mid, and low AT levels, no correlation was found between the AT level of each group and their delayed vocabulary post-test score, either. Nevertheless, the results of six paired samples t-tests demonstrated a significant change in the AT level of the low ambiguity tolerant learners at the end of the treatment.

Key words: Ambiguity Tolerance, Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning, Incidental vocabulary learning, Intentional Vocabulary Learning, TED.

1. Introduction

Vocabulary knowledge is often beheld as an essential tool for second language learners since a limited vocabulary repertoire hinders successful communication and FL acquisition (Alqahtani, 2015). Several studies have recently contributed to collecting valuable evidence demonstrating that technology enhances vocabulary learning, in general, and incidental vocabulary learning and teaching as a by-product of instructional focus, in particular (Martinez & Schmitt, 2012; Ramos & Dario, 2015).

According to Chapelle and Roberts (1986), L2 learners may face four ambiguous situations, namely, novel, complex, insoluble, and unstructured. Given such categories, learners can be classified into three high-, mid-, and low-ambiguity tolerant groups. Since ambiguity is ubiquitous in the process of language learning, it is worth investigating how it might affect the process of vocabulary learning. This study examined the relationship between L2 learners' AT level and incidental vocabulary learning by exposing them to videos of TED conferences, where the topics of Technology, Entertainment, and Design converge. Undoubtedly, to become more proficient, L2 learners need to encounter a large body of vocabulary in the context to learn about the rules of their use and usage, which are essential for effective communication.

2. Incidental and Intentional Vocabulary Learning

Incidental vocabulary learning involves processing some information without students being warned in advance that they will be tested later on their ability to remember that information (Laufer, 2010). Related activities include

looking up unknown words in a dictionary and matching new words with their definitions provided that the learners do not try to memorize those words, although they pay some attention to them. In an intentional learning situation, learners are usually told in advance that their recall will be tested afterwards (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). Additionally, they can impose an intentional condition on themselves by deciding to commit words to memory even though there will be no test later. Laufer (2017) acknowledges the existence of ample evidence suggesting that incidental vocabulary learning effectively occurs through written and oral language input and adds that, for most learners, incidental vocabulary learning is interesting and pleasant since it is likely that they continue doing it on their own.

3. Ambiguity Tolerance

Ambiguity Tolerance is a psychological construct describing the relationship that individuals have with ambiguous stimuli or events (Ely, 1995). For some EFL and ESL learners, ambiguity is what makes language learning exciting, whereas for others this same amount of ambiguity makes learning enormously frustrating and unpleasant. Ely (1995) suggests that ambiguity is considered to result in a kind of uncertainty in language learning which learners experience whenever they cannot pronounce a sound accurately, understand the use of a grammatical structure, or grasp the exact meaning of a word.

Several studies have been conducted on the relationship between AT and various language skills and sub-skills. The results of some demonstrate a significant correlation between AT [levels] and general English scores, whereas the results of a few show no such correlation (Başöz, 2015).

4. CTML and Multimedia Instruction

The Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML) pinpoints the idea that learners try to build meaningful connections between words and pictures and mental representations from them so that they learn more deeply than they could have with only words or pictures per se (Mayer, 2009). Mayer (2010) argues that meaningful connections happens when the learner involves in the following five cognitive processes: 1. selecting relevant words for processing in verbal working memory; 2. selecting relevant images for processing in visual working memory; 3. organizing selected words into a verbal model; 4. organizing selected images into a pictorial model, and 5. integrating the verbal and pictorial representations with each other and with prior knowledge.

Mayer (2009) claims that twelve multimedia principles (seven of which applied in this study) should be taken into account for a better instructional design: redundancy, segmenting, pre-training, multimedia, voice, image principle, and temporal contiguity. According to Ramirez (2016), the students who benefit from multimedia visual aids feel more motivated and confident to

express themselves orally, memorize new vocabulary in an easier way, and have more meaningful learning because of having access to contextualized content. Tiernan (2015) also reports that most L2 learners value the use of videos in academic settings and believe that it has a positive impact on their academic learning experience.

5. Methodology

To fulfil the purpose of this study, the following research questions were raised:

Q1. To what extent does the use of the TED application affect advanced L2 learners' incidental vocabulary learning?

Q2. Is there any relationship between ambiguity tolerance and advanced L2 learners' incidental vocabulary acquisition through the TED application?

5.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 33 (homogeneous in terms of English proficiency) female Certificate of Advanced English (CAE) students aged between 19 and 40 selected from five intact classes in an English language institute in Tehran. They studied the book *Objective Advanced* published by Cambridge University Press during the course.

5.2 Materials, Instrumentation, and Procedure

The instructional materials included the TED application, four TED talks, four vocabulary lists, and four TED video transcripts, which were used for vocabulary instruction. The instruments consisted of an FCE test, McLain's Multiple Stimulus Types Ambiguity Tolerance Scale (II) (2005) to measure general ambiguity tolerance, and Second Language Ambiguity Tolerance Scale (SLATS) developed by Ely (1995) to measure AT for FL learning.

Initially, the FCE test was used to select a homogenous sample. During the 16-session treatment period (each session lasting 105 minutes), the participants were exposed to new words through four TED videos selected from the TED application. Before each video exposure, they took a vocabulary pre-test in order for the researchers to check their knowledge of some of the words used in the video. Then they took a teacher-made MC vocabulary post-test on the words of the watched video. The same procedure was repeated for the other three videos. In line with the objectives of the study, two AT questionnaires were administered before and after the treatment to check the learners' AT not only in general but also with regard to FL learning. At the end of the course, they took one delayed vocabulary post-test including 40 items selected randomly from among the 98 words which had appeared in the pre-tests.

5.3 Data Collection and Analysis

Firstly, four paired samples t-tests were run in order to compare the means of the four vocabulary pre- and post-tests with each other (Table 5.1). The results

revealed that the learners had significantly increased their vocabulary knowledge through utilizing the TED application at the end of the treatment.

Table 5.1. Paired Samples t-test for Vocabulary Pre- and Post-tests.

	M ean	Std. Devia tion	Std. Erro r Mean	95% Confident Interval of the Difference		T	df.	Sig.(2- tailed)
				Lower	Upp er			
T.1	14.39 4	4.415	0.769	12.828	15.9 60	18.7 27	32	0.000
T.2	13.42 4	5.315	0.925	11.539	15.3 08	14.5 09	32	0.000
T.3	12.93 9	3.757	0.654	11.606	14.2 71	19.7 80	32	0.000
T.4	12.81 8	4.680	0.814	11.158	14.4 77	15.7 34	32	0.000

Next, the Pearson Product Moment Formula was used to compute the correlation coefficients between all the learners' final scores on the questionnaires and their delayed vocabulary post-test scores, before dividing the participants into three high, mid, and low AT groups (Table 5.2). No significant correlation was found between the participants' AT score and vocabulary scores.

Table 5.2. Correlations of Questionnaires and Delayed Vocabulary

		SLATS Pre-ad.	SLATS Post-ad.	MSTAT-II Pre-ad.	MSTAT-II Post-ad.
Delaye d Vocab ulary Post- Test		-0.076	-0.131	0.131	0.065
	Pearso n Sig. (2- tailed)	0.673	0.466	0.475	0.722
	N	33	33	32	32

Post-test Scores.

Finally, two K-means cluster analyses were run to divide the participants into three low, mid, and high AT groups based on their scores on the questionnaires. However, no correlation was found between the three groups' AT levels and their post-test vocabulary scores. Meanwhile, the results of six paired samples t-tests demonstrated that the low ambiguity tolerant learners had significantly increased their AT score on the post-administration of the two questionnaires.

5. Conclusions and Discussion

The findings of this study are in line with the CTML denoting that learners try to make meaningful connections between words and pictures so that they can learn more deeply than when they learn with words or pictures per se. They also highlight the contribution of recorded videos to L2 vocabulary acquisition and their unique role in motivating the students to engage with video contents, providing them with access to contexts and examples, and offering worthwhile learning opportunities for a wide variety of learner preferences. Through employing the TED application in EFL classrooms, teachers can create a pleasant context for keeping their learners interested, motivated, and autonomous in the process of language learning.

In this study, no relationship was found between AT and incidental vocabulary learning. This could be attributed to the short duration of the study, boredom with the repeated watching of the videos, vocabulary overload during a short period of time, and lack of interest in or motivation for answering all the questionnaire items accurately. However, it is noted that the focus of this study was on just one aspect of language learning, i.e. incidental vocabulary acquisition, which demands many contributing factors in order to occur. Thus AT as a psychological trait, per se, cannot justify the occurrence of vocabulary acquisition.

The finding of a significant increase in the AT of the low ambiguity tolerant EFL learners confirmed again that such learners need more assistance and encouragement from their teachers in the process of L2 acquisition.

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STRATEGIES TO SAY *YES* AND *NO* ACROSS LANGUAGES: A DISCOURSE-BASED PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

Across languages, polarity particles like *yes* and *no* are often employed as responses to polar questions. This paper discusses the uses of these response particles in the two different answering systems: polarity-based (e.g., English, Swedish, German) and truth-based answering systems (e.g., Korean, Chinese, Japanese). The paper supports the idea that polarity particles are anaphoric in nature and their interpretation is determined by the antecedent evoked by the context. It also suggests that the parametric differences between the two systems have to do with the tight interactions between the anaphoric nature of answering particles and structured-discourse. The paper also looks into the responsive uses of particles in non-polar question environments (e.g., declaratives, imperatives, exclamatives) and shows they function as agreement discourse markers. The paper suggests that such multi-functions of the particles are better accounted for with a discourse-based account rather than a syntax-based one.

Key words: Response particle, Polar question, Polarity-based, Truth-based, Question-under-discussion, Salient proposition

1 Introduction

Polar questions and responses by answering particles like *yes* and *no* are everyday interactions between interlocutors in daily language uses [12,7,2]. Examples like the following are some typical examples in English:

- (1) A: Can you speak Russian?
B: Yes. (=I can speak Russian.)
B': No. (=I cannot speak Russian.)

There are two puzzles in understanding such answer-response systems. The first is how the stand-alone particles such as *yes* and *no* in (1) get sentential interpretations as given in the parentheses. The second puzzle is how answer particles to negative polar questions yield different interpretations depending on the type of answer systems the language adopts. Compare the following English and Korean data:

- (2) A: Aren't you tired today?
B: (#)Yes. (=I am tired today.)
(3) A: onul an phikonhay? (Korean) today not tired?
'Aren't you tired today?'

B: Ung. 'yes' (=I am not tired today.)

What we can observe here is that in English (polarity-based system), when yes serves as a response to the negative polar question, it confirms the positive proposition. Meanwhile, in Korean (truth-based system), the positive particle yes in (3) confirms not the positive but the negative proposition evoked from the negative polar question. This distinctive behavior of the two different answering systems is quite intriguing in terms of descriptive as well as analytic perspectives [7].

This paper looks into the uses of responsive particles across languages (mainly English and Korean) and shows that their grammatical functions are more than answering responses to polar questions. It discusses the uses of response particles as discourse markers as well. The paper first shows that the propositional meaning of the answering particles is not derived from syntactic operations like movement-and-deletion. It rather has to do with the anaphoric nature of the answering particles [4,1,12,14]. The paper suggests that by allowing tight interactions between the anaphoric nature of answer particles and discourse, we could have a more feasible account for the parametric differences between the polarity-based and truth-based systems as well as mixed (polarity-based and truth-based) answering systems that languages (including Russian) adopt. It also suggests that a discourse-based analysis can offer a more straightforward analysis for multi-functions of the answering particles in non-polar question environments.

2 Syntax-based Analyses

2.1 Arguments for syntax-based analyses

As noted earlier, the first puzzle in the analysis of response particles concerns how answering particles like yes and no can have sentential interpretations. Kramer and Rawlins [11] and Holmberg [5,6] suggest that the particles yes and no contain clausal structure that undergoes PF-deletion, assimilating them to elliptical constructions such as fragment answers [13]. In particular, Holmberg [7] first suggests that polar questions all introduce a polarity variable functioning as the head of PolP as given in (4):

(4) [Cp Did[±Pol] [polp the student [±Pol] [Vp come]]]?

Accepting Hamblin's (1973) view that polar questions are propositional abstracts (having the set of alternative propositions p and $\neg p$), Holmberg (2016) argues that the polar question here asks 'What is the value of $[\pm \text{pol}]$ such that the student came?' The answer particle then functions as binding the polarity variable:

(5) [FocP yes[+Pol] [polp the student [| Pol] came]]

The answer particle yes positioning in the Spec of FocP (focus phrase) in the CP domain assigns the affirmative value (for no, negative value) to the polarity

variable of the head Pol. The PolP then undergoes ellipsis, subject to the LF-identity condition between the antecedent and the elided part.

This kind of syntax-based analysis may also account for responses to negative polar questions:

(6) Q: Don't they speak Russian?

A: ?Yes/?Maybe. (=They speak Russian)

A: No/Maybe not. (=They don't speak Russian)

The answer particle no assigns the negative value to the head Pol and then the PolP undergoes clausal ellipsis:

(7) [FocP No[-Pol] [POIP They [Pol] do not speak Russian]]

In this case, the particle no does not negate the proposition (e.g., -[they do not speak Russian]), but agrees with the negation not. This situation is different in examples like the following:

(8) Q: Do they not speak Russian?

A: Yes/Maybe. (=They do not speak Russian)

The key property to note here is that in this case, the answering particle yes does not confirm the positive proposition such that they speak Russian, but it rather agrees with the negative proposition such that they do not speak Russian. Holmberg's syntax account attributes this meaning difference to the status of the negation not here. The key idea is that the negation here is positioned in a lower VP so that it is invisible (or too distant) to the assignment of the polarity value:

(9) [FocP Yes[+Pol] [polp they [| Pol] [vp do not speak Russian]]

As given here, the negation not is embedded within the VP so that it has no involvement in the polarity value. Based on this syntax account, Holmberg [7] suggests that the difference between the truth-based and polarity-based system also has to do with the difference in the structure of negation. Holmberg's key suggestion is three different types of negation across languages: high, middle, and low negation.

(10)

[CP Foc not [PolP [±Pol] [TP ... [NegP not [VP not...]]]]]

Holmberg suggests that in languages like Cantonese or Korean, the negation is assumed to be within a VP so that it does not affect the Pol value. That is, the particle answer yes with the interpretation of yes, she is not diligent would not cause any feature clash in the polarity value. Holmberg claims that with this low negation, negation is distant enough from the unvalued sentential polarity head not to assign value to it. However, in English, the negation in such a case is in high position, and yes cannot be linked to the negative proposition: it must be linked to the positive proposition such that yes she is diligent.

2.2 Issues in syntax-based analyses

As just have seen, the syntax-based account places high emphasis on the interplay of syntactic structures and deletion processes. This seems to work well for simple examples, but an immediate question arises with respect to instances where the polarity value of the answer particle does not match with that of the putative antecedent linked to the polar question.

(11) Q: Does he drink coffee? A: No (Nope). (=He doesn't drink coffee.)

(12) Q: Doesn't he drink coffee? A: Yes, (he does).

For instance, the antecedent in (11) is a positive proposition (see 4) and the head Pol bears positive value. However, the response particle is negative, assigning negative value to the head Pol, thus resulting in a feature clash between these two requirements. A similar situation happens in (12) where the antecedent polar question is negative while the particle is positive. The escape hatch Holmberg [7] adopts is that the negative feature of the negative particle in (11) is interpretable while the one in the putative source clause is uninterpretable (because of its antecedent). As for (12), yes functions as an affirmative focus operator which has no variable to bind since the antecedent is already marked negative. The deletion of PolP would then give an unwanted interpretation. The suggested solution is to alternatively allow TP ellipsis under identity with TP of the antecedent, which makes deletion processes quite complex.

Another issue arises from languages with three-valued response systems. Languages like Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, French, German, and Old English allow one negative response word and two affirmative particles. For instance, in Swedish, there are two positive answer particles, ja and jo, and one negative answer particle nej. The key difference between ja and jo lies in the presupposition of the polar question. Observe the following Swedish examples (data from Fretheim [2]):

(13) A: drackdu upp ditt kaffe?

drank you up your coffee 'Did you drink up your coffee?'

B: nej. 'No. (I didn't.) B' ja. 'Yes.'

(14) A: drack du inte upp ditt kaffe?

drank you not up your coffee 'Did you not drink up your coffee?'

B:

B' B"

nej. 'No. (I didn't.)

#ja. 'Yes.'

jo. 'Yes. (I did.)

The polar question is negative, ja is not natural since it requires the antecedent to pre-suppose a positive polarity proposition, while jo is a proper one which intends to deny A's negative proposition. This implies that syntax alone is not enough to capture the answering systems.

Another issue arising from the syntax-based ellipsis analysis concerns the putative source that undergoes ellipsis. In Holmberg-style analysis, it is crucial to identify the linguistic antecedent linked to the answer. However, note examples like (15) where an answering particle is used with an exophoric antecedent [15]:

(15) (Context: A child is about to touch the socket.) Adult: No!

There is no syntactic identity condition that we can refer to here. It is not possible to identify any overt antecedent at syntax.

The syntactic analysis that hinges on syntactic reconstruction also faces another problem with respect to examples like the following:

(16) A: Did anyone see Mary?

B: Yes. (=Someone saw Mary.)

As pointed out by Ginzburg and Sag [4], simple syntactic reconstruction would yield the ungrammatical example *Anyone saw Mary. There is thus an issue of producing a legitimate reconstructed form.

Another issue concerns the account for the differences between the two answering systems. Holmberg's system suggests that the language with the truth-based system has only low negation. However, in languages like Cantonese, Japanese, and Korean, there are surely examples where the negation is in high position, but still induces the truth-based system (Kim 2016). For instance, the negative copula *ani-ta* 'not-DECL' in Korean is clearly in the high position with respect to the main proposition in question:

(17) a. *Mimi-ka pwucilenha-n kes ani-ci?* (Korean)

Mimi-NOM diligent-MOD thing not-QUE 'Is it not the case that Mimi is diligent?'

b. Ung. 'Yes' (=Mimi is not diligent)

In this example, the negative copula combines with the clause of Mimi's being diligent. The clause introducer *kes* ensures the copula negation in the high position, but the affirmative answer just affirms the negative proposition. Holmberg [7:199], recognizing such a problem for a similar example in Japanese, suggests that such an example involves the high negation as in English.

As the nature of the two answering systems tells us, in the polarity-based system, when the English speaker answers a polar question, the affirmative particle is linked to the truth of the situation under discussion (not the denotation of the polar question) while the negative one is linked to the falsity of the proposition denoted by the situation. Meanwhile, within the truth-based system, the affirmative particle affirms the denotation of the polar question (true or false situation) while the negative particle defines this denotation. This means that

what matters is the anaphoric nature of answering particles in each language (mainly two types), not the position of the negation.

3 A discourse-based interactive approach

Observing the deficiencies in the syntax-based approaches we have discussed, we offer a discourse-based DI (direct interpretation) analysis. What we assume is that discourse is structured around (potentially implicit) Questions Under Discussion (QUD)[3,4]. Some key assumptions include:

- Assertions are always addressing some QUD (There is always a QUD).
- Overt questions introduce a QUD.
- Hearers can infer covert QUD(s).
- There can be multiple QUDs.

Together with these assumptions for QUD, we take that following [4,12], and others, answering particles yes and no function as anaphors that pick up propositional discourse referents (propositional lexemes). We also suggest that the language variation has to do not with the differences in the syntax of negation (the position of NegP) but with the tight interplay between the lexical properties of answer particles in each language and the discourse in context.

3.1 Base-generation and interpretation

The starting point of our analysis is to assume that polar questions and answers particles as response involve no ellipsis but are generated 'as is'. The stand-alone response particles obtain their interpretations on the basis of the surrounding context. In terms of semantics, polar questions are traditionally taken to introduce two propositions, a positive proposition and its negated proposition (p and - p). The response particles yes and no confirm the truth of these two values[5,1,12] among others.

Different from the traditional view, we accept the view that questions are taken as propositional abstracts and polar questions are 0-ary proposition abstracts in which the set of abstracted elements is the empty set as given in (18a)[4,8]. The semantic content of polar questions can also be represented in terms of lambda calculus:

- (18) a. Is Mimi diligent?
b. $\lambda x. \text{diligent}(m)$

Polar questions are thus treated uniformly in terms of an empty parameter (λ) value, but asking the truth value of the propositional meaning. Note that by uttering such a polar question, the context introduces the propositional meaning of a QUD (question-under-discussion) whose value is of type question and represents the question currently under discussion (QUD).

The response particles then anaphorically refer to the propositional meaning evoked by the QUD. That is, we take the particles function as anaphors

to the propositional meaning constructed from the QUD in context. Anaphoricity is often signalled by pro-forms like it, this, one, so, and others:

- (19) a. NP anaphor: [A student] came in. She sang a song.
- b. AP anaphor: Fred was [angry], and so was I.
- c. VP anaphor: Although Sam might do so, I will not [buy a new bike].
- d. S proform: [He is a gentleman]. That is true.

Just like these anaphoric expressions, we also take response particles are propositional anaphors (Ginzburg and Sag 2000, Krifka 2013):

(20) Meaning of the response particles in the polarity-based system

- a. The response particle yes to a polar question: anaphoric to the positive proposition constructed from a QUD and affirms it.
- b. The response particle no to a polar question: anaphoric to the positive proposition constructed from a QUD and disaffirms it.

This in turn means that response particles as well as expressions like maybe, probably, sure, right, and so forth, can have stand-alone uses with a complete propositional meaning constructed from a QUD, as represented in the following:

- (21) S
AFFIRM[diligent(m)]
AdvP
A
yes

This implies that the response with yes yields the value of 'affirming' the propositional value such that Mimi is diligent. The stand alone no will have the similar structure and semantic composition. The isolated particle no is anaphoric to the positive proposition diligent(m) which is constructed from a QUD and disaffirms this proposition.

The analysis for answering a negative question is not different from the one for answering a positive question we have just seen. For instance, the semantic content for Isn't the city attractive? would be something like the following:

- (22) M }[—attractive(c)]

Uttering such a negative question would evoke the QUD of a negative proposition. That is, the salient QUD is a negative one. But what the answering particles refer to is the positive proposition evoked from the QUD. The particle yes is thus to 'affirm' a positive proposition (e.g., AFFIRM[attractive(c)]) while no is to 'disaffirm' a positive proposition (e.g., DISAFFIRM[attractive(c)] = AFFIRM-[attractive(c)]).

3.2 Answering a negative question in the truth-based system

We have seen that languages like Korean use answering particles like ung 'yes' and ani 'no' as a response to the polar question. As we have seen, a key difference from English arises from answers to a negative question:

- (23) A: i mwuncey elyep-ci anh-ci? (Korean)
 this question difficult-coNN not-QUE? 'Isn't this question difficult?'
 B: Ung. 'yes'(=the question is not difficult.)
 B': Ani. 'no'(=the question is difficult.)

Different from English, the affirmative particle ung 'yes' affirms the negative proposition, not the positive proposition. That is, in the Korean system the answer to a negative question confirms or disconfirms the truth of the negative proposition, one key property of the truth-based system.

The key claim of our proposal is that in the truth-based system, what matters is the polarity value of the salient proposition evoked from the context.

- (24) Meaning of the response particles in the truth-based system

- a. The response particle yes to a polar question: anaphoric to the salient (positive or negative) proposition constructed from a QUD and affirms it.
- b. The response particle no to a polar question: anaphoric to the salient proposition constructed from a QUD and disaffirms it.

The salient proposition evoked from a positive polar question is a positive proposition while the one evoked from a negative polar question is a negative proposition. In the truth-based system, answering particles refer to the proposition marked with this polarity value.

- (25) a. Ung. 'yes': AFFIRM[-[difficult(q)]]
 b. Ani. 'no': DISAFFIRM[- [difficult(q)]]

The answering particle ung 'yes' to the negative question asserts the negative proposition not the positive proposition (as does in the polarity-based system) since this is the salient proposition evoked by the polar question. This is why the answer particle yes in Korean to the negative proposition means not 'This problem is difficult' but affirms the proposition 'This problem is not difficult'. Meanwhile, the answer ani 'no' in Korean means discontinuing the not-rel of the proposition 'The problem is difficult'. This has the effect of double negation as given in the following, which makes one clear difference from English.

- (26) AFFIRM[-(difficult(m))]

This means Korean, different from English, may allow a double negation interpretation. Of course, because of a heavy processing load, such an instance is not often used in authentic data [14].

In sum, the present system attributes the difference of the truth-based and the polarity-based system lies in what the answering particles refer to. In the polarity-based system, they refer to the positive proposition, while in the truth-based system, they refer to the salient proposition.

3.3 Three-valued systems

As we have noted, languages like Swedish, French, and German has two different positive particles. Consider the following French data, see Ginzburg :

(27) Q: est ce que Mimi est serieuse?
'Is Mimi diligent?'

A: oui/non/*si

(28) a. est ce que Mimi n'est pas serieuse?
'Isn't Mimi diligent?'

A: *oui/si/non

As seen from the data, French has three answering particles: one negative particle non and two positive answering particles oui and si. The particle oui requires a positive discourse antecedent while si presupposes a negative one.

In the present system, this would then mean that si requires its anaphoric expression to be the salient negative proposition. The particle si, however, cannot be a proper answer to the positive polar question as given in (27). This also shows us the role of the salient proposition evoked by the QUD. What matters is thus not syntax but discourse.

3.4 Response particles as (dis)agreement markers

Note that particles like yes and no can also function as responses to declarative sentences, as observed from the following attested examples:

(29) a. That was a major event. Yes.

b. And here's what I saw, the same pain is everywhere. Yes. The same pain.

(30) a. He's not that much older than you. No. he was only 19 years old.

b. They were ill-suited. But they didn't get a divorce. No. I wish they would have.

When particles are used as responses to assertions, they rather function as agreement markers. That is, yes here expresses the responder's agreement with the antecedent. The difference can be observed from the following (Holmberg 2015, Wiltschko 2017):

(31) A: John speaks Russian very well.

B: Yes/True/Right/That's right.

(32) A: Does John speak Russian very well?

B: Yes/*True/*Right/That's right.

Such data indicate that answering particles have wider distribution possibilities than other forms of discourse agreement markers.

What interests us is that in non-polar question environments, the behavior of the response particles in the polarity-based system is identical to that of those in the truth-based system, as seen from the following English and Korean data:

(33) A: B:

John doesn't study Russian. Yes/True/Right.

(34) A: John-un Resiae-lul kongpwu an hay.

John-TOP Russian-ACC study not do 'John doesn't study Russian.'

B: Ung 'yes'/kulay 'right'.

In both cases, the positive particle yes in English behaves alike the one in Korean: both agrees with the negative proposition:

(35) AGREE[-[study(j,r)]]

This in turn means that cross-linguistically, when the response particles function as agreement or disagreement markers, they behave uniformly, as stated in the following:

(36) Meaning of the response particles in non-polar environments:

The response particle yes is anaphoric to the salient message constructed from a QUD and 'agrees' with it, while no 'disagrees' with it.

Attested corpus examples show us that answering particles are frequently used as responses to declarative statements. They can be employed as responses even to wh-questions, imperatives, and exclamatives, see [16]. Observe the following attested examples:

- (37) a. What are you doing tomorrow? Yes, in Paris.
b. Who's the handsome boy? Yes. Yes, Sweetheart.
c. What do you want now? No, wait, just let me take a wild guess.
d. What's your birth date? No, I'm not asking you how old you are.
- (38) a. Lock her up. That's right. Yes, that's right.
b. Stand there and just watch. Yes.
c. "Give me that bird! he shrieked. "No!" Patricia said.
d. Put your shoes on! No!
- (39) a. What a cheap shot! Yes, that was unnecessary.
b. What a genius he was! Yes. And really in that business.
c. What a schedule! No, no, no!
d. What a mess! No!

The wh-question is asking the value of a variable expressed by the wh-word. Having answering particles as responses to the wh-questions in (37) is not a proper answer, but they have rather (dis)agreement functions in that the responder has the same wh-questions. As given in (38), answering particles are used as responses to imperatives, functioning as agreement markers. The particle yes in (38a) just agrees with the speech act of command, while the particle no in (38d) means no agreement with the command of putting shoes on. In the environment where answering particles are used as responses to exclamatives, they express (dis)agreement with 'facts' described by the exclamatives.

The present system is discourse-based since the information recorded in the QUD plays a key role. This implies that the propositional meaning of answering particles is constructed from a polar question in the context. The analysis then would have no difficulties in picking up a proper meaning of the answering

particle in exophoric cases which we have seen earlier. Consider similar examples:

(40) a. (Context: A job applicant receiving a rejection letter) A: No!

b. (Context: A guy just missed his flight because of one minute late arrival)

A: oh, No!

There is no syntactic identity condition that we can refer to here. It is not possible to identify any overt antecedent at syntax. However, in a discourse-based account, the negative particle can mean that the speaker does not agree with the situation evoked in the context. The interlocutor expresses a strong disagreement with the situation happening. The particle can accompany speech acts like request or command.

3.5 Salient Propositions and answering to alternative questions

In accounting for the multi-functions of answering particles yes and no, we have referred to the notion of 'salient proposition' evoked by the context. This notion of salience plays a key role in describing the difference between simple polar questions and alternative questions:

(41) Q: Does Mimi speak Russian or not?

A: She speaks Russian/She doesn't speak Russian. A': *Yes/*No.

One key property of the alternative questions is that, different from polar questions, they cannot be answered by a single response particle like yes or no. If we adopt Hamblins [5] alternative semantics for questions in which the meaning of question is taken to be a set of propositions (e.g., p and -p), we then encounter a puzzle of why the two semantically identical polar and alternative questions have different answering systems.

Meanwhile, our discourse-based account can offer a simple account. In the present system, alternative questions introduce two salient propositions 'p' and '-p' and proper answers to them would be to refer to these two. This is why we observe the following:

(42) A: Would you like mayonnaise or butter on it? B: Mayonnaise, please./Butter, please.

B': Both, please/Neither, thanks. B'': *Yes./*No.

The proper answer would pick one of the two salient propositions, but the response particles yes or no, anaphoric to only one salient proposition, cannot be proper responses since the context has two salient propositions.

4 Conclusion

We have shown that stand-alone answer particles are just nonsentential utterances with anaphoric nature and their interpretations refer to the context in question. We have also seen that the main difference between the polarity-based and truth-based answering concerns whether the propositional anaphoric expressions refer to the propositional meaning including the negative

quantification or to its nucleus meaning minus the quantification meaning. The former is the truth-based system (e.g., Korean) whereas the latter is the polarity-based system (e.g., English). Thus what matters in polarity answers is the 'anaphoric potential' of the polarity particle and the structured discourse.

We have also seen that answering particles yes and no can answer to polar questions, but they can also be used as responses to non polar questions such as declarative statements, imperatives, and exclamatives. In these environments, they function as discourse agreement markers. These multi-functions of response particles are better accounted for with the notion of structured discourse we have briefly discussed here.

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METAPHOR AND CONCEPTUALIZATION OF REALITY

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Abstract. The article focuses one of the most important field of any language-conceptualization analysis as an exemplified sphere which is produced by the revelation and description of the conceptual metaphoric models peculiarities as connecting thread between brain, mind and culture. The authors point out that the metaphor extreme complexity as a cognitive process is related to the fact that it gets language expression is certain cultural context with the help of embodied consciousness (mind). Based on the performed research of the examples taken from 67 English and American poetic texts, the authors of the paper show that the conceptual metaphor serves for verbalization of those notions, which did not have a verbal expression before.

The research results show that metaphor serves as a tool of thought, with its help we manage to reach the most outlying parts of the conceptual field.

Key words. Language, cognitive process, culture, metaphor, context, verbalization.

1. Introduction

Language study is inseparable from one's interpretation of linguistic factors, associated with conceptualization of occurrences and objects of non-language reality. The conceptualization plays an important role in implementation of

speech and mental process. This role is related to comprehension of both available and being derived information; content detection of the expected (new) statement as well as the intention of the communicant him(her)self. The conceptualization role is also significant for social framework analysis of the statement and social relationship norms.

Even though we use language constantly, we don't normally pay a great deal of attention to it. When we do, it's usually because something has gone wrong or because we are passionate about the topic of speaker. The language we use when we talk to our friends is not the same as the language we use to write a letter of complaint. Thus, language varies depending on the people using it, the task at hand, and the society in which it all takes place [1: 114 -116; 2: 13]. So we should pay a great attention to language conceptualization.

By conceptualization we mean comprehension of derived information, mental construction of occurrences and objects which results in generating of certain ideas of the world in the form of concepts, conceptual structures and whole conceptual system in the psychic of a human. Conceptual space of the human mind is organized by concepts which represent mental verbalized formations.

Every natural language reflects a certain means of perception and organizing ("conceptualization") of the world. The meanings expressed in it take shape of a certain belief system which as obligatory one is imposed on all native speakers. Every speech community possesses certain freedom to segment by some means or other the perceptive content of his(her) experience. The means of reality conceptualization which is peculiar to language is in part universal, ethnic and specific. Native speakers of different languages see the world through the prism of their languages.

This brings up the importance of studies that focus on the specificity of the expression of the information storage peculiarities inherent to the memories of native speakers of different languages and culture bearers.

The research goal is to explore the contexts through which metaphor conceptualizes the process and what features it focuses on. We address this topic by taking the concept *love* as an example.

The choice of the concept *love* is due to its existence in different traditions of world perception and to the fact that the concept meaning is one of the most common and shared across languages and cultures.

The sphere of feelings is a favorable field for research, since it is in it that the features of national consciousness are most fully expressed. And love as a basic feeling that conveys psycho-emotional states of a person, and a concept that manifests itself in any culture, becomes a significant object for research and

identification of national specifics. This determines the relevance of the research.

The research material includes the extracts the concept from poetry contexts. The concept *love* is examined on the basis of 35 verses. However the concept *love* is rather versatile and it is rather hard to study all aspects of its conceptualization in the framework of this research. therefore the authors consider it logical to start by defining the basic sub sphere of the conceptual field *love* within family relationships that include the following components: love for man, love for woman, love for a child (motherhood), love for father and husband.

The research methodology rests on qualitative approach to the analysis and combines literature review and empirical study of the slots of contextual conceptualization of reality settings that are verbalized through metaphor as a language tool.

The research integrates various methods of conceptual analysis:

- interpretation of the concepts meanings involving life experience of the author and an imaginable reader
- interpretation record of the concept in semantical metalanguage;
- concept culture analysis by the reference to the specialists in a specific area (history, geography etc.), a

The empirical analysis has also taken into account that poetry concepts might be deeply private and subjective confessions of poets. Therefore, a detailed analysis is impossible without reference to authors' biography to understand unusual variety of the metaphorical models, concretizing the concepts under study.

2. Literature review

According to the theory of cognition reality reflection process is comprised of several stages. Primarily through sensation and perception the conception of an object arises in our mind, then as a result of abstractive activity of human thinking notions arise which reflect common and essential features of the object. Native speakers of different languages and culture bearers apprehend the reality in different ways [8:37].

To prove our statement let us take memory verbs in Russian and German languages as an example. The verb **sich erinnern an** in German expresses in the most general view the process of information memory storage, for example: *Wenn ich mich recht erinnere, stammt er aus Osterreich – If memory serves me , he was born in Austria.* It should be also noted: if the situation of memory information storage contains thinking process, which is essential for the subject in this case the verb *denken an* is used. At that, as a rule, the long-term memory

occurrences are reflected: *Denke daran, dass du ihn noch benachrichtigen musst* – *Remember what, you should inform him about.*

The core language means expressing the peculiarities of memorizing process are the verbs which indicate different stages of storage in memory of the obtained information. This is the beginning of information storage, permanent storage as well as information reproduction and so on. The Russian verb “remember” has the most common meaning. The verb in question indicates permanent storage in memory any given information.

Ronald W. Langacker in his *Cognitive Grammar* [3: 2] says about close convergence of meaning and conceptualization, in fact about equating meaning and concept. Getting into foreign cognitive sphere (R. Langacker’s “cognitive domain” or “denotative space” in Russian philology), the word can change its meaning in compliance with conceptual sphere of another word.

One of the cognitive linguistics tenet is the postulate about the language geometric conceptualization, space orientation as the requirement of objects representation on the conceptual and semantical levels. The main schematization models used for structuring of cognitive space are profile/base, scanning, point, distribution of attention and force dynamics. However, none of the schemes work independently. At the same time depending on the conceptualization form one or another form can dominate.

We will study the matters relating to the language conceptualization problem as exemplified by metaphor. Linguistics gained new dynamics of development, with “common vector” directed to the expansion of the linguistic research borders and shifting the emphases to the human factor in a language. Active integration processes, taking place in the modern science lead to the integration of the humanities and natural sciences, to the creation of not only new schools but entire branches of scientific knowledge [7:59].

Language traditions are the brightest when reflected in figurative means. At the early stages of their existence metaphors were considered as some kind of a ruse or trick, based on words flexibility, as something apposite only in a few cases and requiring caution in use. By lapse of time the opinion about metaphor has changed from considering it as decoration and trifle to the special manner of thought about the world which exploits the knowledge obtained before.

V.N. Telija [4:45] indicates “the condition of a communication – pragmatic success in appealing to an emotional message reception, which is normally achieved by means of figurativeness, created by various speech devices, as image evokes emotional experience of the world”.

Indeed “metaphor serves as a tool of thought, with its help we manage to reach the most outlying parts of the conceptual field. The objects close to us, easy comprehended provide thought with the access to remote and elusive

notions. Metaphor makes “arm” of the intellect longer; its role in logic can be compared to a fishing rod or rifle” [9: 72].

M.V. Nikitin [5:83] underlines that “languages normally combine analogies, similar notions in one word... A metaphor as a word is the very case of the similar combination of notions in a word, when the expression of this notion is realized as a secondary onomasiological function of a word ‘occupied’ by another notion.

According to the typology proposed by G. Lakoff and M. Turner [6:17] there are 2 main productive types of metaphoric concepts - “basic metaphors”, “specific-level metaphors” (or in different wording root, constant, conventional, general poetic and so on) and occasional - “image metaphors” (individually authorial). The former, grouping around key concepts of the outside world are characterized by the unambiguity of the author’s idea and reader’s perception.

They express constant, systemic nature of the image analogy between the compared notions and possess the sign of invariance. The invariance principle is a term suggested by G. Lakoff and M. Turner. It means the functioning of universal mechanisms of the image analogy determination in a human mind. Occasional metaphoric concepts reflect unconventional perception of the world by an author, strenuously appeal to the reader’s imagination.

3. Research Findings

The empirical analysis of poetry reveals that large percentage of the basic conceptual metaphors, naming concepts of death and love is reflected in the studied poetry. Among them prevail:

Love – bloom/ wakening of nature:

“...and we/ Grew like each other, for we loved each other;/ She, mild and generous as the air in spring;/ And I, like earth all budding out with love” (“I loved her for that she was beautiful” by Ph.J. Bailey).

Love – light/ dawn:

“The mind has a thousand eyes,/ And the heart but one;/ Yet the light of a whole life dies/ When love is done” (“The Night Has A Thousand Eyes” by F. W. Bourdillon); “But through the black immensity of night/ Love’s little lantern, like a glowworm’s, bright,/ May lead our steps to some stupendous dawn” (“Wanderers” by G. S. Viereck).

Love – fire/ conflagration:

“But in that instant they shall learn/ The shattering ecstasy of our fire,/ And the weak passionless hearts will burn/ And faint in that amazing glow” (“Dust” by R. Brooke); “These two who are my father and mother/ Whose fire from which I came, has now grown cold” (“One Flesh” by E. Jennings).

Love – song/ music:

"The music plays,/ Hauntily beautiful,/ It plays of love" ("Love's Music" by J. Hodges); *"SONG is so old,/ Love is so new—...Let my warm blood/ Sing low of you— Song is so fair,/ Love is so new!"* ("Song Is So Old" by H. Hagedorn).

Love – suffering/ sickness:

"This the word that made us part In the fall o'dew;/ This the word that brake his heart/— Yet it brake mine, too." ("Love Came Back at Fall o' Dew" by L. W. Reese); *"I have nothing more than to honor you now,/ A fallen tear wiped from my brow./ A refreshing memory of how I remember you best,/ Since you left me I now have my own "Song of Sadness""* ("A Song of Sadness" by D.L. Gomes).

Love – road:

"She did not stop to don her coat,/ She did not stop to smooth her bed/— But out she went in glad content/ There where the bright path led" ("Departure" by H. Hagedorn); *"Since we agreed to let the road between us/ Fall to disuse,/ And bricked our gates up, planted trees to screen us,/ And turned all time's eroding agents loose"* ("No Road" by Ph. Larkin).

Love – springtime:

"O voice of Love, hush not, but fill My life with Spring!" ("Love's Springtide" by F.D. Sherman); *"WHAT delightful hosts are they— Life and Love! Lingeringly I turn away, This late hour, yet glad enough They have not withheld from me Their high hospitality"* ("A Parting Guest by J. W. Riley").

Love – religion:

"Only of us the whole world's thoughts can be/— For we are Love, and God Himself is made/ Only of thee and me" ("Only of Thee and Me" by L. Untermeyer); *"BREATHE me the ancient words when I shall find/ Your spirit mine; if, seeking you, life wins/ New wonder, with old splendor let us bind/ Our hearts when Love's high sacrament begins"* ("Love's Ritual" by Ch. Hanson Towne).

Further on our analysis has revealed that in poetry among a very large percentage of the basic conceptual metaphors, including concepts of love should be also mentioned concepts of death. Among them are the following prevail conceptual models:

Death – going away/ separation:

"Where has the tree gone, that locked/ Earth to the sky? What is under my hands,/ That I cannot feel?" ("Going" by Ph. Larkin); *"To go down....We all go down, mostly/ alone..."* ("Titanic" by D.S. Slavitt); *"My friends are gone, but that's a truth/ Nor grave nor bed denied"* ("Crazy Jane Talks with the Bishop" by W.B. Yeats).

Death – sorrow/ pain:

“My wept exhaustions over plates and cups/ Drained my self-pity in these days of grief; She fought death with an understated mischief; Some sat downstairs with a hankie/ Nursing a little cry before going up to her;... It tore my heart out” (“*Thirteen Steps and the Thirteenth of March*” by D. Dunn).

Death – stagnation/ immobility:

“And hate the bright stillness of the noon,/ without wind, without motion” (“*California Hills in August*” by D. Gioia); *“Side by side, their faces blurred/ The earl and countess lie in stone”* (“*An Arundel Tomb*” by Ph. Larkin); *“Constant water lilies we lie still”* (“*Looking Up at Leaves*” by B. Howes).

Death – darkness/ night:

“Nearer, my God, to Thee, / Nearer to Thee!/ Though like the wanderer,/ The sun gone down, /Darkness be over me” (“*Nearer my God to Thee*” by S.F. Adams); *“The poet as well/ Builds his monument mockingly;/ For man will be blotted out, the blithe earth die, the brave sun/ Die blind, his heart blackening”* (“*To the Stone- cutters*” by R. Jeffers); *“There is an evening coming in/ Across the fields, one never seen before,/ That lights no lamps”* (“*Going*” by Ph. arkin).

Death – rest:

“My rest a stone/ Yet in my dreams I'd be /Nearer, my God, to Thee” (“*Nearer my God to Thee*” by S.F. Adams); *“Where thickest, talest monument/ Cuts grandly into the air/ The Madam lies contentedly”* (“*A Street in Bronzeville: Southeast Corner*” by G. Brooks).

Death – sleep:

“As if death had not power to keep/One who has loved her long asleep”; *“She lay in her girlish sleep at ninety-six, small as a twig”* (“*Castoff Skin*” by R. Whitman); *“The rose-lipt girls are sleeping/ In fields where roses fade”* (“*With Rue My Heart is Laden*” by E.A. Houseman); *“But I have promises to keep,/ And miles to go before I sleep,/ And miles to go before I sleep”* (“*Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening*” by R. Frost).

Death – winter/ cold:

“Her fortune, too, lies there/ Converted into cool hard steel” (“*A Street in Bronzeville: Southeast Corner*” by G. Brooks); *“The cold water is anaesthetic and very quick”* (“*Titanic*” by D.R. Slavitt).

4. Discussion

In the examples under study *motherhood* concept is represented by such metaphoric concepts as *motherhood-kindness*, *motherhood-joy*, *motherhood -sweetness*, *motherhood-hope for new beginning*, *motherhood- gift*, *motherhood- expectation*, *motherhood-burden*, *motherhood- heaviness*, and *motherhood- mystery*. The analysis reveals that the main object of the conceptual metaphors is a “person” (“child” or “pregnant women”).

The productive semantic structures include “human-animal”, “human-plant”. After more detailed study of the metaphors representing these structures it may be concluded that both expressions with positive connotation and metaphoric transfers tinged with negativity prevail in the poetry. The metaphors tinged with positivity are mainly intended to create images displaying purity, beauty and innocence of a child, indicate visual characteristics of the embryo growing in mother’s womb as well as describe a child as a treasure.

The metaphors (negatives) depict a woman perceiving motherhood as burden, heavy load. At the base of the metaphoric transfers the signs of increased volume; growth, development, maturing; physical discomfort and terrific disproportions; depersonalization herself by a woman are implemented.

The factual information does not dominate in a poetic text since the poet does not seek unidirectional subject transfer of facts and occurrences but he aims at reflecting the ties and relations between them and expressing his own attitude, senses, moods toward the described occurrences as well as causing reader’s impressions by creating images which are responsible for the creation of the individually authorial world view.

Description represents features of characters and occurrences. Natural phenomena, lifestyle of a man, some events from the life or experience of the poet or/and persona are mostly described. The main function of the metaphor is to compose a form of discourse which defines mental process aimed at explanation, analysis of a fact, occurrence, state, deed or drawing a new inference from several premises. Discourse is performed in the shape of judgment and ratiocination: deductive, inductive, hypothetic, by analogy. The markers of emotion are indicators of different senses and emotions which include different phonetic, lexical, grammatical descriptors of emotional state description. Finally, markers of impressiveness include emphatic means used by author to create individual poetical image.

5. Conclusions

The analysis of concrete examples confirms that *love* is beyond the control of a person. *Love* in relation to time is contradictory: on the one hand it is infinite, on the other hand it has the property of passing. *Love* not be bought, it can change people, make them better, more eloquent, but at the same time it can not be expressed in words. In addition, love is a sincere feeling based on honesty and trust. The highest manifestation of this feeling is akin to love.

The systematization of the knowledge about the world stipulates its conceptualization. The conceptualization process is closely associated with the process of categorization, as categorization underlies conceptualization, the cognitive process that identifies, estimates and classifies objects of the world,

their features and relations in accordance with the ways of vision and interpretation, peculiar to a man.

The conceptual metaphor acts as a tool of the speech influence on a reader (listener), aimed at emendation and modification of his(her) world model by involving him(her) in the poetic world model of the artist, its perception and interpretation. The conceptual metaphor is a chain trope, during its implementation one image provokes another by association.

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FLAC: LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION AS ENRICHING SUPPLEMENT TO SUBJECT AREA COURSES

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Abstract. FLAC (Foreign Languages Across Curriculum) is a program that has been adopted in a number of higher education institutions in the United States. The program adds an optional language component to subject area courses in various fields of study, and it allows for a large variety of teaching models, depending on both the parent course content and the language proficiency level of participating students.

FLAC classes provide students of the foreign language with the opportunity to read materials and participate in class discussions in the target language on topics from the parent non-language class, thus expanding their vocabulary and honing communication skills in the field-specific area.

The language instructor selects course materials with reference to the syllabus of the subject area course and in consultation with the faculty who teaches it. FLAC programs provide a unique opportunity for creative and productive collaboration of language and non-language faculty for the greater benefit of students engaged simultaneously in their respective courses.

This paper describes the FLAC philosophy and existing practices, as and discusses the experiences and outcomes of two courses that had been taught under the auspices of this program: *Reading about the Cold War*, a class parallel to the *Cold War* course in Government, and *Reading about Imperial Russia* taught along with the *Imperial Russia* course in History.

As universally applicable to many disciplines from engineering to sciences to humanities, FLAC courses can be viewed as one of the ways of helping students prepare to live and function productively in the Globalized world.

Key words: FLAC, CLAC, Foreign language instruction, Language Across the Cultures

In the past three decades teaching a foreign language has become a field of dramatic innovations: the grammar-translation method, has been complemented by the audio-lingual method, and later yet, the content-based instruction and communicative, project based approaches, with use of technology aimed not only at providing drills and electronic worksheets, but also live and meaningful communications with speakers of the target languages around the world. Teaching the languages has become more practical, more application oriented discipline than it has been ever before. Specialized language instruction has become a part of this trend. Still, in cases of specialized language instruction, most of the language curriculum development is conducted by a language teacher alone, and the content of this instruction is decided by a teacher as well. Usually it is a set of topics, covering vocabulary and conversation patterns that have to do with the respective field. For example, with the growth of Spanish-speaking population in the United States, some universities offer “Spanish for Medical Professionals”; it is also possible to find courses in foreign languages for business communications on some colleges course rosters as well. Still, all these attempts at tailoring the language instruction to the specific needs of students, often constitute just a preparatory work for a student who later may engage in scientific or scholarly research that require more than just some working knowledge of the foreign language.

CBI (the Content-Based Instruction) approach suggests the use of the content for the purpose of learning a language. When the respective roles of the language and the content are reversed, and the language is viewed first and foremost as

means for students to further explore and better understand the content of a subject-area course, then we have FLAC.

FLAC (Foreign Languages Across the Curriculum) also known as CLAC (Culture and Languages Across the Curriculum) is a movement that started in the United States in late 1990-ies. The FLAC approach helps wed the language instruction to the subject area studies. The program adds an optional language component to subject area courses in various fields of study, and it allows for a large variety of teaching models, depending on both the parent course content and the language proficiency level of participating students. The FLAC or CLAC programs rely on close collaborations between the faculty of various departments in both sciences and humanities and that of the language instructors. With the large variety of programmatic arrangements, this system has been adopted by a number of higher education institutions in the United States, such as University of Binghamton, University of Minnesota, University of Wisconsin, Brigham Young University, Drake University, Duke University, Michigan State University, University of Colorado-Boulder, University of Denver, University of Iowa, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, University of Utah, and many others.

Some of the oldest programs, such as St. Olaf College, or University of Binghamton programs have been funded by the external, federal grants, but most of the institutions who have followed the trend, in the persistent conditions of the ever diminishing government funding of the foreign language, and, generally speaking, humanities instruction, have to resort to their internal resources.

FLAC movement is the umbrella for multiple models of language instruction. Some courses are “linked” to the parent, subject area course, which means that the language course is taught in parallel to it; others are solid “immersion” courses taught predominantly in a non-English language (most typically outside the US); still others may offer the “infused”, or “embedded” instruction when a faculty who teaches a subject area course incorporate foreign language and elements of culture in their curriculum which allows students at intermediate or advanced level of language proficiency to conduct part of their coursework in that language.

Cornell University who joined the movement in 2016, adopted the first of the mentioned above models, and has already offered courses in Arabic, Mandarin, French, Hindi, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, and Yoruba. The FLAC courses currently in development are in Hebrew, Ki-Swahili, Korean, German, Modern Greek, and Turkish.

27 departments and programs at Cornell have offered FLAC courses, among them Africana Studies, Archeology, China and Asia Pacific Studies, City and Regional planning, Government, History of Art, International Agriculture and

Rural Development, Latin American Studies, Music, Law, Natural Resources, Nutritional Studies, Plant science, Sociology, and Religious Studies.

FLAC classes at Cornell provide students of the foreign language with the opportunity to read materials and participate in class discussions in the target language on topics from the parent non-language class, thus expanding their vocabulary and honing communication skills in the field-specific area.

“A FLAC section serves as a platform to interact academically in the given target language, - the program statement of the Cornell FLAC declares, - While learning content in the main course’s discipline, a FLAC section, with discussion and readings in a target language, will introduce students to the target language genre-specific discourse, both oral and written, of their discipline. A FLAC section, as contrasted with a general language course, serves to introduce students to field-specific vocabulary and oral discourse through examination and discussion of accessible texts. Similarly, a FLAC section contrasts with the core part of the course taught in English, in balancing focus on field content and linguistic needs of language learners. This academic experience will enable students to become more confident and active in target language academic settings.” (Feldman)

According to this document, the learning outcomes of the FLAC instruction at Cornell are measured by the following criteria:

“In a FLAC section, students will be expected to:

- Learn to interact with diverse language speakers – native speakers, heritage speakers, and students of the language.
- Learn the conventions of academic discourse, both oral and written, in the target language.
- Learn how to phrase questions and how to indicate agreement and disagreement.
- Learn how to read academic writing in the target language, which may contain a different order of ideas, phrasing, or emphasis on the main idea.
- Accommodate genre differences in academic texts in the target language. (Feldman)
- Learn field specific vocabulary and technical terms within the target language.
- Produce a final product, such as a learning portfolio, oral presentation, project proposal, position paper, reading reflection or critique.” (Feldman)

How does the system work at Cornell? The FLAC coordinator sends out an email to faculty members, offering them to add the language component to their courses, so that students who are interested and eligible in regard of their language proficiency could enroll in a 1-credit parallel course, and collects their

responses. Many of them are positive and often enthusiastic. When the connection between the core course instructor and the instructor of the language course (often a graduate student who is a native or a heritage speaker) is established, the collaboration between the two begins.

The language instructor selects course materials with reference to the syllabus of the subject area course and in consultation with the faculty who teaches it. FLAC programs provide a unique opportunity for creative and productive collaboration of language and non-language faculty for the greater benefit of students engaged simultaneously in their respective courses.

To the moment, the faculty members of the Russian Language Program at Cornell have taught two courses under the auspices of the FLAC program: *Reading about the Cold War*, a class parallel to the *Cold War* course that has been taught every other year by Prof. Matthew Evangelista of the Government Department, and *Reading about Imperial Russia* taught in conjunction with the *Imperial Russia* course taught by History Professor Claudia Verhoeven. In addition to helping students master their Russian, these courses provided the invaluable other side's perspective of the political processes and historic events, thus enriching the parent, subject area courses as students' understanding of certain aspects of the course topics expands and deepens.

The collaborations with the faculty from the respective departments has been an essential part of the preparation for the two courses mentioned above, particularly in the process of selecting appropriate material. While the sequence of topics of the language course is being defined by the core course curriculum and agenda, still, it is the responsibility of the language course instructor to help set realistic goals for her students and make the optimal choices of reading and viewing materials.

This is not an easy task, and the language instructor has to make a number of important decisions.

The parent course instructors usually have an extensive cache of reading of Russian documents and literary texts in English translation that they assign as a homework for students in their courses. This has created an opportunity of reading and discussing texts, the content of which is already familiar to students – the factor that would allow the language class to focus fully on the language and style of these works. Still, many of these materials are lengthy and complex, so the teacher has to carefully select and arrange the excerpts from the text that on one hand are authentic and deliver the major ideas of the piece, and on the other, are reasonably sized and of a manageable level of difficulty.

Another yet challenge of teaching courses in the FLAC format is the often complex class composition. Students who take Russian Language courses are often interested in learning about Russian culture, history, and politics, thus

students of Russian as a foreign language, so it is natural that some of them are part of these classes. On the other hand, some of the students are rather accidental learners - Heritage speakers, who have been exposed to Russian in their families, but never learned the target language in a formal setting, and might be at various levels of language proficiency and literacy in this language.

Such class composition requires creative approach and maximum flexibility from the teacher. Students are given the same material as a homework assignment, but they should perform different tasks that are based on this material, and every class should be designed in such a way that all students take part in all activities for their mutual benefit. More advanced students may prepare to read the materials in full, be able to translate it into English and discuss it in Russian, with just little use of the English language. Less advanced students should be training in reading techniques, such as skimming for general understanding and screening for specific information, cognates and familiar vocabulary, first by a paragraph, and then by sentence.

The most significant materials selected for the Reading About the Cold War in Russian, were:

- The March 14 1946 Joseph Stalin's interview on Churchill Iron Curtain speech, recognized by historians as the event that signified the beginning of the Cold War. This rather brief document was the subject of close analysis in the course of two hour-long class meetings. The class discussions ranged from analyzing the political context of the period to the matters of style that characterized Stalin's speech.

- A 1968 work by Andrey Sakharov Progress, Coexistence, and Intellectual Freedom, a programmatic article that outlined the dangerous tendencies of the period, such as possibilities of the nuclear war, as well as the food crisis in the context of the looming global economic and ecological disaster, and offered rational and peaceful solutions to these problems through promoting global cooperation based on the common values, worldwide advance of democracy, and the breakthrough technology, which had been a truly pioneer approach of these issues at the time. This document, even with the omission of certain parts, had been studied and discussed in five class sessions.

- A selection of the 1960-es poetry by E. Evtushenko, which represented various aspects of the Soviet politics and ideology, such as a poem "Babiy Yar" which featured the recognition and a condemnation of the facts of antisemitism in world history, scandalously at the time including the homeland, a song 'Hotyat li russkie voyny' ("Do the Russians want a War") that asserted that people of Russia (in which "russkie" seemingly stands for the Soviet people) are strongly committed to the world peace after all their suffering and losses in the World War II).

- Political caricature and visual propaganda. The students have been introduced to the Soviet posters and political cartoons of the Cold war period, particularly the works of the Kukryniksy trio of artists, and were asked to interpret these artifacts in the light of the historic development that they studied in their Cold war course.

Another yet Russian FLAC course had been taught as a supplemental one was to the course in History titled “The Imperial Russia”

The parent course, as its description says, surveys “the history of Imperial Russia, with an emphasis on the empire’s recurrent experience of revolutionary change in the political, socio-economic, and cultural spheres. Topics include such remodeling projects as Peter the Great’s westernization and Alexander II’s “Great Reforms”; military upheavals like 1812, nineteenth century imperialist warfare, the Revolution of 1905, World War I, and the Revolution of 1917.” (Cornell). The instructor of the parent course included a number of literary works in students’ reading list, and students who took the FLAC course had had a chance to read excerpts from some of these works in the original, such as *Captain’s Daughter* by A. Pushkin, *The Inspector General* by N. Gogol, then, on the topic “Russians, Slavophiles and Westernizers, the *Philosophical Letters* by P. Chaadaev,

Pushkin’s “Letter to Chaadaev”, and V. Belinsky’s “Letter to N. V. Gogol.” Students in the FLAC class also read excerpts from Turgenev’s, *Fathers and Sons*, Chernyshevsky’s, “Extraordinary Man,” in *What Is to Be Done?* (1863), and Chekhov’s *The Cherry Orchard*.

Unlike in case of the Cold War FLAC course, students were exposed to the texts that they have already been well familiar after having read them in English translation. The use of existing knowledge in class, helps students focus on the new vocabulary and the means of expression. In a multi-level class, students are given assignments that suggest different degree of detail in which they discuss the material, but everyone in class is supposed to be able to make a summary of the material that has been read, and to discuss its main ideas.

In both courses, a lot of attention has been paid to the genre and style of the course material. Ability to identify genre and recognize certain patterns of style leads to a better command of the language when students work with a variety of sources in the given field.

While immersed in the study of history and politics in Russia, Russian Empire and the Soviet Union, as well as having developed effective reading technique, and having learned how to identify genre, take advantage of recognition of certain patterns, clichés and, generally speaking, styles, students in the FLAC classes have demonstrated ability to manage large amounts of

complex language material, understand, interpret, and discuss it, often even in depth.

Organizing and preparing FLAC courses requires a lot of preparation, organizational work, collaboration of the language instructors with the non-language faculty; it certainly needs a solid institutional support. The outcomes of the Foreign Languages Across Curriculum has proven to be significant and truly rewarding for students and teachers.

As universally applicable to many disciplines from engineering to sciences to humanities, FLAC courses, especially those in the less commonly taught languages, can be viewed as one of the ways of helping students prepare to live and function productively in the Globalized world.

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CREATING CONDITIONS FOR THE PERSONALITY-VALUE DEVELOPMENT OF LAW STUDENTS IN THE FRAMEWORK OF THE PROGRAMS OF RUSSIAN-AUSTRIAN SUMMER SCHOOLS FOR LAWYERS

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Abstract. In this article, the authors presented many years of experience of the Russian-Austrian Summer School for Lawyers at the University. Paris Loudron in Austria in the process of mastering the skills, knowledge and knowledge of law students of the Law Institute of Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (Moscow) in the process of integrating future lawyers into the world

educational space, which contributes to raising the level and prestige of Russian legal education in the international labor market.

The article touches on topical issues of creating conditions for changing the quality category, the basic component of modern Russian education, which influences the effectiveness of the entire educational process, and is based on the competitiveness of young professionals in the field of jurisprudence on the world market. Particular attention is paid to the harmonious process of combining knowledge with cultural values and moral concepts.

Key words: Flight school for lawyers, development of skills, knowledge and knowledge, students - jurists, world educational space, Russian education, competitiveness in the world labor market

1 Introduction

Integration processes in the sphere of higher education are conditioned by the need to solve global problems of civilizational global development. These trends are reflected in the Great Charter of Universities (1988) in the Lisbon Convention (Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region) (1997) and the Bologna Declaration (1999). [1,3,4,5] Since 2003, Russian universities have entered the process of "the rapid formation of a single global financial and economic space based on new technologies and the development of a global culture that accommodates the diversity of world cultural practices" The opportunity to study abroad, international degrees and certificates has influenced changes in the academic environment. In addition, the Communiqué of the UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education (2009) emphasized that an important condition for the benefits of the globalization of higher education for all is the promotion of quality and respect for cultural diversity and national sovereignty.

Taking into account the fact that the main task of modern Russian education is to change the qualitative component underlying the improvement both of the educational process itself and its result, based on the competitiveness of European education, taking into account the need for quality development and the students themselves, it is the quality category that becomes the defining one. From this it follows that not only the formation of skills, skills and knowledge are important for the formation of a specialist in any field, but also the development of appropriate personal and individual characteristics. In the presence of such personal qualities of students as responsibility and independence, the ability to apply the acquired skills, skills and knowledge in order to solve various social and professional problems in practice, the situation of the formation of a value-semantic attitude to the world, society, state, other people, the chosen profession and to to myself. And this is an example of the

fact that education is an indicator of the achieved level of development of any country, the basis that comes to the fore and becomes the leading activity.

2. Research Methodology

And this kind of activity can not be limited only to semesters of higher education. In order to ensure the high quality of education that meets international standards; active integration into the world educational space; organization of joint educational programs, taking into account the desire of the leadership of the university to actively integrate into the European market of educational services and thereby contribute to raising the level and prestige of Russian legal education not only in Russia but also abroad, such forms of mastering skills, Schools for future specialists in various fields.

For 15 years, the Department of Foreign Languages of the Law Institute of the Russian Peoples' Friendship University (PFUR) has been training law students in the Summer School at the University. Paris Lodron in Salzburg (Austria). [2]. The idea of this school is based on the fact that education is, above all, education and culture. It is a process in which knowledge is combined with cultural values and moral concepts. In the course of this process, the main task of the organizers is to create conditions conducive to the formation of an intelligent with a soul capable of understanding someone else's pain, ready to take a blow at themselves and rush to help others, answering for each step and decision taken. And these are the most important moments in the joint activities of the organizers, both from the Russian and Austrian sides. Another important component of the organization of training in the Summer School for lawyers is the provision that all the activities carried out are aimed at forming competitiveness of students in the international labor market, since the demand for each specialist directly depends on the results of his training.

Throughout the years of the preparation of the Summer School training program, the qualifications frameworks for a single European space for higher professional education in the field of jurisprudence and the provisions of the Federal State Educational Standards for Higher Professional Education in Russia are taken as a basis, which makes it possible to compare qualifications for both Russian and Austrian students, and students of other European countries, who periodically take part in the Summer School at the University of Salzburg. The internal need for constant professional development, creative search, the desire to expand the range of professional communication and establish new business contacts is fully realized by students due to participation in the Summer School Programs.

3. Survey Findings

For more than 8 years, the European System of Credit Transfer (ECTS) has been used in the PFUR. The credit system, which ensures the transparency of

measurement and comparison of the results of students' training, contributes to the activation of students' independent work and increases responsibility for the results achieved, and has a positive effect on the rhythm of their work. Methodologies for the independent formation of the knowledge system and the development of creative learning culture and contribute to the Summer School for Lawyers program. These programs include modern teaching technologies that make it possible to form the foundations of humanitarian education, namely: the free self-expression of the learner, personal responsibility for decisions, general cultural competence, the ability to perceive the pluralism of opinions and approaches, personal expression in professional and cultural life. All this is aimed at training future specialists in the field of jurisprudence not only to adapt in the constantly changing social and information environment, but, above all, the ability to actively influence it in order to harmonize social development. Starting to develop jointly The program of the next Summer School, the Austrian and Russian leadership takes into account the need to form, in the course of all planned events, the eight universal competencies provided by the European Commission, which also include competencies in the use of foreign languages for professional purposes. Like all the others, this competence is supported by a set of specific abilities, which include, first of all, critical thinking, creativity, "European dimension", adaptability, communicative and active life position. [8]

We also take into account the competences for classical university education, singled out on the basis of the European project "TUNING": [6]

- general scientific: scientific knowledge from different fields,
- Instrumental skills: the ability to speak and write in your native language, knowledge of several foreign languages, research skills,

The authors of the article in practice make sure that the mastering of students by a foreign language only in the sphere of everyday communication, without taking into account the specificity of the profession, without practicing speech strategies in the context of training future specialists in the field of jurisprudence, does not meet the requirements of the modern international labor market and significantly impedes international cooperation for specialists in any region.

Both in foreign and in Russian jurisprudence, special attention is currently being paid to raising the level of professional training of lawyers. Conducted analysis of GEF in jurisprudence (undergraduate and graduate) allows us to conclude that the characteristics of the general cultural competences of the graduate presented in it have a wide range:

1. the ability to generalize, analyze, set the goal and choose the ways to achieve it;

2. the ability to build logically correct, reasoned, clear oral and written speech;

3. readiness to cooperate with colleagues and work in a team;

4. Possession of skills of professional communication in a foreign language.

From this it follows that the most important condition for the solution of all these tasks is the introduction of productive educational technologies in the educational process that promote the status of the student in the educational process in order to realize his responsibility for learning outcomes, increase motivation in learning foreign languages and cultures, assess the personal achievements of students in intercultural professional communication with native speakers of a foreign language.

4. Practical Implementation

In the process of joint Russian-Austrian project activity, the students form an integral humanitarian picture of the world and its professional component, create conditions for self-development, self-knowledge and self-realization in the system of a broad multiculturalism of the modern world, and form the basis for a professional worldview. [7]

Expanding access to European education and expanding the student mobility format.

Most students learn about the possibility of participating in the program from teachers and undergraduates who have already participated in the Summer Schools for lawyers more than once.

- Increasing the level of knowledge of the German language 90%
- preparation for participation in the double-certification program 35%
- deepening of knowledge in the field of jurisprudence 99%
- familiarity with the customs and customs of European countries 43%
- new academic contacts and acquaintances 33%

Result (s) Achieved:

- Increasing the level of knowledge of the German language 91%
- new regional knowledge 23%
- acquired knowledge in the field of law 86%
- positive results for participation in the double-certification program 44%
- new academic contacts and acquaintances 25%

Important points in the program of the Summer School for Lawyers:

- German language training 96%
- lectures of professors and specialists in the field of jurisprudence and seminars 80%
- Seminar classes and discussions with Austrian students 96%
- participation in the youth summit and upholding one's own position 83%
- Visit to the Landtag (Salzburg) 68%

- Visit to the Constitutional Court (Vienna) 75%
- excursions in the cities of Austria 35%
- obtaining an international certificate of the program participant 99%

After attending the Summer School for Lawyers, the attitude towards:

- strategies for learning German 38%
- preparation for the seminars on the subjects studied 39%
- team work in preparation for the event 42%
- participation in discussions and oral presentations 33%
- European values of student youth 25%

5. Conclusion

The internal need for constant professional development, creative search, the desire to expand the range of professional communication and establish new business contacts is fully realized by students due to participation in the Summer School Programs. The professionalism of a specialist in the field of jurisprudence, regardless of the structure of the structures of law enforcement and law enforcement agencies, he did not work and whatever position he occupied, becomes the basis for the development of all spheres of life of modern society, including economic, political and cultural.

Rapidly evolving scientific and technological progress and a constantly accelerating information flow in the field of legal knowledge put forward new tasks for the organizers of joint programs of Russian-Austrian Summer Schools for Lawyers. And one of the main ones is the choice of educational priorities: the use of modern methods of mastering quickly "obsolete" knowledge, the formation of the competence of personal responsibility for the process of mastering knowledge and the formation of sustainable cultural and highly moral qualities of future jurists. In the past, the system of training of narrow specialists, based on the acquisition of fundamental academic knowledge, which had time to become obsolete by the time a young specialist left the university. The experience of joint Russian-Austrian Summer Schools for Lawyers confirms the fact that in modern conditions the main thing in the training of specialists is not in the amount of knowledge, but in the formation of the ability not only to extract and assimilate knowledge independently, but also creatively on the basis of in-depth analysis and personal responsibility approach to solving professional problems. This is confirmed by the results of a survey of participants of the Summer School programs for Lawyers.

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ENGLISH AS CULTURAL CAPITAL IN RUSSIA: ATTITUDES OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS OF LEARNERS

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Abstract. The paper uses the concept of capital to assess the value of learning English in Russia for different age groups of learners, particularly, those in the age ranges between 8 and 9 years old (after a year of learning English), between 14 and 15 years old (after a year of learning the second foreign language apart from English), between 17 and 18 years old (in the last year of high school), between 21-22 years old (in the last year of the bachelor degree programme). This work is a part of a bigger research-in-progress project, the ultimate objective of which is to analyse the “worth” of the English language for Russian learners of English. The study aims to answer the following research question, what are significant differences between the attitudes and values of students of different ages. The data come from questionnaires distributed to 30 Russian students of English of different age groups. The results of the study show that younger learners of English tend to value the knowledge of English for irrational reasons, while older learners appreciate the pragmatic value of English in terms of increased opportunities for better education and a better-paid job.

Key words: EFL, motivation, cultural capital

1. Introduction

Since the end of the 20th century Russia as well as other non-English speaking countries has been experiencing “lingual revolution” [1] when English has gradually penetrated a number of domains of national life in Russia: education, culture, research, science, business, media [2]. Russians are among

those two billion people that are affected by English mania [3] with their “an unquenchable thirst for knowledge of English” [4]

In 2017 Russia ranked 38 out of 80 non-English speaking countries examined by the company Education First for their English Proficiency Index (EPI) [5]. Although this is quite a moderate achievement, the knowledge of English across Russia has been gradually increasing since 2010. Back then the percentage of Russian population with some level of English was only 5.3% according to the 2010 national census re-sults [6]; while in 2014, 11% of the population could speak English to some extent [7].

English is the most popular foreign language to learn in Russian schools and uni-versities. On average each subsequent year from 2013 high school graduates tend to show better results in English at the Russian National Exam; for example, in Saint Petersburg in 2014 the average mark was 66.97, in 2015 – 68.22, and in 2016 – 71.20. The same upward trend is evident in other regions of Russia: in 2014 the average mark across Russia was 61.64, in 2015 – 64.92, and in 2016 – 69.78 [8]. On top of that, Englishisation has engulfed tertiary education in Russia to such extent that more and more universities offer a number of EMI (English as a medium of instruction) courses. Englishisation is both a consequence of and a stimulus to an increased level of English expertise of undergraduates: EMI courses are successfully done by those undergraduates whose level of English is at least B2, and to take an EMI course, un-dergraduates with level below B2 need to update their knowledge.

For the last few decades the world has been gradually transforming from the print-ed age to the electronic age when it is not the volume of information and knowledge that matters but motivation to acquire it and a capability to apply it [9]. The new age has instigated a complete revision of the educational paradigm in terms of learning approaches and teaching methods. While learners have almost unlimited access to a variety of learning materials and EFL instructors, teachers have to acknowledge the evolution of learners in terms of their motivation, attitudes, objectives, abilities and capabilities.

Consistent with Dörnyei’s [10] fundamental claim that the attitude to a particular foreign language and motivation to learn it are most important factors in language learning, it becomes evident that the research into attitudes and motivation of a new generation of EFL learners in Russia is likely to throw light on their learning behavior and provide their language instructors with solid foundation for any kind of innova-tions in their teaching process.

Such kind of study is increasingly exigent for Higher School of Economics, one of fifteen Russian universities that have been participating in the programme 5/100 since 2012 with the ultimate objective of entering the top hundred universities in the world. Consequently, Higher School of Economics has been

experiencing unprecedented changes permeating every element of the university's life such as: a) a high share of students with English competence at the B2-C1 levels; b) a gradual increase in the number of courses with English as the medium of instruction (EMI); c) an increased focus on English as a foreign language.

Thus, the aim of a long-term and large-scale study recently launched at the Department of Foreign Languages, Higher School of Economics, Saint Petersburg, is to discover attitudes and motivation a new generation of EFL learners in Russia have towards the English language. In particular, it aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the differences between the attitudes of different age groups of learners towards English if any?
2. How can a teacher adjust a teaching process to the attitudes of different age groups of learners towards English?
3. What particular changes should be introduced in the EFL curriculum at Higher School of Economics in light of the expected findings to improve the quality of the teaching process?

The study rests on the hypothesis that there is some difference in the attitudes of different age groups of learners towards English, and this difference is relevant to the teaching process.

This paper reports on the first phase of our large-scale and longitudinal study. At this stage we probe into the theoretical framework and carry out a survey of 25 representatives of three age groups of learners: a) those in the age ranges between 8 and 9 years old (after a year of learning English), b) between 17 and 18 years old (in the last year of high school), c) between 21-22 years old (in the last year of the bachelor degree programme). The choice of the target groups is determined by their critical role in each of the levels in the educational system of Russia.

In the rest of the paper, we first outline the linguistic situation with English in Russia as a backdrop of our study; then, we discuss the theoretical concepts underlying our research. Next, the methodology of the research is presented. We finally present some preliminary results and their analysis.

2 The Russian EFL Context

To demonstrate the status of English in Russia as a lingua franca it is necessary to discuss the influence of English in a number of societal domains such as education, politics, the media, business, advertising, science, social groups, popular culture, and sub-cultures in light of Fishman's sociology of language [11].

In the domain of education English has become one of the most important subjects in school and university curricular. Although officially Russian schools

and universities offer several languages, primarily European, for their students to choose from to learn as a foreign language, English has become so popular that more and more schools make it compulsory for their students to learn English as either the first or the second foreign language. Some top universities exclusively offer English as the only foreign language on their curriculum. English is also the most frequently offered subject taught by private tutors and private tutoring agencies. In light of academic mobility the need for formal English language certificates such as TOEFL, IELTS, CAE, CPE, BEC has also surged.

In the domain of politics Russia is considered to be the main medium of communication between Russia and the rest of the world and even the countries from the former Eastern Bloc and the USSR. After the collapse of the Eastern Bloc and the USSR the role of the Russian language as a means of communication in the region decreased dramatically yielding its place to English. While Russian is still a working language within the Commonwealth of Independent States, which includes the Russian Federation, Kazakhstan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belorussia, Kirgizia, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan; it is English that used as the main medium of communication between the Russian Federation and the countries of the former Eastern Bloc, in which Russian is no longer a compulsory foreign language to learn. Russian politicians of all ranks acknowledge the power of English as a lingua franca. There are cases when Russian politicians who have not been originally trained as diplomats attempt to speak English themselves at various international political events to increase their worldwide recognition and kudos. In 2005 "Russia's perception of English as a global language is reflected in the creation of the 24-hour English language television channel Russia Today to communicate information about the country to at least 100 location world-wide" [12]. An analysis of the political discourse in Russian shows that a great number of English loan words have flooded the speech of politicians to discuss not only worldwide issues but also locally important political issues and structures [13].

In the domain of business the supremacy of English as the medium of communication between Russian and foreign companies and inside multinational companies based in Russia has been firmly established. Eddy [12] summarises the function of English in the business domain in Russia as "bilingual situations in the offices of international firms, the requirement of English skills for job applicants, and numerous English loan words in Russian business discourse".

In the domain of science English language expertise at the proficient level has become an indispensable asset to any research to render it visible for the international community and an indispensable attribute of any researcher with

aspirations of entering the international academic and research community. Otherwise, there is a danger of staying isolated from global science and remaining parochial, which is akin to professional suicide in the era of globalization [14]. A reading proficiency English is necessary for a Russian researcher just for staying abreast of recent advances in their particular field of study [12].

Various forms of media have become both a transmitter of English to Russia and the main application of English in everyday life of Russians. Not only do mass media expose a massive number of population to English by broadcasting original English language channels such as BBC, CNN, MTV, Discovery, Animal Planet; publishing daily English language newspapers such as Moscow Times, St Petersburg Times, Vladivostok News, providing access to an unlimited volume of original English content via the Internet but they retain a range of linguistic features of popular British and American reality and talk shows, dubbed cartoons and films by emulating the behaviour of English speaking television hosts, using a variety of Anglicisms and loan words [12].

In the domain of advertising the usage of English can be seen both in quantitative and qualitative terms [15]. The presence of English in Russian advertising is varied: rare incorporation of Anglicisms in predominantly Russian texts, English sounding names of products, the usage of two linguistic codes (English and Russian) in one text, close replication of the format and structure of popular English language advertisements [15] partial transliteration, hybrid neologisms [16].

The impact of English on Russian lifestyles, popular culture, sub-culture, and the language of different societal groups (youth, LGBT, techies, yuppies) is chaotic and heterogeneous. They experience “a multitude of English lexical elements, high frequency of code-mixing, and occasional code-switching” [12].

Overall, the overview of the usage of English in various domains of the Russian society has shown that the local linguistic situation in terms of English as a foreign language is characterised by the “predominance of English” [17]. The most important finding to emerge from the discussion is that a majority of Russians “perceive English as an intellectual asset” [12].

3. Research Paradigm

The current study is aimed at discovering attitudes towards English as a foreign language, which is regarded by many people as an intangible asset. Thus, the key terms involved in the analysis are attitude, motivation, asset, and capital.

In terms of motivation in agreement with Berliner [18] we conceive of the latter as a process with its “ebbs and flows” [18]. We situate our research within the framework of the process model of foreign language motivation developed

by Dörnyei [19]. He takes into account the sustained nature of learning a foreign language usually taking a long stretch of time with regulation “ebbs and flows”. Dörnyei describes motivation as a process consisting of three phases (preactional, actional and postactional). Wishes and hopes are transformed into goals and via intentions lead to actions [19]. The benefit of the process model of understanding motivation for the purpose of our research is obvious: we hypothesize that attitudes of EFL learners change with time as they grow older.

The concept of attitudes has been central to the socioeducational model of motivation developed by Gardner [20], the most influential understanding of motivation since the early sixties [21]. In the Gardnerian sense, attitudes are positive and negative feelings about a language [20]. In this paper we, however, adopt a constructionist approach to attitudes dating back to Allport [22] and postulating that “attitudes toward foreign languages, language learning situations and people who speak other languages are constructed” [23]. We conceive of attitudes as “inferred, conceptual predispositions aiding the description and explanation of behavior” [24]. Briefly, an attitude is a position statement. In agreement with Baker, rather than simply dividing attitudes into positive and negative ones, we view them as a continuum with the positive attitude and the negative one at the opposing poles of the range [24].

Bourdieu’s theory of cultural capital is the framework which embraces all the key concepts relevant to the purposes of our research [25]. There is a plethora of studies of cultural capital in education [26] because the concept of cultural capital enables researchers to operationalize quite abstract notions such as culture, education, academic performance by viewing the object of their research as capital, or a resource subject which can be accumulated, increased, saved and used to obtain other resources.

In simple terms, economic capital, which is monetary in essence, is the basis for the other two forms of capital such as: cultural capital articulated in the form of educational qualifications and social capital articulated in the form of social relations [25]. Cultural capital “represents the immanent structure of the world” [25] “determining at any given moment what is possible for any individual to achieve” [27]. Cultural capital exists in three forms: the embodied state (predispositions), the objectified state (cultural goods) and the institutionalized state (socially accepted position) [25].

Adopting the notion of Bourdieu’s cultural capital we are able to identify both the “intrinsic value” of English for different age groups of learners and “the extrinsic value for future employment [27].

4. Data and Methodology

The study aims to investigate the differences between the attitudes and values of students of different ages, those in the age ranges between 8 and 9

years old (after a year of learning English), between 14 and 15 years old (after a year of learning the second foreign language apart from English), between 17 and 18 years old (in the last year of high school), between 21-22 years old (in the last year of the bachelor degree programme). The choice of the target groups is determined by their critical role in each of the levels in the educational system of Russia.

By yoking the knowledge of English to cultural capital, or resource, we assume that it is measurable both in absolute and relative terms. The absolute value is expressed in the form of a formal mark that a student receives for their knowledge of English. The relative value is expressed in the form of attitudes, or position statements. Since we regard attitudes as a continuum, it appears reasonable to construct a Likert scale to measure attitudes of our respondents [28].

The data were collected via a questionnaire distributed to 10 representatives of each of the target groups with 30 participants altogether. The participants from the two older age groups are first- and fourth-years students at Higher School of Economics, Saint Petersburg. The participants from the younger age group are students of one of the primary schools in the region. A 16-item questionnaire was based on a four-point rating scale: 4 for strongly agree, 3 for agree, 2 for disagree, 1 for strongly disagree. A scale of four alternatives was selected deliberately to disable sitting on the fence. The questions were written in Russian. For the younger participants a smiley questionnaire was used as it is more age-appropriate [29].

The small size of the dataset was also deliberate as it was the first phase of the study with the aim of fine-tuning the layout of the research; for example, the first 15 questions (see Appendix) were definite position statements, while item 16 is an open question, the main function of which was to generate new position statements about the value of English, not yet evident to the investigators.

5. Results and Analysis

Since the research is still in progress, below are some preliminary results.

The majority of older participants strongly agree that the knowledge of English will guarantee a better paid job, gives access to a range of information in the Internet, helps in studying their subject of specialization, gives more opportunities, and is prestigious on the whole. The majority of young participants strongly agree that the knowledge of English is necessary, will be necessary for the future, helps to communicate with foreigners, and is prestigious. Both young and older participants mostly disagreed that the knowledge of English helps to use a computer by arguing that computer software is all in Russian, and it is the knowledge of software that helps to use it rather than English.

It is interesting to note that among the young participants there was one “strongly disagree” reaction. The participant provided the reason for such a reaction by saying that Russian people do not need English at all and they should rather focus on Russian.

Another important result is that most participants were quite eager to provide another position statement for question 16, which is an open item, to describe their attitude towards English. The young participants added such position statements as “English helps watch English-language cartoons”, “English helps watch YouTube videos without translation”, “English helps please the parents”. The older participants added such position statements as “English helps use English-language social networking sites” and “English helps receive promotion in your job sphere”, “English will help marry an English-speaking foreigner”.

On the whole, the younger participants tend to value English for some irrational reasons. They do not see any monetary or pragmatic value in the knowledge of English. English as capital has mainly some symbolic value for them. On the contrary, the older participants tend to value English for its pragmatic benefits.

6. Conclusion

This study-in-progress has sought to answer the question if there are significant differences between the attitudes and values of students of different ages. By drawing on the concept of Bourdieu’s cultural capital as a resource defining what each individual can achieve at a particular moment, we are able to capture the dynamics of the value of the English language for different age groups of learners, in particular, for those who only commence learning English in primary school, finish learning English in high school and at university at the end of their bachelor’s programme.

Overall, the preliminary results of the first phase of our study show that there is particular difference in the value of the knowledge of English for different age groups of learners. With age learners of English as a foreign language become more aware of higher economic rewards as the most evident benefit of the knowledge of English. Younger learners of English more often value non-material benefits of the knowledge of English, for example, a good reputation among teachers or respect from classmates.

All three age groups of the participants tend to demonstrate a similar attitude towards English: it has ceased to be associated with a particular European culture and peoples and is more and more perceived as a prerequisite for a better life and success [16].

More important findings to emerge from the first phase of our study, however, relate to the format of the study itself. Firstly, although Bourdieu’s concept of cultural capital helps us see the value of English for learners, it has

become evident that a more active engagement with the concept is necessary at the subsequent stages of our research as we have not explored the theoretical potential of the concept to the full. Secondly, with the increase of the volume of data obtained to fine-tune our data analysis statistical tools will be applied more actively to move from the discourse of contentions to the discourse of statistically supported arguments. Thirdly, it is necessary to rephrase some of the position statements in the questionnaire in light of new position statements suggested by the first pilot groups of our participants. Fourthly, at the subsequent stages of our research it might be worth looking at the geographical variation of the data by collecting them from participants from other regions of the Russian Federation, less cosmopolitan than Saint Petersburg, where the first stage was conducted.

Overall, it is reassuring to find that our hypothesis of the differences in the value of English for learners of different age groups is correct and the theoretical framework is relevant.

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COGNITIVE CHALLENGES IN TRANSLATING LEGAL TERMINOLOGY: CONTRACT TEXT TRANSLATION TRAINING METHODOLOGY. RUSSIAN EXPERIENCE

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Abstract. The article analyses cognitive challenges in translating legal terminology and focuses on integrating law-specific text translation skills into an English course for Russian students of law faculties. The author suggests approaches to mastering professional translation skills, and presents the main steps of contract text translation training methodology as well as some ways of memorizing juridical vocabulary that can help translators navigate through the labyrinths of contractual technicalities in their future work with law-specific texts. A rational combination of linguistic skills and thorough knowledge of the subject is bound to hit the target. The findings of the research can be of practical use to those involved in legal translation or academic studies in comparative law.

Key words: professional translation training, legal terminology, methodology, professional communication, business text, functional equivalence.

1. Introduction

Teaching foreign languages has been viewed to be of great importance in Russia in the last 25 years. Nowadays practicing lawyers and businessmen often have to operate in a two-language environment which necessitates proficient language skills in the English-Russian language pair. No decent student of law can afford a failure in compiling a contract or drafting laws or by-laws, amending in-house regulations or revising a collective bargaining agreement. In so doing, law department undergraduates involved in various law-specific branches need to be trained consistently and thoroughly in the regularities of legal writing. Combining solid expert knowledge of lawyers-to-be with their language competence and foreign language proficiency will definitely shape up a rewarding mix. The article illustrates a training methodology which is based on the selection of authentic English texts that are relevant, in conjunction with activities and materials that highlight specific discourse features in order to facilitate comprehension and translation of law-specific texts.

2 Research Objectives and Methodology

The research provides a critical analysis of including contract text translation training in classroom activities of lawyers-to-be and focuses on a three-step approach tailored to improve students' foreign language proficiency and professional translation competence. The techniques of using English-Russian parallels alternately as well as detailed analysis of contract texts' elements and some crucial discrepancies in legal terminology of the Russian and Anglo-American law are believed to be expanding the professional expertise of lawyers-to-be. A major objective of the study was to analyze efforts and processes involved in producing efficient law-specific translation in the English-Russian language pair. The author also grounds the idea that the semantic adequacy of the original and the translated texts correlates directly with the professional skills of the translator and gives some recommendations how to improve the quality of the law-specific texts translation training.

Such methods as contrastive analysis, contextual analysis, introspection, were applied during the research.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Methods and Approaches to Contract Text Translation Training

In recent years we have seen the growing need for courses in English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which can be defined as the branch of English language education which focuses on training in specific domains of English to accomplish specific academic or workplace tasks. Foreign language teachers are encouraged to explore the most effective ways of designing intensive (and extensive) courses and implementing progressive and innovative methods of teaching ESP [2, 7].

When turning to the idea of teaching contract text translation in ESP classroom activities we face challenges rather than solutions as some professional instructors dispute its efficiency in teaching legal English. They say a teacher of language is not a professional in any field other than the language itself. This statement can hardly be contested. Still, contract text translation training meets competence approach requirements to language education as the general strategy during the B.A. and M.A. professional English courses is to practice the main professional communication skills in the appropriate international business context. The author's multiyear research on the English-Russian cross-language singularities allowed for developing a three-step approach to contract text translation training and shaping up a few course books.

The translation training methodology we'd like to speak about was first used in the Course Book by Lebedeva A., Vlasenko S., 2005 [3] (sales and bank account contracts, essential tools throughout contracts and legal documents), was further developed in the manuals by Lebedeva A., 2008 [4] (intellectual property protection terminology, know-how agreements), Lebedeva A., 2010 [5] (contract law grammar peculiarities, sales contract specific terminology, distribution agreements), and Vlasenko S., 2006 [8] (bank account agreements, banking terminology), and was approbated in 2005 through 2018 at tutorials conducted for B.A. as well as M.A. students of the All-Russian State University of Justice (of the Ministry of Justice of the Russian Federation). The method is intended for students proficient in English on the Upper Intermediate and Advanced levels and aims at providing students of law with basic skills for dealing with bilingual contracts and agreements. The Course Books present a number of sample contracts in parallel English-Russian wording, thus advocating conventional formulas for enclosing legal substance, primarily current legal usage, within the corpus of numerous tasks.

In handling contracts we make use of a three-step approach.

- **Step I. Studying the sample contract.** The task is to fully comprehend its subject matter. A comparative study of the highlighted wording parallels enhances the undergraduates' proficiency in the contract law peculiarities.

Going over sample contracts and agreements attentively and carefully is helpful for Russian students of law to arrive at practicable skills in comprehending and/or reviewing similar papers in English, but it is not usually sufficient to be capable of amending or drafting contracts.

- **Step II. By-stage legal usage extension through working at legal vocabulary peculiarities.** Law-specific grammar and lexical notes are of great help to students, e.g.:

TASK 1. Study the following Grammar and Style Note related to the English auxiliary verb *shall*, analyze the examples given below, and complete

the sentences by translating or transforming the words and word combinations in brackets. Use the verb *shall* if necessary. Render the following sentences into Russian:

Grammar & Style Note

In modern English legal documents (laws, statutes, court rulings, agreements, instructions, etc.) the verb *shall* is usually used for denoting legally-binding actions (recommended, forbidden, preventive, etc.).

The verb *shall* expresses strong modality and is to be rendered into Russian through present tense forms, e.g.: *This Agreement shall be governed by the laws of the Russian Federation. This Agreement shall not impose any restriction on sales by the Company to purchasers outside the Territory.*

(1) The Debtor ____ (*to receive*) a copy of this Agreement. (2) Payment ____ (*proizvoditsia*) in US Dollars by bank transfer to Executor's bank account. (3) The rights of CG under Clauses 7.2 and 7.3 hereof ____ (*vstupayut v silu tol'ko*) in the event that DIL has been unable to supply CG with sufficient quantities of the Licensed Products. (4) The Surety ____ (*to be liable*) to the Bank for the performance by the Debtor of all its obligations owing thereby to the Bank under the Agreement on Opening Letter of Credit.

Grammar notes related to the English auxiliary verb *should*, to the English modal verb *to be to*, to the Passive Infinitive Construction as well as to the Nominative Absolute Participial Construction frequently used in modern English legal context, a lexical note related to the distinction between derivatives from the English adverbs *here* and *there* (*hereafter*, *hereto*, *hereunder*, etc.) are also available.

TASK 2. (a) Study the following distinction between derivatives from the English adverbs *here* and *there* often used in legal documents:

Lexical Note

Some English adverbs formed using *here* and *there*, like *hereof* and *thereof*, *hereto* and *thereto*, *herewith* and *therewith*, *hereby* and *thereby*, *herein* and *therein*, etc., are typical of legal documents. They are used to refer to specific places and times in and around legal documents.

Adverbs formed using *here* refer to the document you are reading, while adverbs formed using *there* refer to the document which is being discussed, not necessarily the one you are reading.

E.g.: *under this contract* ↔ *hereunder*; *enclosed with this contract* ↔ *enclosed herewith*; *to this contract* ↔ *hereto*; *in this contract* ↔ *herein*, etc.

(b) Match up the left-column derivatives from the adverbs with *here* and *there* with their correct definitions in the right column:

1) therein	a) listed further in that document
2) thereafter	b) accompanying this document
3) thereto	c) in the future, i.e. from the production of this document on
4) hereafter	d) appearing somewhere in that document
5) herewith	e) following that document

(c) Make the following sentences complete by translating or transforming the words and word combinations in brackets. Render the sentences into Russian:

(1) The delivery of the equipment (*under this Agreement*) shall commence within 20 days of the effective date of the contract. (2) Now it is (*resulting from this document*) agreed and declared as follows... (3) Neither Party (*to this Agreement*) shall be entitled to delegate its rights or obligations indicated (*under this Agreement*) to any third party without prior written consent of the other Party. (4) This Agreement shall come into effect from the date (*of the Agreement*). (5) Unless otherwise terminated as provided (*in this Agreement*), the Agreement shall continue in force for a period of six months.

The systemic mismatch between the English and Russian is proved to embody the bulk of challenges for the translator dealing with the English-Russian language pair on a professional basis. The Course Books present a great number of different exercises to work at terminology to be used in business law texts, e.g.: contract law grammar peculiarities, specific terminology to be used in business law texts, essential tools throughout contracts and legal documents, exercising text translation (vocabulary related to the agreement validity and termination, to the prices and terms of payment clause, to the promotion and advertising clause, to the miscellaneous clause, to the warranty clause, etc.) The tasks are as follows:

- (a) Match the following legal terms with their definitions.
- (b) Match up the following English legal terminology with the Russian equivalents.
- (c) Make a synopsis of the above contract in English / in Russian.

Complete the following English sentences by translating the Russian words and word combinations in brackets (on the basis of the above sample contract), e.g.: (1) Either State may _____ (*rastorgnut' nastoyashchiy dogovor*) at any time

(a) by giving written notice to the other State through the diplomatic channel, and the termination shall be effective six months after the date of receipt of such notice. (2) All _____ (*imeyet pravo*) to equal protection against any discrimination in _____ (*narusheniye dannoi deklaratsii*) and

against any incitement to such discrimination. (3) This Agreement _____ (*vstupayet v silu*) on the date indicated above.

(b) Using the following pattern for building negative forms (non+delivery→non-delivery), form negative nouns and translate them into Russian, e.g.: payment→__, shipment→__, observance→__, interference→__, conformity→__, performance→__, submission→__, fulfilment→__.

(c) Complete the sentences using the following pattern for building negative forms (non+delivery→non-delivery), e.g.: (1) Payment has not been made yet. We are worried about __. (2) The observance of the terms and conditions under the contract is obligatory. Paying out a penalty does not release the seller from compensating the buyer's losses the latter has sustained due to the seller's __ of the contractual terms and conditions.

(d) Study the following English-Russian patterns with the verb 'fail' and its derivative noun 'failure'. Complete the following English sentences by translating the Russian legal terminology in brackets. Make use of 'fail' and 'failure' where necessary, e.g.: (1) (*V sluchae esli Storoni ne ureguliruyut sporniy vopros*) through negotiations, the dispute shall be taken to the municipal arbitration court. (2) In no event DIS shall be liable to CG for loss of profits arising by reason of the (*yakobi imeyushchihs'a defektov*) in the Licensed Know-how.

(e) Complete the sentences using the words and word combinations from the box.

(f) Study the following word combinations in the box and fill in the gaps with the correct English prepositions, e.g.:

	conformity	
	compliance	with
in	accordance	
	pursuance	of
	pursuant	to
	according	to
as	per	

(1) Customer shall pay for each unit of Electronic Advertising ordered ___ compliance ___ Addendum 1 hereto. (2) The depositary (the director) shall register this Treaty and its Protocols pursuant ___ Article 102 of the Charter of the United Nations. (3) The goods shall be delivered ___ conformity ___ the samples. (4) The total value of the goods shall equal (*full amount in figure and in words*) as ___ Appendix2.

(g) Complete the following table, e.g.:

(1)

<i>Verbs & verbal phrases</i>	<i>Nouns & noun phrases</i>
to terminate an agreement	...
...	expiration (of the Patent Rights)
to establish a company	...
to execute an agreement	...
...	disclosure of confidential information
...	patent application
to assign rights	...
to require	...
to grant certain rights to sb	...
...	technical assistance

(2)

<i>Verb</i>	<i>Noun</i>	<i>Adjective</i>
	ratification	ratified
promote		promotional
register		registered
	succession	successive
in/corporate		corporate
	authorization	authorized
	dissolution	dissolved

• **Step III. Navigating through the labyrinths of contracts' technicalities.** Preparation of a two-way translation of the sample contract is the final step of the contract text translation training process.

Using English-Russian parallels and detailed analysis of contract text elements are aimed at improving students' professional translation techniques and finding the best equivalents to provide the accurate translation. The Course Books [3, 4, 5, 8] undoubtedly contribute to further enhancing of the students' general knowledge of contract law.

3.2 Difficulties of Business Text Translation Practices

Accuracy of business text translation into another language has always been a priority. Equivalence of texts in different languages doesn't always imply equivalency of text constituents [1, 6]. The training task during the B.A. and M.A. professional English courses is to describe some specific characteristics and difficulties of legal translation practices as well as some problems in finding

correct foreign language equivalents of business terminology especially in case of variations in their meanings in different cultures. It can be useful to look at some examples that can help legal translators navigate through the labyrinths of juridical text translation in their future work.

The acquisition of language and linguistic competence of students majoring in law can best be realized through tasks with a focus on the exploitation of authentic materials, on texts connected with professional implications, on learner-centered activities.

4. Conclusion

Nowadays we see an increase of demands on ESP practitioners to serve the needs of students and professionals in the field of law-specific texts translation to conduct their studies, research, and business in English on an international scale. So, the rising competence of practitioners in this field is an important professional goal.

Legal terminology is one of the most difficult fields of legal discourse for translation. Translators should be ready for comparative research that may help to choose the correct translation technique. Legal text translation requires an interdisciplinary approach.

This article has addressed the practical points of course design and implementation, and the immediate instructional needs of ESP teachers.

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PARALLEL AND COMPARABLE LANGUAGE CORPORA, CLUSTER EQUIVALENCE AND TRANSLATOR EDUCATION

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Abstract

The focus of the paper is the presentation of the application of parallel and comparable language corpora in translator education, exemplified by English-Polish and Polish-English materials [9], collected in the framework of the CLARIN-PL 2 project. The use of corpus tools also developed in the project, such as the *Paralela* concordancer and the *Hask* collocation databases [6], is presented and discussed in terms of corpus-informed teaching practice and its effects on translator competence development at the MA level of philology studies at Polish universities [10]. The paper discusses and elaborates on the concept of *cluster equivalence* of basic, derived, extended and emergent types [1] and presents ways of identifying cluster equivalence patterns on authentic translational corpus materials in a cross-linguistic perspective. The discussion makes reference to large monolingual, parallel and comparable examples and presents sets of translational clusters of equivalence patterns and collocational patterning in terms of the cognitive phenomena of *re-conceptualization*, *meaning approximation* and *displacement of senses* as proposed in Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk [3]. Ample examples are presented of the parallel and comparable text analysis of the quantitative (corpus-based) and qualitative (discourse-based cognitive) types performed at the translation programme. The corpus materials cover both parallel data from literary and media genres, LSP as well as comparable uses of spoken materials.

Key words: corpus-informed translation education, derived/extended/emergent cluster equivalence, displacement of senses, meaning approximation, re-conceptualization, threshold concepts, translation education

1 Introduction

The paper discusses and elaborates on the concept of *cluster equivalence* in translation practice [1] and presents ways of the identification of clustering equivalence patterns on authentic translational corpus materials in a cross-linguistic perspective as used in the process of university student – translation trainees’- education.

2 Translation as re-conceptualization

To convey a message to the addressee, language users perceive events in the outside world, mediated by their conceptual systems, the linguistic system used and other semiotic codes, which structure users’ experience and shape its content. Ways of experience structuring are partly conventional and culture-based, partly discourse- and context-constrained, and partly entirely subjective, sometimes novel and creative. In other words, what message conceptualizers present in their language is *their construal of the world*. The term *construal* is used here in the sense of Langacker [2], where it is defined as “the relation between the speaker (or hearer) and the situation that he conceptualizes or portrays” (2:487–488).

Translation, in cognitivist terms, can be conceived of as *re-conceptualization* of a Source Language (SL) message into a new Target Language (TL) construal of the scene in the totality of its context and situation. The term *re-conceptualization*, proposed and developed by Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk [3], is not only possible but unavoidable in translation. It is partly dictated by new construal parameters in the target language form, different context (time, place, TL audience), but also brought about by subjective preferences of the translator in their selecting or devising particular target language forms, which do not profile the same entities across languages. *The principle of iconicity*, emphasising the inseparability of form and meaning, is also at work here. The translator and their TL readers’ mental spaces are populated with characters bearing some semblance to the original SL ones, interacting in ways, which remind us of the source interactions, but clearly re-constructed. The TL words and (fully semanticized) constructions give a new perspective, profile different parts of the linguistic base content and make salient not necessarily identical elements and parts of the original scenes (cf. [3]).

3 Displacement of senses

In cross-linguistic comparisons what is conventionally observed are weakly commensurable categorical hierarchies in language and, rooted in them, a *dynamic displacement of senses* [4]. As shown in Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk [4], a cross-linguistic displacement of senses is a typical phenomenon in comparing languages. For instance, the verb *go* in English, a superordinate category for numerous verbs of movement, has no direct equivalent in Polish at

the same categorial level. In Polish the concept of going can have equivalents implemented by two more specific verbs *iść* 'walk' and *jechać* 'move by/in a vehicle', which, in turn, would correspond to still more specific English verbs such as *ride*, *drive*, etc., at a lower level of the categorization hierarchy.

Moreover, a translation product is a result of the inter-discursive activity. Meanings can be abstracted from their contexts but in their natural use they are context-sensitive and *emerge* in the course of an interaction. Translation thus has to do with various re-conceptualization operations. Apart from numerous *qualitative changes* (linguistic units in different languages open up distinct sets of lexical and structural meaning combinations), *quantitative linguistic* parameters such as the frequency of occurrence of a language form, its combinatorics with other items in discourse as well as patterns of semantic similarity, oppositeness and inclusion all contribute to a language specific character of SL and TL forms (see [3] for details). Furthermore, numerous cultural distinctions and preferences matter in varying discourse interpretations of SL and TL.

4 Translational data and cluster equivalence

The notion of equivalence, the crucial notion for any theory as well as practice of translation, lends itself to a number of possible interpretations. ST-oriented theories assume 'faithfulness to the original' to be the main parameter of translational equivalence, while TL-oriented approaches, more frequent in contemporary translation theory, evoke a more dynamic – functional - concept of the language-oriented equivalence. Translational materials provide rich data of the asymmetry and displacement phenomena between Source and Target languages. In Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk [1] the author exemplifies clusters of TL English forms corresponding to the metonymically related Polish SL forms *motor/motocykl*. In the sense of a vehicle it typically denotes a motorcycle, which has a number of equivalent forms in English and in the processes of displacement, the English form is further extended to make it varying between *motorcycle*, *bike*, *moped*, etc. :

- (1) This license is for a motorcycle.
- (1a) Prawo jazdy jest na motor.
- (2) Maybe something hit my cycle.
- (2a) Może coś uderzyło w mój motor.
- (3) She had to give Juan her motorbike!
- (3a) Ona kupiła motor mojemu synowi.
- (4) - I like your bike –
- (4a) Podoba mi się twój motor.
- (5) He's got a moped!
- (5a) - On ma motor!

(6) - I can't drive a motor bike

(6a) - Nie potrafię prowadzić motocykla

It is important to note that the origin and degree of prototypical similarity between cluster equivalents can also vary and thus a distinction between *basic*, *derived*, *extended* and *emergent* types of cluster equivalence can be postulated. The basic and derived types (Pol. *motor/motocykl* – Eng. *motor/motorcycle*) are most conventionalized. The extended type covers further units of the closely related neighbouring clusters (Pol. *motor* – Eng. *bicycle/moped*), while the emergent type involves novel, creative, often figurative, uses, of a lower frequency and incidence as in Eng. *fast flying raptor* for a motorcycle. The word *raptor* (orig. animal *dromeosaurus*) is used in Lockheed F-22 *Raptor* (fighter aircraft) and in *Raptor* – a rocket engine. Students practice these diverse ways of the identification of clustering equivalence patterns on authentic translational corpus materials in a cross-linguistic perspective.

It may be interesting to note that the selection of a particular equivalent by the translator can be treated – to some extent - as a free variation phenomenon. And yet, for example in specialized contexts (as in legal regulations concerning vehicles), the selection will be constrained to a full rather (e.g., *motorcycle*) than the derived (clipped), more colloquial forms – *motor* or *bike* – in this particular case. Obviously, there typically exist, sometimes fairly subtle, meaning distinctions between meaning construal of particular members of a cluster.

Development of the translation trainees' sensitivity both to the sense clustering on the one hand in the process of translation practice and the sense *individuation* of cluster forms on the other is one of the main methodological objectives in translation education.

We argue that one of the most efficient methods to approach this goal is the focus on students' language self-reflection development by means of parallel and comparable language corpus practice. The term *parallel corpus* is used in the sense of a collection of translated texts (from a Source Language to a Target Language, in our case from Polish to English and from English to Polish). *Comparable corpora* are materials which include texts similar in more than one language or variety, used in comparable communication circumstances (time, addressee, genre, style, etc.). The materials used in the present study have been collected at the Corpus and Computational Linguistics Laboratory of the University of Lodz and coordinated by one of the authors (Piotr Pezik) within the CLARIN-PL 2 international research project.

5 Parallel and comparable corpus tools for cluster equivalence identification

As pointed out above, lexical equivalents tend to form complex clusters with subtle restrictions on many-to-many correspondences between both simple

lexemes and multiword lexical equivalents. In this section we illustrate how the complexity of these patterns can be studied on the basis of parallel and comparable reference corpora of source and target languages.

The English-Polish parallel corpus used in this paper is known as *Paralela*, which currently contains over 18 million translational segments and is available online at <http://paralela.clarin-pl.eu>. A typical translational segment in this corpus is a short span of text, such as a sentence or short paragraph, which has either been acquired from a translation memory or aligned specifically for the purposes of the project. The exact composition of the corpus is described by Pezik [5], who also provides examples of the bilingual query syntax. The syntax can be used to retrieve Polish-English sentential equivalents matching certain lexico-grammatical criteria.

The comparable corpora used to obtain the monolingual Polish and English concordances presented in this section are the balanced component of the National Corpus of Polish and the British National Corpus. These reference corpora are accessed indirectly through the *Hask* collocation databases [6] which contain over 5.6 million Polish and 2.8 million recurrent word combinations found to co-occur in a set of grammatical patterns, such as verb + noun or adjective + verb. Both of these databases can be accessed online through a dedicated web application at <http://pelcra.pl/hask>.

Pol. *jednak* > Eng. cluster

An example which is used in this section to illustrate the concordancing functionality of *Paralela* is the Polish conjunction *jednak* and its English cluster equivalence patterns. Among the English equivalents of *jednak* which recur frequently in the concordances returned by this tool, we have found words such as *however* (in 25 384 parallel segments), *nevertheless* (2 461), *but* (17 613), *yet* (3 019) and *still* (3 264). These equivalents are obviously the most conventional English forms identified in the consulted parallel texts. To fully interpret their meanings and distribution the translation trainees resort to aligned concordances which, when needed, can be accessed in wider contexts of several paragraphs. Examples of parallel concordances extracted from samples of multilingual proceedings of the European Parliament are shown below:

(7) Pol. Niepokoją nas jednak pewne elementy omawianego sprawozdania.
[Parlament Europejski]

(7a) Eng. However, we are concerned by certain aspects of the report.
[European Parliament]

(8) Pol. Stany Zjednoczone wyrażają jednak zgodę na krótki okres przejściowy w trakcie którego przyjmowane będą, bez wymogu dostosowania, sprawozdania finansowe. [Parlament Europejski]

(8a) Eng. The United States has, however, indicated that, for a transitional period, it is prepared to accept financial reports. [European Parliament]

5.1 Eng. *yet* > Pol. cluster

Further inquiry into the equivalence pattern triggered by one of the English forms, *yet*, corresponding to Pol. *jednak*, uncovers an English-to-Polish, equally complex, cluster patterning, which includes pairs of equivalents such as *yet-jeszcze* (18 615 segments), *yet-jednak* (3 452), *yet-mimo* (801), *yet-już* (2987) and *yet-wciąż* (618). A closer analysis of individual parallel entries also uncovers more analytically constructed equivalence patterns, usually from literary materials such as ex. 15-16 below, in which the re-conceptualization processes are even more clearly visible:

(9) Eng. Whatever landscape might lie further must have been flat, and these tall beeches shut it out

(9a) Pol. Nie mogłam widzieć dalszych planów krajobrazu, domyślała m się jednak, że okolica musi być płaska i nizinna

(10) Eng. The other, I felt certain, recalled it often in the course of the evening

(10a) Pol. Czułam jednak, że Heathcliff często do niego powraca.

In 9a *jednak* replaces an epistemic modality expression, while *jednak* in 10a. is an exponent of the contrastive sense rendered in English by the parenthetical comment.

5.2 Multiword expressions 'as yet unknown'

Cluster relations may also be observed between single-token lexemes and multiword expressions. For example, *yet* is often used as part of the complex adverb *as yet*, which in turn forms recurrent collocations with adjectives prefixed by *un-*, as in *as yet unknown*, *as yet unnamed* or *as yet unidentified*.

Many such multiword expressions can be identified with the BNC version of Hask as shown in Fig. 1 below.

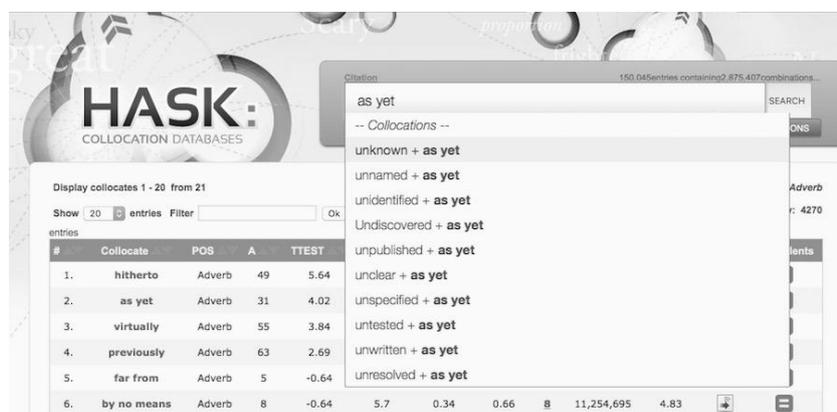


Fig. 1. Adjectival collocates of *as yet* in Hask.

A parallel search for more detailed distributional characteristics of the phrase *as yet unknown*, generates a number of contextually situated instances (concordances) and makes it possible for the user to get involved in a reflective contextual analysis of the distribution of its usage and sense individuation. In the subsequent sections we show how such collocational equivalents can be identified with Hask and Paralela.

5.3 Using Colosaurus to explore collocational restrictions

Although concordances are “the weapon of first and last resort” [7] in any corpus analyses, the sheer number of concordances obtained for some queries may require more advanced methods of aggregating the results. A combination of functionalities available in the Paralela search engine and Hask databases can be used to help translation students uncover and systematically analyze many such clusters.

For example, looking at the first twenty out of the total of 558 concordances returned by the following Paralela query: *złowrog***|*złowieszczy***

one could prematurely conclude that *ominous* is nearly always selected as the equivalent English adjective of one of these words. This impression may be reinforced by the fact that the reverse search for Polish equivalents of ‘ominous’ results in a list of translational segments in which different inflectional forms of the adjective *złowrog* are much more frequently aligned with *ominous* than those of *złowieszczy*. In order to provide a way of uncovering potentially more complex patterns of equivalence, users of Paralela can apply a special functionality available from the main results screen. As shown in Fig. 2 below, the ‘Equivalents’ tab contains a table of equivalents generated from a full list of parallel concordances matching a user’s query:

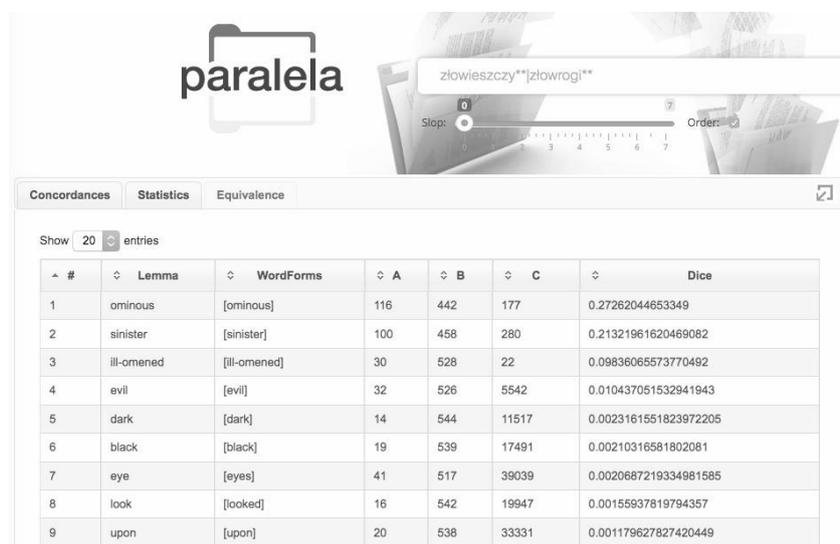


Fig. 2. A table of potential English equivalents of the Polish adjectives *złowieszczy/złowrogi* extracted with Paralela.

The aggregation of matched spans shows that ‘ominous’ is indeed the most frequently preferred equivalent of *złowrogi* and *złowieszczy*, as it is found to co-occur with either *złowrogi* or *złowieszczy* in 116 parallel segments of the corpus. At the same time, there are other regular equivalents of these adjectives, such as *sinister* with 100 occurrences as well as *ill-omened* and *evil* which were found in 30 and 32 translational segments respectively. Such results can be sorted by either raw frequencies of co-occurrence or strength-of-association scores between the potential equivalents, calculated as the Dice coefficient. The statistics are computed on-the-fly from the complete list of concordances matching any corpus query submitted to Paralela.

6 Comparable corpora and equivalence clusters

The availability of a large parallel corpus of Polish-English translations makes it possible to study some of the context-dependent factors determining the choice of these equivalents in naturally-occurring translational scenarios. On the other hand, certain restricted collocations and idiomatic expressions tend to have highly predictable lexical equivalents. Such ‘phraseological equivalents’ have been observed to emerge from translation corpora, but their conventionalization often becomes obvious when large monolingual corpora of the source and target languages are consulted in parallel for evidence of idiomaticity [5].

For example, the Colosaurus functionality of the Hask dictionaries can be used to generate a table of binary collocates for an arbitrary set of seed words. Table 1 shows a list of nominal collocates of the two seemingly synonymous adjectives mentioned above, i.e. *sinister* and *ominous*. One of the obvious restrictions which emerges from this aggregated view is that *sinister aspect* and *ominous warning* are relatively more conventional than **ominous aspect* or **sinister warning*. The latter two combinations are considerably less frequent or not attested at all in the BNC and several other reference corpora of English, including the Corpus of Contemporary American (COCA), Global Web-based English (GloWBE) and the corpus compiled by members of the UK Web Archiving Consortium (UKWaC). For this reason, they may be considered potentially less idiomatic translational equivalents than the former two variants.

Collocate	Ominous	Sinister
aspect	0	8
atmosphere	0	3
creak	3	0
design	0	3
development	0	3
element	0	3
event	3	0
figure	0	4
force	0	3
implication	5	9
...
silence	9	0

Table 1. Selected nominal collocates of *ominous* and *sinister* in BNC.

Such collocational restrictions can be further visualized in a bipartite graph [6], as shown in Fig. 3. The vertices of the graph represent seed words and collocates. The presence of an edge between a seed word and its collocate indicates a certain number of co-occurrences in the reference corpus. Whereas the noun *słowo* ‘word’ is linked directly to both *złowieszczy* and *złowrogi*, both *milczenie* and *cisza* (Eng. *silence*) tend to co-occur with feminine forms of the adjective *złowrogi* in the balanced subset of the National Corpus of Polish (NKJP).

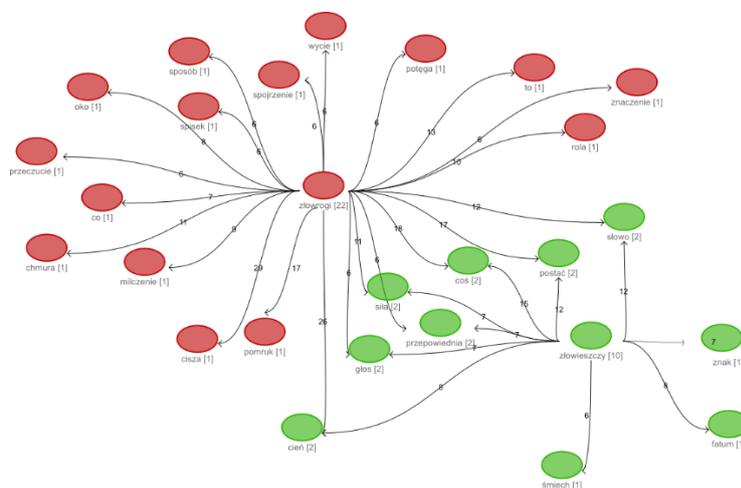


Fig. 3. A graph representing collocational restrictions on two largely synonymous adjectives (*złowrogie/ złowieszczy*).

The relevance of these findings to translation practice can be illustrated with the following three segments retrieved from Paralela. While *ominous/ awful* words are translated as either *złowieszcze* or *złowrogie słowa* in 11 and 12, *ominous pause* is rendered as *złowroga cisza* (13, 13a):

(11) Eng. Where had these **ominous words** come from? [Dogville]

(11a) Pol. Skąd się wzięły **złowieszcze słowa**? [Dogville]

(12) Eng. My sister made a dive at me, and fished me up by the hair, saying nothing more than **the awful words**, "You come along and be dosed." [Great Expectations]

(12a) Pol. Siostra skoczyła ku mnie, schwyciła mnie za włosy i rzuciła **złowrogie słowa**: — Pójdiesz ze mną i dam ci lekarstwo. [Wielkie Nadzieje]

(13) Eng. There was a moment's **ominous pause**. [Women in Love]

(13a) Pol. Zapadła **złowroga cisza**. [Zakochane kobiety]

These translational preferences were predicted from the collocational graph generated from the reference corpus of Polish. Such an analysis of potential phraseological equivalents in translation courses may help exemplify the notion of 'idiomatic translation', which is rather vague when introduced in abstraction from corpus data.

The most recent version of Hask provides a way of directly accessing information about potential clusters of phraseological equivalents. For example, Fig 4 below shows a number of English equivalents of the Polish collocation

ulewny deszcz which are not only attested in Paralela but also regularly found in the British National Corpus. The relevant matches include different forms of the phrases ‘torrential’ and ‘heavy’ rain. The intricacies of cluster-equivalence restrictions can thus be investigated directly from the entries of these collocational databases.

ulewny [przymiotnik] + deszcz [rzeczownik]

Show 5 entries

#	Hash	Node PoS	Collocate PoS	Node	Collocate	Cooc	Dice
1	torrential [adjective] + rain [noun]	noun	adjective	rain	torrential	34	0.01
2	torrential [adjective] + rain [noun]	noun	adjective	rain	torrential	34	0.01
3	rain [noun] + torrential [adjective]	adjective	noun	torrential	rain	34	0.01
4	heavy [adjective] + rain [noun]	noun	adjective	rain	heavy	24	0.01
5	rain [noun] + heavy [adjective]	adjective	noun	heavy	rain	24	0.01

Showing 1 to 5 of 20 entries

Show / hide columns Show 10 entries

#	English	Polish
1	They found, in the examination of 150 sites throughout the Eastern Sahara of Egypt, Sudan, Libya and Chad over 30 years, that the area would once have been subject to heavy /monsoon-like rains.	Badając 150 miejsc na terenie całej Sahary Wschodniej w Egipcie, Sudanie, Libii i Czadzie w ciągu 30 lat, odkryli, że kiedyś ten obszar nawiedzany był przez ulewne deszcze , podobne do monsunowych.
2	About 10,500 years ago, the Sahara sprang into life, with heavy rains producing lakes, rivers and abundant wildlife.	Okolo 10 500 lat temu Sahara tryskała zyciem, ulewne deszcze powodowały powstawanie jezior, rzek i bujnej flory i fauny.
3	In the UK, heavy rains have caused rivers across central and southern England and Wales, including the Thames and the Severn, to burst their banks.	W Wielkiej Brytanii ulewne deszcze spowodowały, że rzeki w całej środkowej i południowej Anglii i Walii, łącznie z Tamizą i rzeką Severn, wystąpiły z brzoóg.
4	In September 2007, an extensive part of Slovenia was affected by heavy rain and storms, leading to severe flooding and landslides.	We wrześniu 2007 r. duży obszar Słowenii ucierpiał na skutek ulewnych deszczów i burz, które spowodowały poważne powodzie oraz osunięcia się ziemi.
5	Title: Aid to compensate farmers for the losses caused by heavy rains and whirlwinds.	Tytuł: Pomoc przeznaczona na rekompensatę dla rolników z tytułu strat spowodowanych przez ulewne deszcze i trąpy powietrzne.

Fig 4. Bilingual alignment of entries in collocation dictionaries via parallel corpus data.

7 Conclusions: ICT & corpora at ESL philology and translation courses

It can be concluded that the important criterion to determine the closeness of cluster equivalence pairs is the identification of the allowable lexical modulation in terms of collocate types and practical lexical substitutions used. Cluster members are clearly not semantically or structurally identical, although they show degrees of polysemic or synonymy-based resemblance (see [8] for a discussion of polysemy) and can be substitutable in some translational contexts [9]. There are numerous properties that can be modulated by practical inter-substitution strategies, which can be contextually constrained but not fully predictable.

The practice involving the identification, analysis and use of particular cluster members by the philology translation trainees [10] is observed to be

conducive to the development of their language and style conscious reflection [11] both in the students' native language system as well as in their foreign language and translational competences.

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HIGHER EDUCATION GLOBALIZATION: EXPLORING INTERNATIONAL OPINION ON UNIVERSITY LANGUAGE POLICY

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Abstract. The paper explores challenges that higher education currently faces within the framework of globalization and internationalization, which are conditioned by objective and subjective factors of world development in the third millennium. The particular attention is drawn to the role of language in the HE internationalization. English is viewed as lingua franca though the importance of integrating English, mother tongue and a possible second foreign language in the academic curricula is underlined. The research was to explore international understanding and vision regarding the language potential to meet challenges and constraints that higher education is facing within the context of its move towards internationalization. The above goal is reached through analysis of opinions of those who work within higher education.

The methodology integrated desk research and field research and aggregated data from academic findings, interviews with education policy makers, national government bodies representatives, education institutions administrators and professors engaged in the events under European Parliament, international conferences on education, strategic sessions of the Russian Universities that participate in the Russia-wide academic excellence project 5-100. Totally 134 respondents took part in the interviews.

A number of constraints have been identified and respondents' comments have been processed and summarized.

Concluding remarks provide recommendations regarding the design and implementation of language policy for internationally oriented university.

Key words: higher education, challenges to education, language policy

1. Introduction

In the third millennium, education, especially higher education, is seen as one of the leading factors of social, political and economic progress. The reason for this attention lies in the understanding that the most important value and the main capital of modern society is a person capable of searching for and

processing relevant information to produce new knowledge and provide flexible non-standard solutions in relation to the diverse and dynamic contexts of reality.

However, modern education faces systemic challenges, which are conditioned by objective and subjective factors of world development in the third millennium.

Experts from different countries study in detail existing and emerging challenges and point to the need for understanding the comprehensive and multiangle nature of current internationalization (14).

Increase in enrollment and financing constrains, urgent need to change the education environment through updated technology use, HE staff's resistance to required changes, students' attendance discipline, moderate percentage of graduates, public alienation from HE ideas due to increasing tuition fees [25, 26], the issues related to the divide between higher education systems that increase public funding for universities, and those that reduce investment in universities, is getting wider [9], regarding the Asian continent researches that focus on such issues as research capacity, autonomy and corporatization, foreign branch campuses, sector diversification and differentiation, the academic profession, and the use of technology [23,18]. Special emphasis is laid on university capacity to build and strengthen policy research [12], on the one hand, and on the importance to enhance the focus on transferable skills in education programs [24].

Against the above background there is particular attention to the role of language in the HE internationalization [1, 22]. The above issues are explored by scholars from various countries including USA, Canada, Latin America, Asia, Europe [4, 6, 11, 13, 15, 19, 21, 28].

Though there is no doubt about English as lingua franca for international education scholars strive to develop a dynamic conceptual framework for English medium education in multilingual university settings, specify the importance of integrating English, mother tongue and a possible second foreign language in the academic curricula [2,3,5, 17, 20].

Currently, university policy makers, scholars and university management representatives mention that language issues go beyond academic issues and cover administrative, legal, human resources issues, advertising and external communication in the media, and even infrastructure issues [8, 27].

Bearing in mind the above state of affairs, **the present paper goal** is to explore international understanding and vision regarding the language potential to meet challenges and constraints that higher education is facing within the context of its move towards internationalization.

The above goal could be reached by paying attention to voices and opinions of those who work within higher education.

The methodology integrated desk research and field research and aggregated data from academic findings, interviews with education policy makers, national government bodies representatives, education institutions administrators and professors engaged in the events under European Parliament, international conferences on education and development under IATED umbrella (16), strategic sessions of the Russian Universities that participate in the Russia-wide academic excellence project 5-100 [29].

Totally 134 respondents took part in the interviews. They represented Austria, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Germany, India, Italy, Saudi Arabia, South Korea, Japan, Spain, UAE, USA.

The interview structure included the following issues:

- What is foreign languages role within the HE institutions move towards internationalization?
- What challenges to the Higher Education (constraints within HE environment) do you see within the internationalization development?
- How can language policy help overcome the above challenges/constraints?

As the respondents represented rather diverse educational systems, the interview data processing aimed to identify common challenges and constraints that respondents mapped. The above approach responds to the goal of the research. Therefore only statements that showed no dependence on such variables as country origin, ranking of the university that the respondent was affiliated with, engagement in Humanities or science, were taken into account.

2 Results and Discussion

Regarding the first question, respondents mentioned that languages should be seen as a tool to enhance internationalization.

As for the second question, the following constraints were commonly identified by respondents:

1. Constraints between global internationally-oriented models of the education development and national interests in the field of education
2. Constraints between the positive and negative consequences of the inter-university competition that derives from the university strive towards internationalization
3. Constraints between research and education as constituent components of university academic environment
4. Constraints between fundamental values of education and increasing commercialization of education
5. Constraints between massification and growing cost of university-based education and research

While providing comments on the above information, respondents were asked to share their opinions regarding the foreign language issues.

We consider it timely to sum up most common arguments that respondents produced while elaborating on the above mentioned list of constraints and laying specific emphasis on foreign languages issues.

2.1. Constraints between global internationally oriented models of the education development and national state interests in the field of education

First of all, it should be mentioned that those who participated in the interviews mentioned such positive aspects as openness of education, expansion of academic mobility, coordination of training programs, knowledge assessment systems, qualifications, etc.

Furthermore, 100% of the interview participants have agreed that in the academic world, there have always been centers and peripheries. In a number of countries that are highly developed in socioeconomic terms, the level of university education is higher than elsewhere because of the level of industrial and technological development of the country as a whole, welfare, long-standing educational traditions, language and other factors. The strongest universities in developed countries are regarded as leaders of academic environment and models of movement toward academic excellence. Similarly, the capital federal universities occupy priority positions in relation to regional, local universities.

The zone of the center and periphery in higher education arises and strengthens both in international and in domestic contexts. This ratio of the so-called center and periphery creates tension.

Nonetheless, 61% of the respondents from different countries have noted that too much importance is given to global status, countries should concentrate their efforts more on meeting national and regional needs.

Within the above context, over 97% of the respondents specified the importance of a very careful balance between English based academic activities and those that are conducted by universities in their mother tongues.

2.2. Constraints between positive and negative consequences of the inter-university competition that derives from the university strive towards internationalization

100% of the respondents have confirmed that they consider it normal all over the world, countries compete for academic status in the ranking, for attracting international students and leading scientists. Rankings and league tables are gaining weight within the national higher education policy development. There is a trend of growing competition among educational institutions. Competition has always been a driving force behind academic development, an impetus for achieving high standards and best indicators. Competition lays grounds for

universities to create international teams of scientists and teachers, stimulates an intensive academic exchange.

However, competition can have a negative impact on the development of national / regional higher education in cases where formal indicators begin to dominate the essential ones.

91% of the respondents mentioned that the formal increase in the percentage of international academic staff might come into conflict with the tasks of preserving and developing national / regional academic human resources; the formal increase in the percentage of international students in the university in order to promote this indicator in international rankings in certain situations reduces the access of citizens to education, it contradicts the task of the national higher education goal to train highly professional personnel for the national economy.

Within the above context, positive role of foreign languages can be supported by the statement that learning foreign languages can help local students become part of their university international community, enrich local students' academic and social experience through communication with international peers and teachers, provide access to international training sources and research findings.

Nonetheless, 84% of the respondents underlined that language policy issues deserve systemic attention. Those concerned agreed that multilingualism in higher education is certainly a positive fact, it opens access to advanced resources and technologies in the field of education. Meanwhile, respondents mention that there are also questions about the quality of foreign language-based teaching, about the students' level of language skills, the quality of foreign-language based educational resources in the aspect of their relevance for the national development goals.

2.3. Constraints between research and education as constituent components of university academic environment

100% of the respondents agree that education and research are the two main functions of the educational activities of universities world-wide; traditional prestige associated with research has increased in recent years.

The education system attaches significant weight to research universities around the world. Government funding contributes to the upgrading of the status of these institutions.

Meanwhile, 92% of the respondents have mentioned that such practice places learning-oriented institutions at a disadvantage in terms of state funding and other types of support.

Moreover, 96% of those interviewed consider that training highly skilled professionals for various industries is an extremely important function of higher

education. Thus, teaching should not be underestimated by HE institutions in their pursuit of achieving a prestigious research-led university status.

The above respondents also mentioned as a positive trend that research-led education style is growing in training university students for various industries.

Bearing in mind the above, 53% of the respondents consider that the above landscape might be improved through balanced and careful approach to university-based foreign language training for non-language students, in particular, while other 47% revealed they did not think of such an approach. Those who argue for the above statement mention that academic curricula can provide opportunities for sequence of interrelated learning activities: namely, general language course, language for specific purposes course, subjects taught in a foreign language(s), research lead activities in foreign languages. This is a standard pathway for RUDN University (Russia, Moscow) that traditionally enroll international students and provide local students with foreign language training that allows students to continue further multilingual education. As regards the Higher Education theory and Didactics, the above approach has been implemented in many universities through CLIL [7, 10].

The mentioned trajectory can contribute to minimizing constraints between research and education as constituent components of university academic environment.

2.4. Constraints between fundamental values of education and increasing commercialization of education

100% of the respondents mention that centuries-old traditions of universities educational philosophy and mission collide with the growing commercialization of higher education.

Universities that were previously viewed as key cradles for human education and growth today are under pressure of commercialization. Higher education systems and institutions bear responsibility for increasing the percentage of their own incomes. 100% of the respondents agree that classroom-based foreign language learning and teaching is funds-consuming. As a tool to decrease the amount of money to be spent by students on foreign language learning to meet the international standards of language skills 86% of the respondents mention that there is a wide access for free on-line resources to learn foreign languages in general, and for specific purposes, as well. The above resources can be not just recommended but included in the mandatory courses material.

2.5. Constraints between massification and growing cost of university-based education and research

The above challenge has been mentioned by 82% of those interviewed. It is interesting to mention that regarding the problem under study the respondents have ever stronger insisted on the importance of balancing the university

programs in the mother tongue and in a foreign language. Those engaged have referred to the fact that mother tongue-based programs are less expensive and therefore are more affordable for the public with average income. Such an approach contributes to fostering fundamental rights to education. The focus on foreign language-based education can alien local students while international students traditionally opt for major English-speaking countries.

3 Conclusions

In general, the research findings lead to the conclusion that the internationally oriented university while facing global challenges should pay consistent attention to language policy issues. The language policy of the university can contribute to the university quality assurance. To this end such policy requires a sound methodological basis that rests on university priorities, multidimensional activity, real goals, and a set of measures.

The above should be elaborated through consistent consultations and negotiations of those who are in charge and part of university management, academic and research activities, public relations, students' affairs and extracurricular activities.

Designing university language educational policy includes purposeful process of raising university community awareness, and reaching consent among all the internal stakeholders.

The university language policy development requires a number of principles to be viewed as grounds for the respective policy design.

First, the policy should logically correlate with goals and trends of university education development. Second, the language policy should lay ground to integrate education and research. Third, the language policy should take into account the needs of both international and local needs in terms of students, academic staff, national industry development, etc.

Fourth, the language policy should balance international and national white paper documents provisions and standards.

Fifth, the language policy should integrate university and non-university community to develop and implement the policy core principles. Sixth, the language policy should ensure the professional relevance of the language training for university academic and managerial community to enhance its members national, cultural, and professional self-identity in the global multicultural world.

The above principles implementation contributes to the continuity of language policy and its multidimensional impact on the quality of university education.

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LINGVO-CULTURAL ASPECTS IN TRANSLATING LEGAL TEXTS FROM FRENCH INTO RUSSIAN

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Abstract: Translation is one of the forms of interaction of cultures, which is understood not only as a replacement of linguistic units of one language by another, but also as a functional replacement of cultural elements. When teaching legal translators, it is necessary to take into account the linguistic-cultural aspect of the translation. Possession of the skills of professional communication in a foreign language can be considered as a process of familiarizing with the cultural linguistic peculiarities of the country of the studied language.

Key words: legal documents, aspects of translation, system function words and phrases, legal terminology, lingvo-cultural aspects, business language style

1. Introduction

In the current conditions of globalization and specialization of international projects, the socio-cultural role of translation as a special kind of interlingual vocational-orientated mediation is growing. Due to this reason, it is necessary to consider the process of translation in an interdisciplinary aspect.

Russia, as part of the global community, is connected with the process of globalization, the expansion of the information space, the development of new information technologies, the growth of business and personal contacts with partners. One of the requirements of the present time is not only the preparation of simple translators, but also the translators who have not only a professional but also a philological education. Thus, the training of translators in a certain field of activity (for example, lawyers - translators) increases the need for the formation of a communicative competence.

2. Sources of information

Translation is a form of interaction of cultures, which is understood not only as a replacement of linguistic units of one language by another, but also as a functional replacement of cultural elements. The translator should be able as accurately as possible, taking into account the cultural nuances, to translate special vocabulary. Translation close to the original, implies the adaptation of the text to the norms of another culture [1].

Interaction of cultures presumes the existence of common cultural elements and inconsistencies, distinguishing lingvocultural communities. While translating a special text, the translator takes into account the customary practice, i.e. language habits of native speakers of the translation language, trying not to break the habitual perception of a special text. The most complete communication between multilingual communicants is carried out by creating in the language of translation a text that is communicatively equivalent to a foreign original, that is, by translation [2].

The concept of communicative equivalence of texts is important for understanding the mechanism of translating a foreign language text. When communicating, two texts act as equal forms of the existence of a single message. When translating, for example, a legal text, the translator must be legally competent, know the basics of legislation, legal terminology, both in native and in a foreign language.

In the practice of empirical studies of translation, instruments of linguistic-cognitive analysis and methods of its description are used in particular [3].

3. Methods and Technologies

The task is to learn a foreign language and learn to translate for effective communication with representatives of other cultures, which means overcoming the language barrier, adequate speech behavior in a professional format. It is

necessary to pay attention to studying another national mentality, features of the country, foreign business culture which is extremely important for decision-making, self-control and solution of possible conflicts. For fruitful communication with native speakers of another culture, one should not only correctly translate, but also formulate thoughts in a foreign / native language, following cultural norms, traditions and customs of another country. With various international contacts, the influence of culture is manifested at all levels: in the microsphere at the level of corporate culture, in the macro-sphere at the level of inter-corporate relations.

In recent years, the need for expert translators for the specialty "translator in the field of professional communication" has grown significantly. International professional communication requires qualified translation in the framework of professional communication, which causes particular interest in the sphere of special, in particular, legal translation.

One of the most common concepts in the training of translators is the concept of an integrative learning model [4]. Particular attention is paid to the linguistic approach to translation, correspondence is being developed between the source text and the text of the translation, cognitive skills of the translator are being developed. Integrative model of training in legal translation allows to prepare a specialist interpreter with the support of the knowledge and skills of students acquired in the main legal specialty. Legal translation is a special area of translation, which requires special linguistic and professional knowledge.

It should be noted that, apart from professional training, one of the main elements of an interpreter is, of course, general erudition. One of the aspects of the development of students' abilities in professional communication is the formation of intellectual actions and skills for modeling the behavior necessary for learning information, training memory, thinking when teaching the translation of special texts. For example, a legal text, which is a kind of scientific text, fulfills prescriptive and cognitive functions, which refers to the texts of laws, by-laws regulating the relations of people in society.

Legal texts are created by professionals who take into account the current situation and the peculiarities of the organization of society. So, for example, legislative acts, different in content, are homogeneous by typological criteria. Legislators use a number of means that ensure full-fledged transfer of information to the addressee. Often, for the interpretation of the law, the addressee needs the help of a specialist lawyer. Forming a conceptual device for a student in the specialty, as well as translating special legal texts, is one of the primary tasks of training lawyers and translators.

One of the important stages is the work on the formation of the terminological stock trainee. Legal terms bear first of all cognitive information,

possessing characteristic features of special terms, that is unambiguous, lack of emotional coloring, independence from context and so on. Legal terms, as an integral part of the language norm, refer to clericalism.

Special attention in teaching the translation from French to Russian of legal texts deserves the syntax of this type of text, which is distinguished by the variety of means that make logical connections. There are logical structures expressed by special linguistic means, for example, expressions "according to ..., according to the law, for a reason" and so on. The legal text does not have personal pronouns, various kinds of abbreviations, numerical designations. For example, the French language, as an analytical language, which is characterized by a direct order of words, but in the texts of a legal nature, there are often sentences beginning with a verb, for example: "Sont irréccevables et ne peuvent être inscrites à l'ordre du jour les propositions de résolution. ." [5]. Some legal terms refer to a high style of speech, which is clearly expressed in the text of the Constitution of the French Republic: "Le peuple français proclame solennement son attachement aux Droits de l'Homme ..." [6], "La loi favorise accès des femmes et des hommes aux mandats électoraux ... " [7].

When translating a legal text, special attention should be paid to the transfer of cognitive information. Legal terms are transmitted using single-valued equivalents, a neutral form of written speech, using characteristic lexical and syntactic means, functional from the point of view of the means of the original, with the use of appropriate transformations, variation of correspondences, and so on.

An important practical element in the formation of intellectual actions and skills of modeling behavior in language communication among students are, in particular, professional internships in the country of the studied language, immersion in a foreign professional situation, the opportunity to apply and improve knowledge in the field of foreign language and jurisprudence, skills and abilities of translation.

In order to achieve these goals, it is necessary to develop methodologies for studying the translation process in a professionally-oriented learning process, translating analytical thinking and self-control skills from an interpreter, educating decision-making strategies for bilingual processing of a discursive fragment, in the absence of appropriate translation teaching aids, to ensure the specialization of translation activities in connection with the sphere of professional and cultural interaction of the translation.

4. Conclusions

Possession of the skills of professional communication in a foreign language can be considered as a process of familiarizing with the cultural and linguistic peculiarities of the country of the studied language. The trainees face a double

task. On the one hand, to understand the specific language of the addressee's speech behavior, and on the other hand, to master at the level of automatism the speech formulas that make it possible to successfully carry out professional communication in a foreign language.

The above said undoubtedly demonstrates the relevance of linguo-didactic and cultural studies of translation practice with the aim of further introducing the results of the study into the process of preparing translators and specialists in various fields of activity, who carry out linguistic and cultural professional mediation in the context of solving professional problems.

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CONSTRUCTIVISM AND THE SIGNIFICANCE OF DUBBING IN IMPROVING SLA

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Abstract. Language acquisition has been one of the central topics in cognitive science but has also been one of the most controversial. The goal of language acquisition research is to describe how a learner becomes competent to produce and understand language, select the proper processing strategies and achieve language "milestones" Doughty, C.J., & Long, M.H. (2003). Second language acquisition (SLA) has two meanings; in a general sense it is a term to describe learning a second language and it is also the name of the theory of process by which we acquire - or pick up - a second language. SLA is a subconscious process which occurs while focusing on communication.

Constructivism is a theory of learning which adjust the mental model to accommodate new experiences and help the learners to construct a concept based on their own understanding by assimilating prior knowledge and new ones. Constructivism calls for the elimination of a standardized curriculum and instead it promotes using curricula customized to the students' prior knowledge as well as emphasizing the hands-on problem solving. According to Kanselaar (2002) there are two major constructivist perspectives. They are Jean Piaget from Swiss and Lev Vygotsky from Russia. According to Piaget cognitive constructivism developed as a reaction to behaviorism and information processing theories of learning (Lowenthal & Muth, 2008). As a reaction, constructivism tries to help the students to become active learners, behaviorism is in the opposite. Piaget's cognitive constructivism focuses on the individual processes and relates new information to information that is already in memory (prior knowledge). While Vygotsky the Russian psychologist introduces the constructivism through socio-constructivist perspective. Vygotsky emphasized that the learning is based on context through the interaction with others. Vygotsky as the expert of constructivism in socio-cultural perspectives assumed that Constructivism came from the theory of language, thought and mediation in social environment. Social constructivism classroom is rooted from Vygotsky's psychological theory which accredited that knowledge is not transferred from teachers to students but constructed in the students' mind (Asia e University, 2012:152). Relatively according to Safery & Duffy (1995) they believe in constructing understanding through interaction with others in social environments in which knowledge is to be applied. This indicates that the social constructivism which rooted from Vygotsky's perspective can be applied in the

education field. In this case, the focus of knowledge doesn't come from teacher to students but the students constructed knowledge by their own selves.

Translation, is the comprehension of the meaning of a text and the subsequent production of an equivalent text, likewise to communicate the same message in another language. The Cambridge Dictionary explain 'to translate' as "the act to change the words of one language into words in another language that have the same meaning". Thus, the translation is successful only in a case where the meaning is kept. Translation can be used to grasp a better understanding of grammatical concepts such as tenses and singular/plural forms and by applying meaning to these structures to allow better recall. It is better to learn the structures provided by L2 but to practice them in L1 in order to gain meaning. By recognizing that the linguistic knowledge of L1 can be used to facilitate the acquisition of L2, whether this is through identifying the similarities and differences between the two or by other means, which develop the analytic thinking of the learner. Although it is traditional enough to see the aim of the acquisition of a high level of skills in a language (speaking, listening, writing, reading), the use of translation promote other related aims such as the acquisition of translation competence as a fifth basic skill (Campbell 2002).

Dubbing is known to be the method that modifies the source text to a large extent and thus makes it familiar to the target audience through domestication. It is the method in which "the foreign dialogue is adjusted to the mouth and movements of the actor in the film" (Dries 1995: 9 qtd. in Shuttleworth and Cowie 1997: 45). Its aim is seen as making the audience feel as if they were listening to actors actually speaking the target language. Howard Gardner postulated that students do not all learn in the same manner; students may not all be cognitively gifted. There are in fact eight types of intelligences: intrapersonal, interpersonal, logical/mathematical, visual/spatial, verbal/linguistic, bodily/kinesthetic, naturalist and musical/rhythmic. (Gay, G. 2000, Culturally Responsive Teaching Theory).

The Importance of the research. This research aims at enlightening the effect of implementing an unstandardized course, dubbing course, to the students at the university level, learning the English language as second language while their mother tongue is Arabic. Applying the dubbing processes is targeting the area of assimilating self-knowledge with new one and immersing students in hands-on experience of translation using an untraditional approach. It will enhance the students' pronunciation as well as the shades of usage of vocabulary in relation to intonation, stress and emphasis. The body language is also considered as a main factor in realizing the intended conveyed meaning.

Learner of a second language (L2) who has not become fully proficient but is approaching the target language preserves some features of the first language

(L1). This phase is called the Interlanguage, learners can be prolonged in this phase of learning the second language. Translation skills are evaluated according to the state of learners' interlanguage which indicate the stage of development. The problem of language development has frequently been disregarded though it would help the learners to get improved (Campbell 1998). The dubbing process gives a large area of ability to comprehend and interact with structures of more than one language. It can be one way of developing the SLA and improving the interlanguage of the learners.

Methodology. The research will use the qualitative method aiming for a complete, detailed description of observations, including the context of events and circumstances of the experiment; which matches the target of the research as an exploratory research helps to uncover trends in thought and opinions, and dive deeper into the problem.

Findings. The research will try to highlight the significance of the dubbing as a technique of translation that can develop and improve the learners' second language acquisition.

The main learning methods to be considered in the dubbing process are: immersion, grammar and dictionary usage, natural methods, methods based on structuralism. Also the social constructivism classroom rooted from Vygotsky's psychological theory declaring that knowledge is transferred from teachers to students, to be constructed in their minds, depends mainly on language, thought, and mediation in social environment.

Conclusion. Applying the dubbing processes on a group of students learning English as a second language is directed to this theory in which the students would be motivated to become active and interactive learners in social medium. They will make use of their prior knowledge as well as learn new one while practicing the translation through the dubbing processes. The students will produce at the end a special outcome that they all shared in shaping it from their own point of view.

Key words. Second language acquisition, constructivism, translation, dubbing

**ON THE OTHER SIDE OF THE WORLD' PROJECT:
A TELECOLLABORATIVE, AND MULTICULTURAL
PERSPECTIVE IN EFL FACING THE GLOBAL DIGITAL DIVIDE**

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Abstract. The technological disparities between developed and developing countries commonly known as the Global Digital Divide (GDD) cannot stop widening, favoring disinformation, misunderstanding, and deficient communication. Such inequality does not only concern connectivity and accessibility to information but most importantly how to effectively make use of close at hand ICT tools. The lack of trust, support and cooperation has stirred up fears, and growing resentment. This research study presents '*On the Other Side of the World*' project which claims to be a lively extra-curricular telecollaborative initiative linking university students from Arab, African, Asian, European and American countries. Its main objective is to make the most of authentic, synchronous/asynchronous, reflexive online linguistic and intercultural exchanges. New prospects will be opened up via English as a lingua franca to constructive dialogues, tasks and activities that help diminish coercive confrontations vis-à-vis socio-political issues and deep-rooted stereotypes; empower the participants' cultural capital, and hence, bridge the gap.

Key words: telecollaboration; EFL; intercultural; global digital divide.

**BEHIND THE WORDS: MULTILINGUALISM AND THE ART OF
TRANSLATING AND INTERPRETING. CHALLENGES AND
OPPORTUNITIES. THE IMPORTANCE OF TAKING LANGUAGES
SERIOUSLY**

Noël Muylle
Honorary Director General of EC, Belgium

1. THE PAST

**"If what I said was not what you said it is what you should have said
Minister"**

This rather undiplomatic wording was used by an interpreter. Shortly after World war 2 when the French Minister of Foreign affairs meeting with his German counterpart commented on the quality of "interpretation delivered during the meeting. The interpreter himself was a diplomat.

Times are different now and such an attitude probably unthinkable nowadays, although it brings me to the title of my speech and to the origins of the profession, nitwits would say, the second oldest of all times.

The interpreter the learned go-between the confident assisting linguistically political rulers partners in negotiations, serving as mediator, when direct understanding is not possible between partners were they Ministers, Ambassadors experts, delegates or businessmen, all highly knowledgeable people, but not necessarily language experts, since there is or was not a **universal lingua franca** or is it broken English? and Latin disappeared from our learning tables;

But first a bit of history.

The tower of Babel was coming to a halt due to language confusion. The Oracle of Delph where a priest had to translate for the people. The mysterious words of **the Oracle** risking to be decapitated for wrong interpretation.

In the XVI and further XVIII century **a shift in Western Society came about from Christianity and Monarchy to laicism and cosmopolitanism** commercial exchanges replaced step by step the solely discussions around religion and philosophy influencing the balance of power shift to the Orient.

The Western rulers learned that Greek and Latin literature and Aristotle were translated into Arabic, Turkish, Armenian and Hebrew and that there **were a lot of Arabic works to which they had no access until then or simply** escaped them.

Knowledge, religion and commerce were no longer in the hands of the Western rulers any more, but definitively present at **The Sublime gate With Suliman the Magnificent** not to mention the revealing translation by **Antoine Galland** of the main mysterious opulent and provocative delicious opus Thousand and one night to adorn the Royal Library of the kings of France or the first translation of the Koran by **Andre du Ryer** The reference for all further translations in other languages.

Since State and Church were united in one person **Louis XIV** fearing to lose power **and the Christian influence to Islam** ordered **Colbert** to set up a **school of Languages**. Les enfants de langues first in Paris later in Pera Galata and Smyrna To serve the political, religious and economic interests of the King and his representatives Ambassadors in the Orient interested in buying tulips Platanes and coffee.

The children of languages were often chosen by the King himself from aristocratic families were paid by him and put in Louis Le Grand College still existing today under the name Institute for Oriental Languages now INALCO Institut National des langues et cultures orientales.

These children were between 9 and 14 years old came out of schooling in their twenties had studied Turkish, Arabic, Persian law and history, economics and diplomacy. Interdiplicinarity was the rule and still is I would hasten to say.

Their education was in the hands of the Capuchins later the Jesuits they lived in modern dwellings, separated from the common student were dressed differently and were even served oriental food to be plunged completely into oriental traditions and culture before being sent to Constantinople with its 700 000 inhabitants three times Paris The biggest city in the then known world.

The balance of political power and the influence of the Orient in Europe brought **Maria Theresia of Austria** to copy the French model in education and language training and established **Die Schule für Sprachknaben** in Vienna.

And the Spanish king followed suit before their conquest of **Latin America** to assure that their national interests were properly looked after.

So Orientalism was born and took shape more and more reflected in works of **Montesquieu, Diderot, Voltaire and in England with William Seaman in Oxford** not to forget **Molière**, who was ordered by the King to write a comedy **Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme** together with Lulli the Court composer where the "**Turqueries**" were applauded and even ridiculed.

The modern language mediator **called Drogman** was born. He has a name **Yanus Beg** the first we found in the papers of that time.

The rest is history from military assistance in peace and war to the Nurnberg trials the establishment of international organisations with their specific language policies but also the welcome guest and mediator in business transactions and inter cultural relations between men and societies where understanding and communicating are the first step stones for dialogue and peace.

2. THE PRESENT

The modern version of the dragoman the diplomatic confident the language assistant of our Heads of State and Government exist :

1. Napoleon had his Venture de Paradis;
2. Hitler had his Herr Schmidt;
3. De Gaulle had his Konstantin Andronikov, my venerated and feared professor at the Sorbonne;
4. Schuman had his Danica Seleskovitch , my master and worldwide known pedagogue;
5. Kohl had his Gisela Siebourg;
6. Mitterrand had his Christofer Thiery;
7. Krutchchev, Gorbatchev and Putin have their Tsybenkov, Sukhodryev and Palachenkov and many more we call them the younger generation;
8. Merkel has her Zimerman;

Just to name a few and without any ranking in importance.

Let us enlarge our views on **multilingualism** and how the language mediator operates in this environment where he comes from how he is trained.

If oral interpretation and written translation – 2 different professions indeed – have been corner stones in the military and diplomacy over centuries very often using only 2 languages between parties it was the upcoming of **international Organisations** after the first and second World war and more specifically visible after the NURNBURG trials where a certain procedural **"multilingualism" crept into the gatherings** (English, French, German and Russian were the languages used) simultaneous **interpreting replaced consecutive interpreting** to gain time much against the will of the real **star interpreters** now placed **not** at the negotiating table any more but in booths isolated from the floor with headphones and sound equipment can you imagine! **A revolution!**

They did not like it. and some refused it some had to be trained for it an **extension of the first try-outs in simultaneous interrelation at ILO in 1928**

This "multilingualism" brings me to the birth of The European Union

After **the treaty setting up the Coal and steel Community** definitively putting an end at wars between France and Germany and aiming at reconciliation in 1952 the Treaty of Rome entered into force in 1958 putting in place an enlarged **European Economic Community** aiming at free movement of goods, persons and capital considered the pillars of economic progress between the 6 founding countries (Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands and Luxemburg) to culminate into a political Union. I leave it up to you to judge how far we are 60 years later knowing that Rome indeed was not built in one year either.

To unite in difference there was and still is much talk discussion and negotiation meetings on all levels technical, diplomatic, political where languages cannot be absent or ignored.

The first Regulation of 1958 in the Council of Ministers fixed the language regime in working procedures: 4 languages (French, German, Italian and Dutch) were established as official and working languages used in the proceedings with a proviso that for future enlargements, each new country would add its language as official **to the existing 4**. Any change in this decision on "language regimes" as we call it would have to be decided by **unanimous vote in the Council**. If you ask me this is not going to happen as of tomorrow.

You witnessed the developments since: from 6 countries in the beginning and 4 official languages to 28 countries now with 24 languages nowadays, from 30 interpreters at work per day in the 60s covering the language needs in 5 to 10 meetings when I started my career in Brussels to 700 interpreters in 60 meetings

per day at Headquarters and abroad in capitals when I left the helm of the Service.

From a small administrative unit covering conferences and interpreting in the European Commission **to an inter-institutional Service SCICa Directorate** general working for different European Institutions. The Commission, the Council of Ministers, the European Investment Bank and different specialised Agencies created by the council I am proud to have worked for.

The European Parliament has its own Directorate general serving the needs of the Parliamentarians in Strasbourg and Brussels, the only directly elected Body of the Union. So has the Court of Justice in Luxembourg.

The same explosion in activity occurred in the **Translation services along the different enlargements from some 100.000 pages (regulations, rules, norms etc.)** translated in the first years of the EU to over 2.100.000 pages nowadays Sustained and monitored for quality by performant ITC systems and very often "machine assisted" today. We can discuss that later.

Of course not all languages were or are used or spoken in all meetings neither are all working documents translated into all official languages every day. This would be a nightmare in delivering and assuring quality with the 552 possible language combinations not necessary and indeed too costly.

Full regimes interpreting are available in plenary sessions of the European Parliament and the Council of Ministers. Reduced regimes are applicable for technical and diplomatic meetings. The principle of "real needs" in language assistance – who needs what – is applied. Only final texts, norms, laws or **directives directly applicable in the member States are translated in all official languages of the EU.**

These are facts and figures, and history. But the question is where do these language experts come from?

There is much confusion here people **confuse written translation with oral** interpreting the immediate impact of the spoken word of the interpreter **the rigor of the written word – scripta manent** – of the translator when decisions become law and must be cast in stone the citizens can read or contest in their mother tongue.

As we saw in the beginning, the linguist was a confident often a diplomat himself trained through intercultural relations, diplomacy and tough business negotiating **nowadays he is holding a least an MA in any discipline with polished mother tongue and mastering foreign languages and communications** skills to the full. These resources are scarce.

One example. When Denmark joined the European Economic Community there were practically no Danish interpreters or translators available say with

Italian in their combination nor English interpreters having Danish let alone Polish Latvian Greek for that matter many enlargements later to covering the needs of the Institutions and the market.

Adding NEW but lesser used or less widely spread languages used in international negotiations we had to set up in our **Service in indoors** training scheme to train candidates, under the guidance of our professionals gifted with pedagogical talents after rigorous selection of candidates holding an MA in economics law, history, mathematics and languages added to communication skills as already indicated. This model was later incorporated in **the EMCI I initiated - the European Master in interpreting and the EMT, the European Master in Translating** followed later.

The model was even exported to China, Vietnam and Africa where proper university training for those jobs do or didn't exist.

But your question surely is -is all this necessary Is there no general universal lingua franca we could use in our negotiations, cooperation, dialogue and business the World being "flat" as Thomas Friedman's book says.

This brings me to my point : multilingualism, its challenges and opportunities.

I confess that there is a shift indeed in terms of general language knowledge and practice within our younger generation. **The European Erasmus exchange** programmes helping to acquire new languages, and above all other cultures since what is behind the words is often more important than the words themselves.

But Leaving the Service **I worked for a term in Commissioner Figel's cabinet** in charge of Education, Sports and multilingualism at that time and suggested Mr Figel would launch an enquiry in Europe, starting in UK on "**The cost of NON multilingualism**" maybe an answer to opponents and the opinion that all this is too costly. A panel of different experts was convened and did the job amongst the **SME small and middle sized enterprises** to find out **that up to 17% of business was lost through** lack of language knowledge missing international tenders through wrong or late translations **losing export possibilities .**

Languages can also be a barrier for development as well as Director Henry **Tourneux from the French CNRS** (national centre for scientific research) depicted in his book a hindrance for peace. Security and stability in African countries. I witnessed this myself, writing an analysis a study for UN on the needs of training language mediators in a continent with its more than 2500. different tongues where cultural and ethnic divergences are strongly reflected in languages in a continent prone to disaster and humanitarian drama, exacerbated by the lack of understanding and communication, putting security

and fair trial at risk, jeopardising well intentioned projects coming from the Western World, but written in a language local people do not understand in a continent yet offering immense economic potentials the next BRICS, I would venture to say. All partners, universities, businessmen and politicians I met asked for help, not only to train conference translators and interpreters, but also language mediators for the medical, the Courts, the local business, local communication, negotiations and peace.

Ladies and Gentlemen,

If we agree to accept that a language is by far the most individual tool a person has to express opinions, emotions, convictions, to communicate in dialogue with the world at large, we enter into a wealth of over 6000 different tongues globally, all different but equal in value. We enter into the question of multilingualism and how it impacts our way of being.

If we agree to accept that the individual wants by nature to transfer knowledge and share with others ideas, cultural patterns and engage in commercial transactions, he needs to handle with precision the vehicle to do so, **his mother tongue to perfection**, and possibly understand 1 or 2 others for easier immediate and general communication with the outside world.

If we agree to accept that language knowledge **goes well beyond the** immediate economic advantages and enlarges a range of cultural, cognitive, social, academic and security aspects, we have to prepare for the best possible training in language mediation since no one is born with a few exceptions "multilingual per se and there is not as of yet an universal "lingua franca" with its implicit taste or consequence: dominance and uniformity, sometimes foggy texts and confusion, killing harmony in human contacts anyway and disrupting healthy cultural differences.

If we are thinking of employability mobility, better functioning of the labour market, the right jobs and quality of working conditions, language knowledge **or lack of language knowledge as we saw** might be a hindrance, **an obstacle in regional, national and global understanding and cooperation.**

The challenges are to take the language issue seriously, not only in Diplomacy and the Military and in business and to ask what the cost of "**Non multilingualism**" is, **knowing that the language industry had a turn-over of 10.3 billion Euro in Europe in 2015** for translating, proof reading, editing, film dubbing, video conferencing that 2000 translators and staff are at work in the European Commission covering 24 official languages, that 750 interpreters and staff cater for 60 meetings a day in Brussels and the capitals with a total cost of 510 million euro for the Commission alone which is an expresso for each European citizen!

To complete the picture, you should know that Russian is the most **NON EUROPEAN language required** in meetings and missions, that we have 27 staff interpreters with Russian in their combination, mostly present in the French, English, German and Spanish booth.

The art of quality translating and interpreting starts here and this is why I protest when professional congress organisers programme in detail their proceedings and budget, **but all too often forget about languages** and the needs of their clients and experts, considering this as a last minute to be solved by their secretaries with due respect.

A lingua franca? ... yes, maybe, but when communication starts to be foggy, when offence is done, when precision is lacking, when built-in traps – call it diplomatic wording – have to be overcome, when clear writing or speaking is absent, too many words, things start to be more complicated .

3. THE FUTURE

Let me have a last word on the use of new modern technologies on the market and to be introduced into university MA training programmes.

Sure, hidden glossaries and quiet reading rooms still exist and the basic **teaching methodology**, face to face and ex cathedra courses have not changed, but highly efficient systems, video and virtual platforms, learning facilities and **automatic quality control systems for translation** exist.

Allow me as a non expert in IT to say a few words on these new facilities.

Machine translating, sometimes called automatic translation, often confused with **machine assisted translation processes**, has been under research and partly used for decades in the European Institutions, in business transactions. The original Systran system was constantly adapted to technical progress and covers 28 language pairs out of the 552 language pairs we potentially have within our 24 official languages system.

It has evolved from highly resources **consuming rule-base technologies** to **statistical and hybrid models nowadays.**

- rule based machine translation needs manually created dictionaries and rules for each language pair whereas;

- statistical MT requires large corpora and aligned texts on "chance matrixes";

- hybrid MT is a mixture of both;

From what I read on the research work of Philipp Koehn lecturer at the university of Edinburgh :

- MT between languages **that are "similar"** or **"close to each other"**, to put it simple, often bring acceptable results today, say translating from German into Dutch or between Romance languages .

Whereas translating from Chinese into Russian causes more headaches.

- MT of structured documents, news articles, official or legal texts normally produce better output than translating less standardised papers or literature.

- We all know "Google translate" and probably tried it, but there are many other systems on the market : Asia online, Wordlingo, Opentrad, The Hindi-Punjabi MT and many more, offering up to 90 % accuracy in some cases .

Clearly, we cannot and should not ignore this progress and rather take advantage of these systems.

1. It can increase rapid access to general information;

2. companies often need a quick version of a text or a document and would not bother about a grammatical error here or there nor wait for the revised or post-edited final version.

3. MT can even improve productivity also in delivering "harmonised" style and terminology.

We are indeed far away from the first try in "**automatic**" translation in the 1970s when the French sentence **taken from the sacred books** put into the machine and I quote:

- **L'Esprit est prompt mais la Chair est faible (the spirit is prompt, but the flesh is weak)**

Came out in English as '**THE WHISKY IS GOOD BUT THE STEAK IS BAD**'.

As for the spoken word, the art of interpreting there is a lot of progress in voice recognition and voice assistance, and as his colleague translator he should take advantage of all these new technologies in preparing meetings and debates, but honestly I do not see any time soon a machine placed in a booth interpreting the circumvolutions of ongoing debates, linguistically flowed speakers, inaudible accents, unorganised chairs or even verbal violence, but never say never. Professor Waibel from Karlsruhe university, my friend, showed me results that blew off my head for astonishment!

With this all too short an overview of what languages offer, what multilingualism means with its implications in our societies, I tried to answer 3 rhetoric questions :

- are languages important?

- are quality linguistic mediators necessary, what is their background and how are they trained?

- is there room for a language industry?

The answer is definitively yes:

1. languages to avoid uniformity, "Macdonaldisation", killing natural harmony in human contacts putting them on a par in negotiations, dialogue and business instead.

2. languages forwarding ideas feelings arguments with all the subtle intentions the psychology BEHIND the words depending on the settings where they are spoken and written regionally, nationally and internationally.

3. Languages to make superb literature but written in wording not known by many, accessible through quality translation an added value.

To pass from one language into another presupposes knowledge, to transmit sense, intent and tone solicits intelligence as Prof. Danica Seleskovitch says in her Magnus opus.

Of all elements which characterize an individual, from physical appearance to clothing and eating, language is the most obvious. This quote is not from **Chomsky or Wittgenstein or your renowned professors and linguists Kommissarov or Fedorov, but from Amadou Hampaté BA, the illustrious Malian writer, ethnologist, translator and diplomat who "graduated from the great university of the spoken word thought in the shade of baobab trees, he said.**

Once upon a time, William Faulkner was asked to name three best novels of all times he **raid in translation**, he cited the **book, Dostoevsky** himself described as "flawless", **Anna Karenina, Anna Karenina, Anna Karenina.**

Personally speaking, I needed assistance from excellent translators to read and learn more about your Dostoevsky's, Turgenev's, Tolstoy's and so will it be in the future since my knowledge of Russian is non-existent much to my regret.

When I was still working as a conference interpreter at the European Commission, I had the honour and the pleasure to interpret Lady Thatcher's words **'I want my money back!'**

It was in Dublin Castle in 1984 during **an European Summit meeting**, now called European Council, that I realised once again that words can bear a very heavy political and diplomatic load of history for the future, words that cannot be left in the hands of dilettantes, words that are anything but innocent!

THE ASSOCIATION OF TRANSLATOR AND INTERPRETER TRAINERS: BUILDING A NETWORK OF TEACHING EXCELLENCE

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Abstract. Existing national and international associations of freelance translators and interpreters are predominantly business-oriented and aim to promote networking with other professionals, protect their rights and ensure

quality of services. They show little interest, if any, in translator and interpreter training issues. Associations of translator and interpreter trainers are almost non-existent both nationally and internationally. In view of the recent establishment of the World Interpreter and Translator Training Association (2016) in China, the paper discusses the advantages and benefits of having independent national professional organizations of translator and interpreter trainers as an important foundation for creating a national community of translator and interpreter educators and trainers and advancing international cooperation. The authors analyze their experience of establishing the Association of Translator and Interpreter Trainers (2017) in Russia as a national network of excellence in this area.

Key words: Translation, Interpreting, Training, Professional Association.

1 Associations of Translators and Interpreters vs. Associations of Translator and Interpreter Trainers

In many countries, translators and interpreters have national professional associations alongside international professional organizations. Many of these associations bring together both translators and interpreters. There are also associations specific to translators in general or only to literary translators. Some of these unite interpreters in a particular field, e.g. sign language interpreters or police and court interpreters.

Professional associations of freelance translators and interpreters are business-oriented and aim to promote networking with other professionals, protect their rights, ensure quality of services and help search for jobs and new clients. Associations adopt regulations and by-laws which govern their relationship with members, as well as relations between members and clients. They promote professional standards and codes of ethics to ensure quality of services, professional confidentiality and compliance with other ethical requirements. As a result, they show little interest, if any, in translator and interpreter training issues.

On the other hand, independent associations of translator and interpreter trainers are almost non-existent both nationally and internationally. One rare example of a national association is the Conference of Interpreter Trainers (CIT) in the USA [1]. However, its membership consists primarily of teachers, mentors, and workshop providers of American Sign Language (ASL)/English Interpreting and teachers of ASL.

In view of the recent establishment of the World Interpreter and Translator Training Association (2016) in China [2], the paper discusses the advantages and benefits of having independent national professional organizations of translator and interpreter trainers as an important foundation for creating a

national community of translator and interpreter educators and trainers and advancing international cooperation. The authors will present their experience gained in establishing the Association of Translator and Interpreter Trainers (ATT) in 2017 in Russia as a national network of excellence in this area [3] and plans to consolidate the community of translator and interpreter trainers in Bulgaria.

2 Professional Associations of Translators and Interpreters

In the brief overview below, the situation in Bulgaria and Russia will be outlined with special attention to the activities of professional associations of translators and interpreters in the area of translator and interpreter training and training of trainers. The authors of this article are both members of the Union of Translators of Russia. Maria Stepanova is Chair of the ATT Steering Committee. Boris Naimushin is member of the ATT Steering Committee and member of the Association of Interpreters and Translators in Bulgaria.

2.1 Associations of Translators and Interpreters in Bulgaria

Bulgaria has two professional associations of translators and interpreters. The Association of Interpreters and Translators in Bulgaria (AIT) established in 1996 as an alternative to the Bulgarian Translators' Union (BTU), which was founded under Communist rule in 1974 as an initiative of over 200 intellectuals, university professors and practitioners. Many members of the AIT still retain their membership in the BTU and are active in both associations.

The Bulgarian Translators' Union (BTU). The Union brings together professional translators, interpreters and researchers in translation studies [4]. The Union has four sections: Fiction and Humanities, Scientific and Technical Literature and Sworn Translators, Conference Interpreting, Translation Theory, History and Criticism. The website is only in Bulgarian and has no English version or version in any other foreign language. The website does not provide any explicit membership numbers. However, the lists of members in the four sections give the number of 337 members to date. The BTU website features its Statute, Code of Ethics and Code of Good Practices outlining the principles for all BTU members to adhere to and uphold.

Although advertised as a non-profit organization, BTU has its own Translation Agency offering job opportunities to its members.

The Panorama Journal, BTU's regular print publication, features materials on foreign literature, translations studies and the practice of translation. BTU is a member of International Federation of Translators (FIT) and European Council of Literary Translators' Associations (CEATL).

The Association of Interpreters and Translators in Bulgaria (AIT). Established as an alternative to the BTU, it does not have sections and focuses

predominantly on conference and community interpreters [5]. According to the list of AIT members on its website, current membership stands at 61 persons.

The AIT website has identical Bulgarian and English versions featuring its Statute, Code of Ethics and Standard Terms and Conditions. Contrary to BTU, AIT does not serve as an intermediary between clients and its members. Clients are encouraged to contact its interpreters and translators directly through their profiles published on the website.

AIT also offers advice and guidance to people who want to enter the profession and who need to be educated of the importance of communication and language services in general. It is a full member of EULITA (European Legal Interpreters and Translators Association).

2.2 Associations of Translators and Interpreters in Russia

The history of professional associations of translators in Russia goes back to 1917 when the All-Russia Professional Union of Translators was established in Saint Petersburg. In 1922, it was transformed into the All-Russia Society of Professional Literary Translators with over 200 members. In 1924, a Translation Section was set up at the Leningrad Chapter of the All-Russia Union of Writers. Efforts of the Section to establish an independent Leningrad Society of Literary Translators met with official resistance from authorities. Sections of Literary Translation existed at the Chapters of the Union of Soviet Writers (1934-1991) under the auspices of its Literary Translation Council. Three All-Union Conference of Translators were held in 1936, 1951 and 1970.

The Union of Translators of Russia (UTR). Established in 1991, the UTR has positioned itself as a professional association of language industry practitioners, theorists, teachers, universities and companies [6]. The association aims to unify and develop the language industry community in Russia, protect the rights and interests of translators and interpreters, contribute to translator and interpreter training and strengthen professional international relations. The website exists only in Russian and has no English version or in any other foreign language. The UTR is a member of the International Federation of Translators (FIT). It publishes two periodical journals.

The UTR has fifty Chapters throughout Russia with a total membership of approximately 1,300 [7]. Its Moscow Chapter is the only one to have sections, i.e. Humanities and Media Translation, Business, Scientific and Technical Translation, Translation of Fiction, Translation Studies and Translator and Interpreter Training, Conference Interpreting.

The National League of Translators and Interpreters. Established in 2004 in Moscow, the NLT is a non-profit professional association of freelance and in-house translators and interpreters [8]. Its website has shorter versions in

English, French, Spanish and German. There is no information on the NLT membership.

2.3 Professional Associations, Translator and Interpreter Training and Training of Trainers

Professional associations of freelance translators and interpreters in Russia and Bulgaria show little interest, if any, in translator and interpreter training issues. This is the case with the BTU and the AIT in Bulgaria and the NLT in Russia.

Only the UTR in Russia has activities in this area. Thus, it has launched, through its *Translation Studies, Translator and Interpreter Training* Section, a project to strengthen links between universities and language industry companies. The UTR also organizes Summer and Winter Schools for students of translation and interpreting.

3 The Association of Translator and Interpreter Trainers

The Association of Translator and Interpreter Trainers (ATT) is the only professional association in Russia and Bulgaria that represents the interests of a wide range of professionals involved in translator and interpreter training [3]. It is a non-profit organization incorporated under the laws of the Russian Federation. The website of ATT is <http://translation-teachers.ru/>. Currently, there is no English version of the site. Plans are underway to implement a website translation and localization project involving ATT members and their students aimed at producing and maintaining an English version of the ATT website.

3.1 ATT Goals

The ATT was established in 2017 as an initiative of a group of educators and translation and interpretation professionals, including the authors of this article, who recognized the need for such an organization. As set out in its by-laws, the objective of the ATT is to promote the recognition and advancement of the profession of translator and interpreter trainers; to establish a professional community of translator and interpreter trainers in Russia; and to protect and safeguard the rights and interests of its members.

The ATT website provides information about the Association: resources and references for translator and interpreter trainers, information about conferences, workshops, projects and useful networks and an explanation of ATT membership. This information is intended to assist newcomers to the profession and enhance the abilities of established practitioners.

3.2 ATT Membership

Membership of the ATT is open to individuals and organizations in Russia and abroad involved in translator and interpreter training and willing to make their contribution to the achievement of the goals and objectives of the ATT.

We recognize the fact that majority of those involved in translator and interpreter training are full-time university lecturers, and thus the ATT has initiated an awareness-raising campaign aimed at universities across Russia.

Furthermore, since the ATT also recognizes the importance of internship opportunities for students of translation and interpreting, it welcomes applications from translation agencies already involved in internship programs or wishing to establish relations with universities. Thus, the ATT is a useful point of contact between universities and translation agencies.

At the present time, ATT members include representatives of translation agencies (28%), university teachers (67%) and freelancers with no university affiliation but involved in delivering training courses (5%). A large part of university teachers of translation and interpreting are also active practitioners (89%).

Motivation to join the ATT. Applicants to join the ATT are asked to submit, among other required documents, a motivation letter to support their application. These letters provide important information about the commitments, which the applicants are prepared to undertake, and their expectations. Below are excerpts from motivation letters submitted to the ATT and quoted here in our translation with the kind permission of the respective members.

Representatives of translation companies view the ATT as a networking opportunity bringing together universities, practitioners and language industry companies. They are confident that their facilities and rich experience in the industry will be instrumental in joint efforts to raise the profession to a new level.

University teachers look forward to sharing their experience and learning from colleagues in all areas of translator and interpreter education and training. They are also confident that this professional association will be instrumental in forging lasting relations between universities and the industry. An additional incentive to join is access to reference and teaching and learning materials on the ATT website.

3.3 ATT Projects

As set out in its annual Action Plan, the ATT acts as organiser or co-organiser of events related to translator and interpreter training. In doing so, the ATT sees its mission in bringing together universities, teachers, students, translation companies and freelancers. The projects described below are already underway or have been completed.

International Student Consecutive Interpretation Competition. One recent successful project was the Second International Student Consecutive Interpretation Contest co-organised with Peter the Great Polytechnic University

of Saint-Petersburg and New Bulgarian University on 22-23 March 2018. The competition attracted 47 Bachelor's and Master's students from 18 universities in Russia and Bulgaria. The language combinations of the competition were Russian – English, Russian – Bulgarian and English – Bulgarian.

The competition aimed to recreate the real working conditions experienced by consecutive interpreters. In the first round, participants were asked to perform bilateral interpreting of a pre-recorded video interview in their language combination. In the second round, they were asked to provide consecutive interpretation with notes of two pre-recorded video statements of up to 3 minutes each (one from A to B and one from B to A). The delivery was judged in terms of fidelity, stage presence and audience interaction. Members of the jury were experienced practicing interpreters, interpreter trainers, representatives of translation agencies, and native speakers of all three languages.

All participants received Certificates of Participation and the winners received Competition Winner Certificates and prizes from our sponsors. The Consulate General of Bulgaria in St. Petersburg organized a reception for the winners, organisers, sponsors and volunteers of the competition. The programme also included a master class in note-taking and a round table on working with translation agencies.

This year, our general sponsor was T-Service, an SDL approved reseller for Russia and the CIS countries [9]. Translation companies AKM-WEST ranking among the TOP 15 translation companies in Russia and the TOP 25 translation companies in Eastern Europe [10] and STAR SPb, a Russian branch of the STAR Group, the largest privately-owned technical translation services and translation software company [11], also co-sponsored the competition and were represented on the jury.

During the wrap-up session, Irina Alekseeva, Director of St. Petersburg School of Conference Interpreting and Translation, told students that in her view, one day of participation in a competition is equivalent to one year of classroom training.

In their feedback, participants rated the event as a good learning exercise. They were particularly appreciative of the opportunity to test their consecutive interpreting skills against other students in a stimulating and challenging environment. Many of them confirmed that the competition had helped them significantly to understand the gaps in their present abilities and had encouraged them to strive for improvement. This has once again demonstrated that competitions are an important and efficient tool in interpreter training [12].

Interpreting Competition Preparation Seminars. After the first contest in March 2017, we realized that students needed focused preparation for participation in competitions. As a result, the authors delivered two seminars (16

hours of training each) prior to the competition: one in February 2018 at the Institute of International Law and Economics (IILE), Moscow [13] and one in March 2018 at the Peter the Great Polytechnic University of Saint Petersburg. In their feedback, participants expressed appreciation for the helpful insights about preparation, stage behaviour, audience interaction, focus and a winning attitude.

Unique Student Translation Project. Natalia Nechaeva, President of the ATT, is supervising this student project. This is a charitable project in which students translate information brochures and guides on chromosome and gene disorders for Unique, a Rare Chromosome Disorder Support Group, into Russian. It is a small charity supporting, informing and networking with families living with a Rare Chromosome Disorder or Autosomal Dominant Single Gene Disorders associated with learning disability and developmental delay. Translations are available for free download [14].

Anthony Pym: Approaches to Teaching Translation. A Student Translation Project. One of our major concerns is provision of information and resources to assist newcomers to the profession and enhance the abilities of established practitioners. Unfortunately, these materials are not always available in Russian. As a result, not all translator and interpreter trainers are able to take full advantage of them.

In an effort to improve the situation, we have decided to implement a series of student translation projects to make important texts in translation and interpreting teaching methodology available in Russian. The first step will be to translate Anthony Pym's selected articles in the framework of student projects supervised by members of the ATT and publish them in open access on our website citing the translator, editor and the source of the original texts.

Members of the ATT highly appreciate Anthony Pym's contribution to the advancement of translation studies and translation teaching methodology, including the use of translation technologies in translator training. Professor Pym has already granted us his kind permission to translate and publish the translations of his articles that are available in open access on the internet on the ATT website. He has also asked us to keep him informed of the progress and send him the final version of translated articles.

The selection process is now underway with over 40 applications already received from students from universities across Russia. The translation process will commence in July and will complete in August 2018.

XIII Conference on Translation and Interpreting as a Profession. The ATT was co-organizer of this webinar on 12 April 2018, together with Natalia Gavrilenko's School of Translation Didactics, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia, Reshetnev Siberian State University of Science and Technology and the

UTR Section of Translation Studies and Translator and Interpreter Training [15].

It brought together university teachers and experts from Perm, Krasnoyarsk, Saint Petersburg, Moscow and Sofia. Videos of all presentations are available online on the website of the School of Translation Didactics. Four members of the Steering Committee represented the ATT. They delivered reports and actively participated in discussions.

. Is there a need for an association of translator and interpreter trainers in Bulgaria?

The successful establishment and development of an association of translator and interpreter trainers in Russia raises the question of whether such an association could be viable in Bulgaria. As shown above, memberships in the two professional organizations of translators and interpreters is not very high (approximately 200 members in the BTU and 60 in the AIT). In comparison, the Bulgarian English Teachers' Association (BETA), an IATEFL Affiliate, has about 100 members [16]. These figures raise doubts as to the possibility of attracting more than 15-20 members into an association of translator and interpreter trainers.

Another approach to consider is to establish a Bulgarian chapter of the ATA. This will require a thorough investigation of the legal provisions in Russia, especially with respect to membership fee payments from Bulgaria.

4 Conclusions

The discussion in this paper and the experience of the authors has clearly demonstrated the advantages and benefits of having independent national professional organizations of translator and interpreter trainers as an important foundation for creating a national community of translator and interpreter educators and trainers and advancing international cooperation. The Association of Translator and Interpreter Trainers in Russia has set out to build a network of teaching excellence. The first year of its existence has proved that we are on the right track.

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JOINT TRAINING FOR POLICE AND INTERPRETERS IN SPECIFIC SCENARIOS

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The report focuses on the project, which is still in the early stages but already shows a great potential.

The idea of the joint training was first pioneered in the UK by Cambridgeshire Constabulary in 2015.

Katrina Mayfield, who was then Interpreting and Translation Services Manager at Cambridgeshire organised the very first UK National Joint Training Day for Police Officers and Interpreters, present were also leading academics from the UK, Belgium, Poland and Estonia, and jointly all the participants created a platform for fruitful, meaningful and positive interaction between all the parties involved.

It was then that Interpreters had a first taster of joint training.

We wrote a report about this training, which was published in the ITI Bulletin in 2015.

The training day offered a unique opportunity for police officers and interpreters to share experiences, having meaningful discussions on daily challenges they face. Non-verbal communication, cultural differences, accurate rendition and use of computer-based applications were among subjects up for discussion.

It was also highlighted during the training the importance of briefing interpreters by the police prior and during interpreting assignments.

This ensures better preparation and the building of trust between officers and interpreters.

The question was also raised as to how to ensure the best support for interpreters exposed to gruesome details of investigations, ensuring their wellbeing.

Following this unprecedented experience other CPD events followed... -

- CPD on Honour-based abuse and Human trafficking was organized by the APCI, the talk was given by the officers from Essex Police in 2016. It took place initially in London and was repeated in Birmingham

- CPD on Interpreting Ethics – organised jointly by the National Register of Public Service Interpreters and London Metropolitan University. It took place in 2016 and repeated last year.

- Searching for new work opportunities - *Sourcing well-paid legal interpreting work* was given by Kirsty Heimerl-Moggan, Senior Lecturer in Conference Interpreting at the University of Central Lancashire, who is actually our member, I am proud to say, this was again *organized by the APCI* last year.

- “Efficient information gathering in interpreter-assisted interviews” - this joint workshop was organized by Cambridgeshire Constabulary last year.

- “Stress management for Interpreters” again organised by the APCI last year.

What was more important to note is that at all of those events interpreters expressed a great appetite for joint training with their job providers. We were listening carefully to our members and where there's a will there's a way!

Opportunity came along when Essex Police/Stansted airport was organising a Hostage Reception Centre Exercise in March 2017 and accepted our offer to include interpreters in the training exercise.

The exercise was to replicate what happens following a hijack of an aircraft. In such event all the passengers would be brought to a secure area (aircraft hanger, very similar to the one you can see on the slide) where they would be: searched, interviewed, fingerprinted and photographed, followed by immigration procedure (commonly known as passport control).

The exercise provided learning points for officers and enabled best practice to be achieved for interpreters.

Search area was particularly challenging for officers:

When, for example, a woman who did not speak English protested about being touched by a male officer based on her beliefs, put up a struggle and police officers did not know why, the interpreter acted not only in a capacity of a communicator but also as a cultural broker explaining customs and beliefs and managed to defuse this conflict to the satisfaction of all the parties.

Public service legal interpreters are normally sitting next to those who they interpret for, so the assignment (which you can see from the picture on the slide – far left or right for you) would certainly be more challenging from this point of view.

The interpreter finds himself in the centre of a struggle when potentially hostile subject was found in possession of a weapon and was being detained.

In some countries having, for example a knife, (if you are a fisher man or a rock climber) is acceptable therefore it is possible that the detained man had a reasonable excuse to have a knife on him (if this is the case) and does not cause a threat as such but when the officers are trying to identify hijackers they have to treat everyone as potentially hostile.

In this situation officers take the safety of interpreter into consideration and you can see him interpreting from a safe distance with the officer-minder next to him (this was not part of the scenario and was a learning point for all that came up during the exercise).

Most of those involved in the exercise also found an aircraft hanger rather cold, this combined with long hours of possible inactivity (as you are airside you are not allowed to leave) can cause yet another challenge to overcome.

After the success of our joint training with Essex Police at the Hostage Reception Centre we were invited to Norfolk and then Kent Police training events. Those exercises were part of the National Negotiators' Course and tested other scenarios such as Counter Terrorism, Hostage takers and Kidnapping.

It gave our members a great opportunity to become familiar with some scenarios they might face at work and prepare themselves for such events either by preparing a unique glossary or preparing themselves emotionally.

Unlike our experience at the aircraft hanger the Negotiators' Cell can get rather hot and extremely stressful.

In the present market situation when inexperienced, unqualified and frequently unvetted individuals are allowed to practice it is crucial for us to differentiate ourselves as professionals, which entails Continuing Professional Development.

Joint training as part of our professional development gives us an opportunity of:

- being an expert in our area of practice, having a specialism;
- Having thorough preparation (building glossaries for various possible assignments, testing our emotional capability).

During the joint training we also act as consultants (we feel as part of the team and an equal partner). It ensures best communication with our work providers and better understanding of each other's practices.

Speaking of Benefits and Outcomes I perhaps repeat myself by saying something I have already mentioned.

Joint training allows best practice to be achieved and high standards to be maintained among all the parties involved.

- What is more, there has been a suggestion made that these training events could potentially lead to the direct assignments for our members, which are very rare these days in the UK due to outsourcing. This is yet to be discussed further with the interested parties, but one thing is for sure there are more training events to come. We are building very strong relationship with a few Constabularies and are hoping to spread this initiative to other parts of the UK.

It will also allow us to build a pool of skilled, professional, vetted and experienced interpreters who police can call on in the time of need.

- Interpreters received certificates as you can see from the slide and very happy they are too.

- In order to top up the experience our members gained through these realistic exercises we are planning to organise a few CPD events when the speakers from the Police Forces could give us various talks to enhance our knowledge of potential specialised assignments.

- It has also been suggested that those interpreters who are involved in such investigations/operations will receive support they will require to ensure their wellbeing, which will be offered by the Police.

Key words: CPD for interpreters, Court Interpreting

MAKING MEANING OF TEXT: CONTENT – FOCUSED TEACHING AND LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

Development of advanced levels of competence in non-native languages in a variety of areas requires a new approach to foreign language instruction that matches language with the meaning of texts in their cultural and social contexts. Its fundamental concern is with oral and written texts that are embedded in contexts of culture and realized in culture-specific situations. The present study explores effective methods of instructed foreign language acquisition as meaning-making by learners and offers useful practical tools for integrating content-oriented, task-based components in foreign language instruction.

Key words: language, cultural competence, cultural context, content-based instruction.

1 Introduction

It is commonly known that mastering a foreign language is unthinkable without becoming proficient in the culture of the target language. There is a general belief that a study of a foreign language automatically leads to building a foundation of cultural literacy. However, practice shows that a student studying a foreign language outside the language environment is unable to adequately grasp and access a significant portion of native-specific information, precisely due to an inadequate level of his/her cultural competence. To achieve cultural literacy, students must be systematically instructed in the culture of their target language starting with the beginning levels. Content-focused, task-based instruction holds great promise as a tool to successfully build such cultural competence, proving to be a most effective learning tool. This paper will present an overview of a new approach to language study that would match language with the meaning of texts in their cultural and social contexts. Integrating content-focused learning with other language skills – the competence approach – was pioneered in various foreign languages at a number of American universities.

2 Research Framework

Content-focused instruction is a pedagogical effort which is used to draw learners' attention to cultural contexts and meanings, and in so doing bring together language studies with the area studies, i.e. the study of the language of a country with its literature, history, politics, and culture. Although language

study is one cornerstone of the area studies construct, it has frequently been thought of as a tool or skill mastered so that students could get down to the business of learning “real content.” At present, we stand at the start of a paradigm shift, one that seeks to release language study from the restrictive notion of acquirable skill and create a vision of language study as an effort of mapping form and meaning, of matching language with the meaning of texts in their cultural and social contexts – the competence approach. It is important to point out that language teaching methodologies of the past years have essentially viewed foreign language instruction as “language as skill” process. We have the perception of language teaching as skill building. However, our set of goals can be expressed as something more than a list of language functions to be mastered.

Until the 1950s, language learning was dominated by the “Grammar-Translation Method.” It conceived of language instruction as learning vocabulary and grammar rules and then applying them to the reading and translating of texts. The initial stage of language learning was nothing more than a prelude to the “real” intellectual work of reading literary classics and professional literature. The “Audio-Lingual Method” (ALM) reordered priorities in language teaching, emphasizing listening and speaking in the target language and continued to view language study as the learning and mastering of skills. ALM’s reordered hierarchy of modalities (listening/speaking before reading/writing) remains prominent in beginning and intermediate language textbooks today.

The 1980s saw the rise of the “Proficiency Movement” which grew out of the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) Proficiency Guidelines, a scale used in testing and assessing language proficiency. Teaching for proficiency is often conceptualized as teaching students to use the language, rather than teaching them about the language. Russian language textbooks that used this approach appeared in USA in the 1990s. By that time, some practitioners of the proficiency movement in the more commonly taught languages began to advocate broadening of the proficiency model. Claire Kramsch, for example, noted the mismatch between the teaching of languages as skills (i.e. Can you order a meal at a restaurant in language X?) and the goals of the traditional university teaching: at stake here is not the notion of real-life skills but the reflection and critical thinking that one should apply to the use of these skills. [1] Another limitation is that the Proficiency Guidelines are not clear about the cultural knowledge that should inform curriculum design.

3 Theoretical Background

Currently, the language teaching field is involved in a pedagogical reorientation that would free language study from the restrictive aim of skill-getting. The new orientation grows out of recent scholarship on the connections

between language and culture, on the nature of instructed language acquisition (particularly research on how learners make connections between form and meaning) and out of concern over the effectiveness of language learning in an academic setting. The emerging model of instruction is integrative: it views language not as functions unassigned to specific content, but as a system of meanings, where language functions and forms are closely tied to content. The task of language learning is to make meaning, to derive meaning from and encoding meanings in texts in all modalities (speaking, reading, listening, and writing). The new model recognizes that all kinds of texts (written, visual, audio, video) are located in social and cultural contexts and that both the reading and the production of texts require comprehension of their meaning. In this way, the new model seeks to bridge the existing divide in which lower division courses are for learning the language and upper level courses are for learning the literature, culture or professional discourse. The new content-based approach is integrated, as there is no one cut off point where language instruction ends and content learning begins. This educational approach situated language study in learning about the context and content of the target language country. It helps to develop fluency and comprehension and eventually leads to significant improvements in both, communication and cultural literacy.

4. Literature Review

In much of the writing about this new literacy-based model of language instruction, emphasis is placed on developing a curriculum for the entire course of undergraduate instruction. [2] The task-based model seeks to produce learners who progress from personal discourse to the public realm and, at the completion of the sequence, are able to give a talk to community group or a presentation to a class, discuss or present positions on a social or public policy issue, and so on. [3] At Georgetown University the German Department has implemented a new curriculum that organizes each level of instruction by themes (allowing learners to become familiar with a core vocabulary related to a topic) and then, within themes, by genres (allowing learners to become familiar with sets of communicative patterns, including grammar and syntax). The departmental website provides extensive information on this project [4].

5. Objectives, Materials And Methods

The Georgetown German curriculum offers a possible framework for implementing the content-focused model in the teaching of other languages. However, there are significant challenges involved in this task, and one should not mechanically adapt their model to the teaching of other languages by simply replacing the word German for Spanish or French or Russian. The primary challenge for learners of Russian, for example, would be Russian morphology and syntax, and as compared with the American learners of German, it is harder

and takes longer for students of Russian to make connections between forms and meanings. This difference arises not only from Russian's more plentiful noun and adjective morphology, but also from Russian's vocabulary, which rests on Slavic roots not easily recognizable by English speaking learners. We must select and sequence instructional interactions with texts in such a way that students make accurate and efficient connections between meaning and form. Effective strategies for teaching form-meaning connections can help us move easily between learning to read a text in the target language and learning something from reading this text.

Competence-based instruction privileges reading, but reading here is understood differently than it was under the traditional methods. Clearly, for learners, particularly at the beginning level, to speak about the complex content of the readings, we must provide much pedagogical pre-reading support that will enable students to find the forms needed to convey the meanings they intend. In order to support acquisition, the language input must be comprehensible, interesting, compelling and relevant to learners.

6. Pedagogical Proposals And Recommendations

By way of illustration, I will describe a unit from my Intermediate Russian I course, which I reconfigured in the light of the competency-based approach. The theme of the unit is Moscow and its architectural monuments. In addition to the textbook readings on the history of the city, students read short guide-book type descriptions of several major architectural landmarks to learn about their histories and current functions. These texts present many challenges for students in making form-meaning connections. First, to handle the abundance of specialized vocabulary, each prose description is accompanied by illustrations of the monument, where architectural features have been labeled with words from the prose descriptions. Second, to handle the syntactic density of the descriptions, students have to complete English translations of the descriptions. Following these initial activities designed to establish the content of the texts, the focus moves to noticing and connecting Russian participial constructions with English equivalents.

In addition to these activities which work on form-meaning connections, parts of class meetings are devoted to discussion the content of the descriptions. After a series of intermediary activities where students develop their ability to speak about the landmarks, they perform a role-play where they conduct a tour of the city for a tourist visiting Moscow for the first time. The unit is successful at joining content knowledge with language learning, and especially with the meaning and syntax of Russian participial constructions.

There are also questions of assessment and finding the right balance between adequately reflecting the students' knowledge of content and their ability to

communicate in the target language accurately. It is equally important to make clear to students the new expectations that this approach places on them. Understandably, anyone teaching the language will need to be comfortable dealing with a variety of content areas, many of which lie far beyond the bounds of what is traditionally thought of as “language teacher expertise.”

7. Conclusions

The new approach opens up real possibilities for repositioning language study as the core endeavor where students make meaning out of texts. Experience shows that both teachers and students associate content-focused instruction with fun where production practice indicates that we are teaching language and culture, and not just grammar. Content-based model invites us to continue to adjust our approaches to make the most of our classroom experience.

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TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING IN REFUGEE CONTEST

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Abstract

The paper explores challenges which face both refugees and interpreters within the framework of refugee crisis in Europe and provides descriptions of refugee crisis, some recommendations to mitigate the impact of migration crisis and eradicate the language barriers which emerge in the communication process between the hosting country and arriving refugees. The methodology integrated desk research and field research and aggregated data from academic findings, national government bodies representatives, courses curriculum, trainings based

on UHNCR recommendations for interpreters and translators in a refugee context.

Key words: migration flows, communication barriers, trainings for refugees, challenges in interpreting, competence, code of ethics, professional and untrained interpreters.

1 Introduction

The refugee crisis has different backgrounds and can be considered as an expanding phenomenon in socio-cultural sphere. In the last few years the media headlines have been dominated by the presence of refugees in a big variety of cities, especially in the European ones. The rush of refugees has caused considerable diplomatic and domestic turmoil, refugees from different countries such as Syria, followed by African and Balkan from the vast majority of people seeking asylum, in most cases refugees pay large sums of money for an opportunity to reach Europe, but in many cases, it is a life-risking gamble. The massive arrival of asylum seekers in Europe is not something out of ordinary, migration in and outside Europe has taken shape out of history, however, the current human flow into Europe is something different from historic migrations and such unprecedented events carry with them economic, political, linguistic, cultural repercussions that are shaking the European countries to their constitutional foundations. The most recognizable difference is the fact that the refugees are mostly from culturally distinct countries such as Syria, Iraq and Afghanistan, thus such situation is a breeding ground for sociocultural clashes.

Nowadays, refugees have suffered from different stressful events because of wars, oppressions, military conflicts which make them change location in order to find a safer place for existence. Such notorious circumstances could lead to physical mutilation and psychological traumas. Moreover, before being forced to leave their permanent places of residence, refugees may come through such trials as imprisonment, tortures, malnutrition, rape and others. Thus, refugees should be accepted by a host country in an appropriate way.

Providing language assistance to displaced people seeking protection must be a key issue with specific focus on the context of reception and early settlement support along with later interaction with programs and services in the hosting society. In recent years, UNHCR and partners have made relevant contributions to the work of establishment special new resettlement programs responding the needs of refugees. Thanks to such programs, instructions, services arising misunderstandings and tensions can be liquidated or at least mitigated, promoting peaceful coexistence. The key priority to some important factors must be given while creating such resettlement programs. It is necessary to recognize interpreters and translators who speak relevant languages, to recruit

bilingual workers, to set up basic training to professional and volunteer language assistance mediators regarding refugees and dislocation challenges, roles and confidentiality. During the initial period of dislocation, many refugees have poor skills of the language of the receiving society [referred to as the target language]. The refugees are able to foster the target language by taking part in language training programs, by collaborating with representatives of the receiving society on a daily basis, but it will take a certain period of time in order to obtain knowledge of the language.

Despite the fact that the asylum seeker can be functional in the target language, they have the right to an interpreter or translator especially in serious cases like during criminal proceedings or any legal matters. This right is laid down in Article Six of the European Convention of Human rights. [12]

Taking into account the urgency of the current situation the present research goal is to address the issue and improve ways of translation and interpretation in emergency situations faced by refugees.

The above goal could be reached by paying attention to voices and opinions of those who work within refugee context.

The methodology integrated desk research and field research and aggregated data from academic findings, national government bodies representatives, courses curriculum, trainings based on UHNCR recommendations for interpreters and translators in a refugee context.

Generally, a lot of materials, surveys conducted regarding challenges in different settings have been analyzed from different countries where refugees` crisis is at stake like Belgium, France, The Netherlands and other mostly European countries. In addition to this, videos involved interpreters` activities have been discussed for the purpose to understand common mistakes and propose solutions or at least minimize misunderstanding while working with refugees.

2.Results and Discussions

The overall research covered three main stages which assisted in identifying current constraints and challenges in translation and interpretation in a refugee context by analyzing

1. Constraints and linguistic challenges in interpretation in a refugee context faced by translators and interpreters
2. Cross-cultural aspects and ethic challenges in different settings
3. Vital differences between professional interpreters and unqualified interpreters in emergency situations

2.1 Constraints and linguistic challenges in interpretation in a refugee context faced by translators and interpreters

First of all, according to data of organization [Clear Voice] which provides interpreting services in the UK, most requested language is Arabic [29 %], [2] Farsi mostly spoken in Afghanistan, Iran, the former Soviet republic of Tajikistan, [3] Kurdish Sorani [9%], a Kurdish dialect spoken in Iraq, mainly in Iraqi Kurdistan, and the Kurdistan province of western Iran, additionally it is considered as the second official language of Iraq. [4] Tigrinya [7%], the native language of ethnic Tigray-Tigrinya people in the Horn of Africa, along with it is the most used language of Eritrea and is also spoken in the Tigray region of the northern Ethiopia [5] Urdu [6%], the national language and lingua franca of Pakistan, as well as an officially recognized languages in six Indian States; [6] Albanian [6%] primarily used in Albania, Kosovo, Macedonia, partly in Greece, but recognized in Italy, Montenegro, Croatia, Romania; [7] Chinese Mandarin [6%], simplified or traditional Chinese has more native speakers than any other world language. Mandarin is widely used in Taiwan, Singapore and is the most common form of Chinese used among diaspora communities around the globe. 8] Amharic [4%], the official language of Ethiopia and the second most spoken Semitic language in the world, after Arabic, with 22 million native speakers in Ethiopia alone; [9] Punjabi [3%] the native language of the Punjab region of Pakistan and India. 10] Pashto [2%] one of the official languages of Afghanistan, and one of the main regional languages of neighboring Pakistan. [3,4]

Naturally, the situation in practice demonstrates the ensuing possibility of interpreting within specific language combinations, but also within various contexts. Generally, if we discuss the topic about language assistance in the context of refugee crises, this assistance most frequently occurs in such settings as cross-border points, legal system, healthcare institutions, rehabilitation centers. Therefore, interpreting and translation for refugees in legal and medical settings are on agenda. [2]

In the case of medical setting constant changes and developments can be seen, new terms appear and other ones become irrelevant. Hence, the terminology of clinical disciplines can pose a threat high-quality interpreting or translation. It is indubitable the Greek and Latin languages are terminology stem in English. But due to the shortage of linguistic units in English sometimes some contemporary derivatives of Latin and Greek words can be put in practice in order to describe current advances in sciences. Before Latin and Greek were mainly used. Currently, healthcare workers prefer English and have moved on to the usage of compositions of lexis mainly borrowed from ordinary English, such words as «screening», «bypass», «stent» «pacemaker» can be examples. [6,7] Instead of trying to find correspondents some languages borrow English terms. Several reasons regarding complexity of medical terms are introduced: firstly, it can be assessed as jargon to simplify communication process;

secondly, the constant expansion occurs due to new additions; thirdly, synonymic terms operate at the same time with probably minor connotations of the meanings; fourthly, there is lack of standardization in most languages, this process is a great help in the practitioner-patient dialogue. Many scientists suppose that the high necessity exists to standardize terminology in all fields and subfields from laboratory medicine to orthopaedics.[8,6] While translating and interpreting it is necessary to consider polysemy, frequently the knowledge of medicine must be applied in order to understand the context of term itself and shades of meanings. In medicine the methods of translation cannot be generalized, because all specific problems are context-dependent. [6,8,9] The cultural realities regarding the names of diseases, procedures, protocols [for example resection protocol in surgery or staging methods in pathology] can differ broadly. [10,11]

The complexity of terms is an obstacle for translations and interpreters, in order to intensify skills and foster vocabulary it is better to look through some written material for practice and to learn terms of every medical subfield by heart. [1]

As for legal interpreting, it is a field where not every bilingual person may perform, it requires highly specialized skills. For refugees` affairs it is highly necessary to participate fully in legal procedure at asylum hearings. In many jurisdictions, it is approved that not only must interpreters be allowed in the course of criminal trial, but they have to be provided by the State, because the repercussions of not being understood may turn out harmful. Pursuant to legislation and rules of the countries which provide court interpreting it is said all including linguistic minorities have the right to interpreting. [4]

2.2 Cross-cultural aspects and ethic challenges in different settings

Interpreting in asymmetrical settings comes mostly under community interpreting. It usually occurs between the expert representing authoritative part and a client [migrant, refugee, tourist] with different educational level and asymmetrical ethnical backgrounds. [13] Such settings encompass the majority of legal settings [cross-border officials, police, judicial departments]. Quality standards are frequently overlapping with ethical prerequisites and presuppose such necessary conditions as the interpreter`s overall role, professional qualities, possible reasons for qualification, rigor, impartiality – are inserted in most codes of ethics. On the one hand, it is unethical and inappropriate to withdraw the candidature after accepting the task. On the other hand, it is blatant and unprofessional for interpreters if she or he carries on interpreting carelessly and unable to translate accurately. Conflict of interest may arise if impartiality is omitted. When the field is asymmetrical and the clients are representatives of a migrant communities or refugees, the interpreter sometimes deals with

absolutely different cultures. Such a situation may presuppose being ranged with the weaker side. It is difficult to anticipate how far the interpreter may go in taking one side without giving up his/her trustworthiness for the other party. To sum up all this, the other side may face obstacles on the way of understanding or the interpreter has adapted the utterance in the process of decoding it to assist the weaker side. Thus, such side-taking strategy can lead to risks and should not be established as general communication strategy. [10]

2.3 Vital differences between professional interpreters and unqualified interpreters in emergency situations

In a research based on the analysis of some videos in medical setting some judgements have been made: unprofessional interpreter has not interpreted everything clearly, the video is about such diseases as cancer, such procedures as chemotherapy and its` consequences like stomach upset and enlargement of spleen, so the terminology is difficult, thus, while interpreting a lot of terms are omitted to interpret due to the lack of proficient terminology. The interpreter uses the 3d person, interprets selectively and allows the official to cut her off, summarizes, especially when the applicant is giving multiple answers while trying to memorize dates, answers for the applicant during interrogation, tries to provide comments regarding what the applicant is thinking about, why she is saying in such a way, seems the lack of English proficiency, tells the applicant what the officer wants her do, has side talks with the applicant.

The professional interpreter is fluent in terminology and obey all the rules and even complies with the position towards the patient but it depends on many factors, but consequently, such interpreter is able to find the best arrangement for the encounter.

2.4 Recommendations for interpreters themselves and public services who are responsible for providing access to interpreting services

The widely used method of interpretation in a refugee context is a consecutive interpreting. Taking notes is the best solution to some constraints which may emerge amid interpreting. The main task is a supplementary aid to an interpreter`s memory. Inventing the own system of notetaking by the interpreter will facilitate his or her task and will terminate misunderstanding. The system which includes specific signs and symbols, each representing global correlations that can be transferred into any language the interpreter is listening to and involved in. It is worth saying that the interpreter should not forget about what tenses are used, that is why, working out precise system for reminding the time of the action and signaling the grammar category of tense is also acute. Overcoming the problem concerning syntax demand the same technique – finding the way of noting whether the symbol retains to a noun, synonymous one or not, a verb or an adjective. Interpreters should remind themselves and

distinguish between negative, affirmative sentences and use different ways of stressing to show feelings, emotions, intensity, quantity. In the consecutive interpreting it is better to use some punctuation marks such as parenthesis or commas, it is not obligatory to use them according to punctuation rules, because the interpreter deals with purely oral activities and such measures can help him or her to divide messages and interpret in a way which reflects the precise meaning of the speaker`s message including such characteristics as the speaker`s style, tone, cultural backgrounds. While glancing at notes, it is said to keep the head up and look at the person whom the message is addressed. The golden rule is speaking naturally and persuasively trying to maintain the interest of the listener. There is no doubt that the quality of consecutive interpreters` work depends on the level of enhancing vocabulary. To lay down a rule to compound a special glossary can be considered as the solution to the problem of vocabulary shortage and can boost interpreters` confidence. Especially if an interpreter is engaged in highly specialized field, he or she is able to predict what terms can arise and fix them into glossary. Sometimes some tricky circumstances may happen like misunderstanding an expression or a word, in this situation the interpreter must ask for clarification rather than hazarding a guess. If the speaker uses some bellicose and insulting statements, the interpreter may ask the speaker to interpret it or not and explain entailing consequences, but he or she does not have the right to omit or avoid speech deliverance on his or her own. [15]

Countries facing with the refugee influx with diverse backgrounds, have difficulties to hire interpreters or bilingual employees to meet all necessary requirements. This has been addressed through organizing centralized interpreting and translation services where resettled refugees can book and achieve such services, usually it is done on the state level, voluntarily or by private sector. However, there is a shortage of qualified interpreters according to the needs of such diversified languages. For the purpose to meet these need new training program for refugees should be established. For example, in Belgium there is a special online platform «Online Linguistic Support» provided by Erasmus which allows to get access to online classes for refugees to learn French. The representatives who are involved in this program spend approximately two days to register all refugees who strive to integrate to the society and learn the language of it. [13,16] After online learning people can continue it at the center in Namur. Some of them can become competent interpreters if they are provided free-of-charge access to university studied. In this way a gap in rare languages can be fulfilled.

3.Conclusion

To sum up, Europe is working hard to accept refugees fully and facilitates the conditions of adaptation. A lot of online programs are set up along with real

face-to-face courses provided by universities, Erasmus plus, British council, UHNCR, refugee advice centers around the globe. Moreover, such competent organizations and institutions provide assistance to interpreters, for example, making up special refugee glossaries for facilitating interpretation, guidelines and trainings for the SAR Interpreters with useful recommendations. The knowledge of the language allows refugees to obtain job and feel secure. We suppose that it will be efficient to create free-of-charge entries for refugees in Europe in linguistic departments in order to increase the amount of interpreters of rare languages needed to meet arriving refugees` needs. More frequently, professional and competent interpreters with certificates must be involved in interpreting and translating because such settings as medicine, legal affairs have their special terminology and jargon meanings which are critically important. The lack of such knowledge can lead disastrous repercussions such as the wrong diagnosing, retesting, fatal outcome, refusal to get an asylum and plenty of others. The results and material of this work can be used for further research of methods and developing methodologies for providing classes for refugees for the purpose to help them study the languages of hosting communities and ensure necessary level of proper communication. These discussed issues are equally important to refugees and interpreters themselves.

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AMBIGUITY AS A STRATEGY OF MANIPULATION

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Abstract

The purpose of the media nowadays is not just giving information but persuasion and manipulation (e.g. [1- 8] and others). The strategies and means of manipulation are getting more implicit and sophisticated. The aim of this paper is to show that ambiguity of the information has become one of widely used strategies of manipulation. Drawing on critical discourse analysis (CDA) [1, 9 -10] the study focuses on linguistic tools of uncertainty and their pragmatic function. The data have been taken from standard American and British newspapers, news websites of The New York Times, The Washington Post, the

BBC, Reuters, The Guardian, among other media sources that cover the relations between Russia, the USA and the UK. The results show that the regular use of linguistic means (lexical, grammatical and syntactic) used to realise uncertainty in media serve to perform the strategy of ambiguity which in its turn is aimed at manipulation of public opinion. The study argues that the complex semantic, pragmatic and discursive analysis of the media text is important for understanding the implicit intention of its author and the goal of those who have power.

Keywords: media text, persuasion, manipulation, ambiguity, accusation

1. Introduction

Understanding political discourse is a complex process which needs an integrated approach to its analysis [12, 13], especially nowadays in the situation of international tension and information war when the media has become an important political force, influencing the minds of the masses [14]. We are witnessing an increasingly destructive role of the media exacerbating political conflicts between nations, creating negative stereotypes of opponents and even demonizing them (e.g. [2, 5]).

The purpose of the media nowadays is not just giving information but persuasion and manipulation (e.g. [1 – 8]) and as a result the strategies and means of manipulation are getting more implicit and sophisticated.

In this paper we argue that ambiguity of information has become one of the most widely used strategies of manipulation which should be taken into consideration while reading or listening the media text. Focusing on the linguistic means of uncertainty (lexical, grammatical and syntactic), their pragmatic functions and perlocutionary effect, we will show that their regular use in media serves to perform the strategy of ambiguity which in its turn is aimed at manipulation of public opinion.

2. Data and Methodology

The data for the study have been taken from standard American and British newspapers, news websites of The New York Times, The Washington Post, the BBC, Reuters, The Guardian, among other media sources that cover the relations between Russia, the USA and the UK.

Drawing on critical discourse analysis (CDA) [1, 9 - 11] the study focuses on the linguistic tools of uncertainty used in media texts to perform the strategy of ambiguity which, in its turn, aims at the manipulation of public opinion. We show how thorough linguistic analysis contributes to better understanding of the media text. The paper is partly based on the results published in [7].

3. Data Analysis and Discussion

In this section we will analyse the linguistic means of uncertainty (lexical, grammatical and syntactic) used in media text and show how they serve manipulative strategy.

3.1. Lexical means

Our analysis has showed that among lexical means used to create ambiguity, there are a lot of words with the semantic component ‘without proof’: *believe*, *claim*, *suggest*, *allege* *allegation*, *allegedly* and others. The analysis of the dictionary definitions of these words shows that besides the main meaning (‘accept that something is true’, ‘say that something is true’, ‘say that someone has done something illegal or wrong’, ‘communicate or show an idea or feeling’), all have an additional semantic component which is ‘without proof’. This component is not so obvious as the receivers of the information, as a rule, mainly rely on the main semantic meaning of the words. However, for manipulative purposes this component is very important.

The verb *believe* means ‘accept that (something) is true, especially without proof, hold (something) as an opinion; think’. But in the examples below (1 and 2) the reader is only interested that Mr Collins believes ‘*that Russia interfered in the referendum*’ and some people **believe** ‘*Russian intelligence could be behind the hack*’. The modal *could* enhances the ambiguity of the statement:

(1) *Mr. Collins said he believes there is a growing body of evidence that Russia interfered in the referendum.* (The Wall Street Journal, Jan. 17, 2018)

(2) *They believe Russian intelligence could be behind the hack, which targeted individual reporters, according to Associated Press* (BBC, 24 August 2016)

The verb *claim* means ‘to say that something is true or is a fact, although you cannot prove it and other people might not believe:

(3) *So effective were the accounts that some Americans were taken in and convinced to hold up anti-Clinton signs at rallies by the Russians, it is claimed.* (The Telegraph, 17 February 2018)

The verb *allege* also has in its definition the component ‘without proof’. It means ‘to say that someone has done something illegal or wrong without giving proof’.

Allegation is ‘a statement, made without giving proof, that someone has done something wrong or illegal’. ‘Alleged’ is ‘said or thought by some people to be the stated bad or illegal thing, although you have no proof’, *allegedly* is used ‘to convey that something is claimed to be the case or have taken place, although there is no proof’.

Though all these words have in their meaning the semantic component ‘without proof’, they are frequently used in the media texts often containing serious accusation of governments, politicians, and whole countries:

(4) *"The indictment **alleges** that the Russian conspirators want to promote discord in the United States and undermine public confidence in democracy. We must not allow them to succeed."* (Chicago Tribune, 17.02.18)

(5) *Russians **allegedly** used false names and stole real American social security numbers to interfere, creating fake identification cards.* (The Telegraph, 17 February 2018)

The verb *suggest*, which means ‘to mention an idea, possible plan, or action for other people to consider’, in newspaper texts is frequently used in its second meaning ‘to communicate or show an idea or feeling without stating it directly or giving proof’:

(6) *He **suggested** Vladimir Putin had some responsibility for the attack.* (The Guardian 15 Mar 2018)

(7) *Investigators continue a massive operation to determine how the poisoning took place, with the latest reports **suggesting** the poison was **most likely** placed on the front door handle at Skripal’s house.* (The Guardian, 30 Mar 2018)

The verb *appear* can also be added to this group. It means ‘come into sight; become visible or noticeable, especially without apparent cause, seem; ‘give the impression of something being’.

Though it only gives ‘the impression of something being’ the consequences and accusations for ‘something imagined’ can be quite serious:

(8) *After the statement’s release, Donald Trump said that Russia **appeared** to be behind the attack. “It looks like it,” he told reporters.* (The Guardian, 15 Mar 2018).

Another peculiar tactic concerns the use of words referring to the lexical semantic group ‘espionage’: *spy, conspirator, conspiracy, espionage, private military contractor, operative, Russian intelligence, secret, shadowy,* etc., which nowadays are quite frequent in the media texts covering Russia.

(9) *DoJ indictment alleges Russian **operatives** ‘communicated with unwitting individuals associated with the Trump campaign’* (The Guardian, 17 Feb 2018)

(10) *WASHINGTON (Reuters) A Russian propaganda arm oversaw a **criminal and espionage conspiracy** to tamper in the 2016 U.S. presidential campaign to support Donald Trump FEBRUARY 16, 2018*

(11) Prigozhin, who has also been linked to the Wagner Group, a **shadowy Kremlin-linked private military contractor** believed to be operating in Syria, was included on a US sanctions list in July. (The Guardian, 17 Feb. 2018)

Regular use of such espionage-bound words serve to create the atmosphere of alarm and hostility stirring up enmity towards Russia.

In this group we noticed some words which meaning in the texts is not quite certain, it is not always clear what is meant by them, e.g. *silent assassin*, *collusion*, *obstruction*:

(12) *The city's Tory MP, John Glen, has expressed outrage that a "silent assassin" appears to have been behind the attack* (The Guardian, 4. 04. 2018)

(13) *Adam Schiff said the panel had seen evidence of **collusion** with Russia and **obstruction** by Donald Trump's campaign and administration ...*(The Guardian, 14. 02. 2018)

(14) *...Trump has repeatedly asserted that there has been no **collusion** and no **obstruction** involving him or his team during the 2016 presidential election or ...*

It looks like due to frequent use in the contexts dealing with President Trump *collusion* ('secret or illegal cooperation or conspiracy in order to deceive others') acquires some ambiguity and it is not always clear what the author means by it. The article in *The Wall Street Journal* titled *What People Really Mean When They Say 'Collusion'* illustrates it: 'When it comes to the Russia investigation, the word "Collusion" gets thrown around a lot. But there's not a lot of clarity on what it actually means. Is it illegal? Is it grounds for impeachment?' (The Wall Street Journal Jan. 17, 2018).

3.2. Grammatical means

The analysis of our data has showed the transfer in modern media texts from the traditional informative frame "WHO DID X WHEN and WHERE" to vague information with no subject and no time indicated.

The verbs *know*, *believe*, *allege*, *say*, *report*, *seem* are often used in the so called *Nominatives-with-the -Infinitive constructions* which are also typical of modern media texts. They enhance ambiguity as they do not have a subject of a claim, belief or allegation. Dictionaries also indicate that 'someone/something is believed to be' is used for saying that 'it is the general opinion of most people that something is true although it has not been proved:

(15) *Britain and its allies have called for Russia to disclose details of its Novichok supply - the poison **alleged to have been used** on Skripal - to the International Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW).* (Al Jazeera News, 19 Mar 2018)

(16) *Many of the other names in the indictment **are believed** to be high-ranking employees of the troll factory.* (The Telegraph, 17 February 2018)

Another means of ambiguity is indefinite pronouns (*some, one*), indefinite compounds (*someone, somebody*), indefinite article (*a senior Russian lawmaker, an investigator*), nominal expressions (*unidentified person, unnamed officials, unconfirmed reports*) and others. As a result, it is unclear who is the source of information or the performer of the action discussed:

(17) ***Some** Afghan police and military officials told the BBC that the Russian military equipment includes night-vision goggles, medium and heavy machine guns, and small arms* (BBC, 2 April 2018)

(18) *The indictment details contacts targeting three **unnamed officials** in the Trump campaign's Florida operation. In each instance, the Russians used false U.S. personas to contact the officials.* (Chicago Tribune, 17.02.18)

(19) *In one case, it said, the Russians paid an **unidentified person** to build a cage aboard a flatbed truck and another to wear a costume "portraying Clinton in a prison uniform."* (Reuters, 16 February 2018)

(20) ***Unconfirmed reports** link the malware attack to a Russian hacking group known as Fancy Bear* (BBC, 28 February 2018)

Passive voice also serves the same purpose, i.e. omission of the subject:

(21) *... a trove of cyberespionage tactics stolen from the computers of the National Security Agency, including some incorporated in the Wanna Cry virus that have now **been used** against Western industries and governments.* (The New York Times 14 November 2017)

Among grammatical means of uncertainty Present Perfect tense can be noted as it avoids the time of an event or action. Present Perfect tense is often used in media texts instead of Past Indefinite which is normally followed by an adverbial modifier of time. As a result, it is unclear when the stated event or action took place:

(22) *The FBI is investigating whether Russian hackers **have carried out** a series of cyber attacks on the New York Times, officials **have told** US media.* (BBC, 24 August 2016)

Thus instead of clear information of 'who did X when and where' a vague message with no subject and no time is given.

Epistemic modality is another linguistic tool which is widely used in media texts to increase ambiguity. One of the effects of using epistemic modals (e.g. *could, may might*) is a general weakening of the speaker's commitment to the truth of the sentence. They let the author state an action which is not proven and may have hardly taken place at all:

(23) *The acknowledgment by Facebook comes as congressional investigators and special counsel Robert S. Mueller III are probing Russian interference in the U.S. election, including allegations that the Kremlin **may have coordinated** with the Trump campaign.* (The Washington Post, 6 Sept, 2017).

(24) *Trump himself has been reluctant to acknowledge the interference and any role that it **might have played** in propelling him to the White House.* (Chicago Tribune 17.02.18)

In addition to the modal verbs, adjectives and adverbs with the meaning of probability are frequently used: *possible, possibly, probably, presumably, likely* and even *highly likely*:

*Mueller is conducting a criminal inquiry into interference by Russians and **possible** collusion by Trump's campaign.* (The Guardian, 17 Feb 2018)

(25) *A public inquiry concluded in 2016 that Putin had "**probably approved**" the killing.* (The Guardian 4 Apr 2018)

(26) *Russia experts said the Kremlin **was likely** behind the effort.* (POLITICO02/16/2018)

(27) *The leaders of Britain, the US, Germany and France have released a joint statement strongly condemning the Salisbury nerve agent attack as "an assault on UK sovereignty" and saying it is **highly likely** Russia was behind it.* (The Guardian 15 Mar 2018)

3.3. Syntactic means

Syntactic means also serve the purpose of manipulation. Our data show that in media texts we can often see complex sentences with contrasting conjunctions *though, although, however, but*, which introduce something opposed to what is said in the main clause. In other words, the main sentence contains an unsubstantiated statement, while the subordinate clause removes, to some extent, the responsibility of the author for unverified information. However, the addressee focuses on the first information, i.e. on the main clause, ignoring the refinement of the subordinate clause.

(28) *A Facebook official said "there is evidence that some of the accounts are linked to a troll farm in St. Petersburg, referred to as the Internet Research Agency, **though** we have no way to independently confirm."* (The Washington Post, September 6, 2017)

(29) *A representative for the United Nations said that Secretary General António Guterres was "particularly alarmed by allegations that chemical weapons have been used against civilian populations in Douma" **but** that the*

United Nations was “not in a position to verify these reports.” (The Washington Post, April 8 2018)

There may also be a sequence of simple sentences when the ensuing sentence contradicts the previous one:

(30) *Multiple reports, including from rescue workers and the State Department, said an initial attack had targeted a hospital. It was unclear, however, what type of chemicals might have been used.* (The Washington Post April 8 2018)

(31) *A few provincial officials have been explicit in alleging Moscow's military support for the Taliban. **But** the spokesman for Afghanistan's chief executive officer (CEO) said in May 2017 that there was no evidence.* (BBC 2 April 2018)

As we have already stated [5 -7], interrogative headlines are an effective means of manipulation. They attract the reader's attention and, though they do not give any authentic information, contain the basic words which aim at creating an idea or attitude in the readers' mind. Through headlines, the reader can get the information necessary to form a certain idea of an article even without reading it. For example, after reading the headlines below, none of which states any proven fact, a trusting reader can easily get a false and negative impression of Russia:

(32) *Are there any Trump links to Putin?* (BBC, 24 August 2016)

(33) *Is Russia hacking the US election?* (BBC, 24 August 2016)

(34) *Is Russia arming the Afghan Taliban?* (BBC News, 2 April 2018)

(35) *Does Russia present a credible threat to the UK?* (The Guardian, 15 March 2018)

4. Conclusion

In this paper through semantic, pragmatic and discourse analysis we aimed to illustrate that the strategies and means of manipulation in modern media are getting more implicit and sophisticated. We argue that ambiguity of the information has become one of widely used strategies of manipulation. Analysing the data obtained from modern British and American newspapers and news websites we have shown how the lack of specific details, combined with the regular usage of linguistic means of ambiguity (lexical, grammatical and syntactic) give certain freedom to text writers, without risking the accusation of lying. These tools which are often used in combination serve to perform the strategy of ambiguity which, in its turn, aims at manipulating public opinion and imposing an idea, belief or attitude in which those who have power are interested.

We have only limited ourselves to some of the most obvious tactics and linguistic means actively implemented in modern media as tools of manipulation. There are many other tools which need further research and special attention as their analysis promotes better understanding of the text and the author's goal. They can also contribute to a better understanding of the language itself and its functions.

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TEACHING BEGINNING FRENCH ONLINE: REWARDS AND CHALLENGES

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Abstract

According to the latest Babson Survey Research Group on distance education: “The growth of distance enrollments has been relentless” for the past 14 years in the United States. Thus, hybrid and online French classes have increasingly been developed and taught, but not so much at the introductory level. This study analyzes the methodology, discusses outcomes and provides final recommendations on teaching a first semester beginning French taught fully online.

Key words: Distance Learning, Computer-Mediated Communication, Beginning French.

1. Introduction

On January 22, 2018, *Campus Technology* quoted this statement from the 2016 Babson study co-author: “The growth of distance enrollments has been relentless”, while another 2017 report corroborates a growing demand for digital learning from the students [1]. How these recent developments in distance learning have affected the teaching of foreign languages?

Ever since 1990 [2], research has been published on the evolution of teaching F2F (face-to-face) language classes on to hybrid models and then to fully online. Fully cognizant of these new developments and wanting to increase French enrollments albeit decreased faculty resources, we decided in 2013 to offer a pilot hybrid section of beginning French. A faculty member taught concurrently this new class with another beginning F2F section using the same book, methodology and assessments. After comparing both sections final results, we realized that the hybrid section had surprisingly performed better [3].

Nevertheless, we were still reluctant to offer beginning French online especially after reading research articulating concerns: “Thus, an online French course would not be the best option for students just starting the study of language”[4]. In addition, we had concerns about oral communication in an online environment. Our negative perceptions drastically changed after a demonstration of the 2017 *Portails* introductory French digital program, which follows a communicative language teaching methodology and is an instructor driven technology product. Consequently, convinced that we finally found a suitable product and mode of delivery, we decided to teach a pilot section of online beginning French course in the fall of 2017.

This empirical study provides a detailed account of teaching for the first time a fully online introductory French course with its rewards and challenges.

2. Research Frameworks

When we decided to offer this online beginning class, we had these three research questions:

1. How to elicit interpersonal communication and develop oral skills online?
2. How to address “the issue of virtual isolation” [5] among online students?
3. What are the benefits and challenges of teaching beginning French online vs F2F or hybrid classes?

3. Theoretical Background

Following these questions, we read research on second language acquisition, technology mediated task-based language teaching, computer-mediated communication, computer assisted language learning and finally distance learning.

4. Literature Review

We started our project by reviewing fairly recent (2003-2017) research published on distance language learning. Our first reading [6] was a comprehensive overview of research on LTDE (Language Teaching at a Distance) compiled from top journals in the fields of SLA and CALL from 2005 to 2010. In their conclusion, the authors point out that LTDE research mostly

focus on ESL/EFL, Spanish and German. French comes a distant fourth. Nonetheless, we found several articles on online French courses. However, there was only one 2003 article, comparing students' achievements, satisfaction and time spent on the course between an online and F2F sections in elementary French [7]. In light of the paucity of studies on teaching beginning French online, we then browsed publications on teaching beginning foreign languages online and once again, we only found one study on a beginning Japanese online course (Sato, Cheng and Jourdain, 2017), which compared students' scores between an online and F2F sections. Thus, we can conclude, there is a critical need for research not only for French but also for other foreign languages at the elementary levels in distance education.

5. Research Goals

Our objectives are to present a description of our course's design, methodology, content, delivery method and assessments, analyze students' performances and results on interpersonal communicative tasks, written work and a final oral interview modeled on the ACTFL OPI. We then offer recommendations based on positive and negative input collected from our own observations, while teaching this class. Finally, we will respond to our third research question having taught F2F, hybrid and online elementary French sections.

Course Description, Results and Recommendations

This course was taught at the University of Nebraska at Omaha, a state-funded metropolitan university. The 5 credits course took place during the 2017 fall semester over 16 weeks. 25 students (9 males, 16 females) registered for this class. The university learning management system, Canvas, provided access to the course website, where we posted the syllabus, students' weekly schedule for assignments and grades. Vista Higher Learning *Portails* 8] digital program delivered the course content, assignments, oral and written communicative tasks and formative and summative assessments. *Portails Introductory French 1* covers 15 units to be done over 2 semesters.

At our institution, the French beginning track takes two semesters. Thus, our online section taught the first semester of that beginning sequence and we decided to only cover the first 7 units in *Portails*. Our syllabus introduces our goals to the students: "This online class follows the communicative approach and emphasizes the mastery of four language skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. You will learn vocabulary, grammar structures, and cultural facts about France and French speaking countries. You will also be speaking and writing in French at the ACTFL novice level" and it explains our methodology: "You will first explore the new material, learn it via interactive tutorials, practice with various exercises, integrate your knowledge in communicative activities

(speaking, listening and writing) and finally get a personalized feedback on your language performance with the “Epreuve diagnostique” for each new topic. Each unit should be done in about 2 weeks”.

In terms of content and assignments, students had to complete their weekly assignments posted on Canvas. We created 7 modules corresponding to the first 7 units in *Portails*. Each module was divided into 2 weeks. Our previous and successful experience in teaching beginning French as a hybrid course, had taught us to assign homework on a daily basis. We adopted the same approach for the online class. Unlike the hybrid or F2F classes, students were completely on their own regarding their learning. We did not teach them grammar, vocabulary or culture. Instead we completely relied on *Portails* curriculum, methodology, organization and mode of delivery. Each “leçon” always follows these six-step instructional design: “Contextes” (vocabulary), “Roman-photo” (culture, listening), “Culture” (reading), “Structures” (grammar), “Synthèse” (review, communicative activities and lesson practice test) and “Savoir-faire” (reading, writing and listening skills through further cultural explorations). Each of these 6 steps is designed to enable a unique learning progression fostering self-directed learning. It always follows the same organization with the implementation of scaffolding activities, in order to build confidence, fluency and accuracy in the language. Here is the multimodal sequence for each step: “Explore” (Activation of receptive skills: listening and reading), “Learn” (shift to interactive learning), “Practice” (focus on application), “Communicate” (focus on the 3 modes of communications and practice of oral skills) and the last component is the “Self-check” (formative or summative assessment in addition to a personalized study plan for remediation and practice). *Portails* specific methodology, course structure and digital tools empower students to successfully master grammar rules on their own, with the especially well-designed interactive grammar tutorials. Vocabulary tutorials are also quite innovative, since students can also test their oral production pronunciation skills with an embedded speech recognition digital tool.

The overall class grade consisted of several components. Course homework counted for 30% of the final grade, because we considered daily assignments as the most essential and important part of the students’ work in this class. Each day of the week, students were assigned 6 to 13 activities, covering the 6-step instructional design and their multimodal sequence. Students received a weekly percentage participation grade based on their timely completion of the week assigned work (usually between 44 to 46 activities). Thus, students who completed their class work on time would receive a grade of 100%. Next, we tested students online every two weeks at the end of each unit. The test would be made available several days ahead and it was due on Sundays. The 7 tests

average was worth 30% of the overall grade. Unit tests had listening and writing sections with vocabulary and grammar exercises. The instructor has the possibility to edit or make changes in the original test content or grading scale. At the end of each unit, students had to write a composition, which added up to 5% of the final grade. An important if not critical element of this class was the speaking component. Students had to complete several video virtual chats on a weekly basis. This activity consisted of having a simulated conversation with different virtual partners, from France, Québec and Africa. Each recorded conversation had between 8 to 12 questions/answers. Later on, the instructor would listen and score the conversation. Instructor's feedback can be in text or voice. These interpersonal communication activities counted for 25% of the class grade. The remaining 10% for the class grade was the final exam given online during the last week of the semester.

At the end of the semester only 18 students completed the class. 7 students (4 males, 3 females) withdrew or dropped the class. This high attrition rate for a beginning French class is problematic. Another troubling detail was that more than 50% of males dropped this class. Our faculty has never experienced such an enrollment drop in our F2F and hybrid beginning I classes. One possible factor may be "the virtual isolation" of students in distance education classes. We failed to create a sense of community among students, which is critically important for a successful online class. Some possible solutions would be to post interactive discussion topics with "VoiceThread" requiring participation from all of the students. Another would be to use *Portails* "Forums" (which acts like a voice board) or "Partner chats". These particular tools would seem at first ideal and appropriate to create this community, except the technology was not always reliable. Another issue was the high number of students in this class, which made it hard to manage at the beginning. Since this was the first time we offered an online elementary French class, this retention issue may not be completely due to student isolation but could come from other factors, such as the amount and frequency of work in this class. Hybrid and F2F students usually have less work to do on their own outside of class.

In terms of students' final results in this class: 10 students received the grade of A, 1 A-, 2 B+, 1 B, 1 B-, 1 C+ and 2 F (these students never fully participated). After dropping the 2 lowest scores in homework, compositions and speaking assignments, the class average grade (minus the 2 failed students) for homework was 95.60%, unit tests: 86.36%, compositions: 90.63%, final (multi-unit exam) 82.68% and speaking assignments: 91.10%. These overall high grades demonstrate in our opinion a successful experience for both the instructor and the students in our first ever online elementary French course. Furthermore, after having participated in 32 virtual chats during the semester, we wanted to

assess students' ACTFL level with a simulated OPI interview at the end of the semester. To this end, we offered the choice of an individual F2F or online 10-minute interview (with Canvas Conferences tool). In order to minimize students' anxiety, we set this interview as an extra credit for the final. Here are the results: 2 advanced, 2 intermediate low, 2 novice high, 3 novice mid, 5 novice low. (2 students did not participate and were penalized). 4 students were clearly rated at higher levels. 2 of these were Francophone speakers or lived in a French speaking country. One student who was rated intermediate low was an exceptional student, who happened to also be fluent in Italian and Spanish. The rest of the class performed at the expected levels.

We are currently offering the second semester of beginning French online and are now in a better position to make several recommendations on teaching elementary French fully online. First of all, we could never have taught this class without the selection of the right digital program and tools. It is essential and imperative to choose a powerful and well-designed digital platform, such as *Portails*. We adopted this specific program mainly because of its pioneering virtual and partner chats, the quality of the interactive grammar and vocabulary tutorials and the cutting edge of the speech recognition digital tools. In our opinion, this innovative language multimodal platform has replaced language labs from yesteryear. Secondly, in order for an online class to run smoothly, we strongly recommend that you post on a learning management system such as Canvas, the syllabus and unit modules, reflecting daily assignments, compositions and tests due dates, before the semester starts. *Portails* has a course set-up and an assignment wizard which automatically populates the course calendar. We elected not to use this attractive feature, due to our student population, who often work full time. Thus, we were very careful not to overload our students, who were never assigned more than 13 activities per day. Thirdly, for speaking assignments, we at first assigned them on specific days, but very soon we realized that students were unable to complete them on time. Consequently, we gave the option to either do the virtual chats on the assigned day or do them no later than Sundays (preferred by 100% of the students). In view of this incident, we suggest online instructors to be flexible and quickly reactive to students' needs and troubles, so they can experience a positive and successful learning experience. The fourth recommendation addresses general concerns about online classes and potential cheating. This is the reason why we only allocated 30% of the overall grade for unit tests, which usually count for 50% in our F2F and hybrid classes. Furthermore, our online tests had customizable time limits, hence preventing cheating. We also added more weight to communicative and performance-based activities over the mastery of linguistic forms in our tests. So far, we have not observed any incidents of

cheating. Finally, we urge instructors to create an online class community to avoid students' virtual isolation. This can be easily done with the creation of discussion boards in English (if necessary) or using Canvas Discussions tools. This semester, we have launched discussion topics linked to units. We post a video of the instructor asking questions and encourage the students to respond in audio or video format. Our last recommendation is to always promptly respond to students' questions, concerns and comments, while keeping them regularly informed. We received several positive comments from our students in our class evaluations regarding communications between each other. Here are two comments: "This course was online, but the instructor was easy to reach and always responds quickly" and "Teacher was very good at communication with the students, takes interest in students' lives".

Following our findings and observations, we now propose to discuss the benefits and challenges of teaching beginning French online with *Portails*. The most compelling argument in favor of online teaching was paradoxically the critical amount of oral production and interpersonal communicative activities performed by the students, who by the end of the semester had participated in 32 meaningful conversations (a number which could be easily increased, if necessary). In addition to this positive result, the online experience is less threatening to shy or intimidated students, who usually don't respond well in traditional language classes. A 2010 study reveals: "Results indicated the online environment helps to reduce L2 anxiety and increase perceived competence in the language..." 9]. We also experienced an interesting and remarkable development, when our traditional role, "as the sage on the stage" became irrelevant in this class. Teaching grammar and vocabulary (including pronunciation) was replaced by outstanding and effective tutorials. Unlike in F2F or hybrid classes, students never asked grammar or vocabulary questions throughout the semester. The traditional work of the language teacher was greatly reduced and simplified, since the great majority of activities were auto-graded, while also giving feedback to the students. There was also no more need to find authentic documents, supplemental exercises or cultural content. In addition, *Portails* allowed flexibility to personalize the course, edit activities and tests and supplement the course content with your own materials, if needed. We ended up covering more cultural content and offering a greater variety of activities, integrating the four skills, than in our F2F and hybrid classes. Finally and surprisingly so, the course evaluation received the score of 4.60 (5 being highest) compared to other university courses. The instructor usually receives much lower scores, when teaching elementary F2F or hybrid sections. We would like to end this section with a student's quote on their class experience: "The web course used in this class, while very time intensive, was easy to use

and proved to be a relatively painless method of learning French. I was able to go at my own pace and take the time I needed to really absorb the information. After one semester with this course, I feel endlessly more confident in my abilities than I did after three years of high school French classes”.

Yet, we did face some challenges. The most significant was unreliable technology. The first weeks were quite difficult for the students, who ran into several problems with *Portails*, especially with the virtual chats. We spent numerous hours corresponding with students and offering solutions. By the middle of the semester, the course ran smoothly, and we did not encounter any more serious problems. Since, this was our first elementary online class, we decided to keep things simple and avoided more complex technological activities such as the partner chats. We also opted to use Canvas for our OPI interviews, because it was a more robust and stable platform than our language program. The other potential negative factor was the higher number of withdrawals or drops from the class. At this time, we don’t know if this an anomaly or the norm; Consequently, we have decided to teach again this class next fall and will closely monitor, if this phenomenon repeats itself or not. Furthermore, unlike F2F or hybrid classes, where instructors can immediately catch higher level students and direct them towards a more appropriate course, this cannot be done in an online class. Therefore, many students in our class should have been placed at a higher level. Finally, we need to discuss the role of the instructor in an online environment. In some ways, we may posit that the teacher is becoming a mere grader (indeed a time-consuming task) while not exercising any control over the curriculum, methodology and assessment. Distance education opens new challenges to educators, who still want to make a difference in the lives of their students.

7. Conclusions

Teaching beginning French online has been an overall positive and surprising experience. However, it also presents significant challenges, such as students’ virtual isolation, leading to a troubling low retention rate in this class. Thus, our second research question is not fully answered at this time. We are currently teaching online the second semester of beginning French and made changes to foster a more robust student engagement in the class. We created simple discussion topics (such as food preferences) where students can post and exchange video or audio comments on Canvas. We are reaching the end of the semester and so far, all of the students are still fully participating in the course.

Finally, what did this experience teach us? We experienced an unexpected and ultimately empowering revelation. Grammar explanation and vocabulary presentation do not belong anymore in the elementary traditional and hybrid classroom. Well-designed and interactive online tutorials aptly replace the

professor, who can then devote the entire class time to interpretive, interpersonal and presentational communicative and task-based activities and can also increase cultural content. After having offered many F2F and hybrid classes at the beginning level, our online class gave us a brand-new perspective, while radically changing our pedagogy. In conclusion, which mode is better for teaching beginning French? Based on our findings and observations, we believe that hybrid is the superior format for the simple reason that it offers the best of what the online and traditional course can offer. It potentially frees up the instructor from teaching and practicing grammar and vocabulary in class, while at the same time, it preserves the class community and encourages live interactions between students. If the hybrid class is taught with the right digital program, the classroom will then transform itself into a dedicated space for real world, task-based communicative activities and true cultural immersion.

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TRANSLINGUALISM AND SELF-TRANSLATION IN A GLOBAL, MULTILINGUAL WORLD

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Abstract. The literary self-translator is immersed in different linguistic, cultural and political realities of an ever more global world. Besides crossing the linguistic and cultural boundaries they therefore, also confront ideological choices. The central question to be answered in the paper is the following: How might the coexistence and interplay of such realities influence the self-translator's practice and ultimately, the final product of such a practice – the re-written text, and can this practice challenge the authority of the first text – the 'original'? As translation always takes place in a social context, I will place this largely theoretical discussion, within a specific historical framework and conclude with formulating a set of further questions that will inform forthcoming research.

Key words: Translingualism. Globalization. Self-Translation. Neoliberal ideology. The "original". Re-writing.

1 Introduction

The British scholar Paul Simpson reports the story once told by the Mexican film director Alejandro Jodorowsky. A one-eyed, one-legged, hunch-backed king, commissions a portrait of himself. Trying not to insult the king, the artist paints out all the deformities. The king is appalled by how untruthful and inaccurate the portrait is and sentences the artist to death. A second artist is commissioned. He is aware of the previous episode and decides to opt for a truthful, realistic and honest representation. The portrait makes the king furious and the second artist is also executed. A third artist is commissioned. He knows about the previous two attempts and realizes that he does not have an easy task. After giving it a great deal of thought, he decides to paint the king in the role of a hunter. The king draws bow and arrow and thus, can rest a leg on a log, with one eye closed and one shoulder raised above the other. He manages to disguise the king's deformities avoiding the mistake made by the second while at the same time avoiding the fabrications of the first artist. The king is delighted and rewards the artist handsomely. When talking about ideology in arts, literature or in this case in translation, we are talking about the third artist [1]

The British translation scholar Jeremy Munday characterizes 'ideology' as 'multidisciplinary' and composed by the following three elements:

- cognition (thought and belief that go together to create ideas);
- society (group interests, power and dominance);
- discourse (language use which expresses ideologies and dominance)'2].

This third category, the discourse id of our specific interest. This third category, the discourse id of our specific interest. The linguist James Paul Gee 3] asserts that 'language is inextricably bound up with ideology and cannot be analyzed or understood apart from it.' The practice of translation is therefore also an ideological act as it 're-writes' one ideological construct into another as shown by (among others) André Lefevere in his 'Translations, Re-writing and the Manipulation of Literary Fame' 4].

Now that we have introduced and defined the notion of ideology and its role in language and translation, we must ask the following question: What is the dominant global ideology of the day?

2 Ideological Backdrop

In the late '80s, the American philosopher, Francis Fukuyama (1989) proclaimed the 'end of history', the 'ultimate triumph of Western liberal democracy,' and an 'unabashed victory of economic and political liberalism.' 5]. Indeed, it was Margaret Thatcher who before him, in 1987 famously stated that there was no such a thing as a society (6)! Coupled with Fukuyama's assertion, this statement leaves us with a global liberal economy to live in - as opposed to a society. If so, our civilizational values can be described in material, economic terms which is per se a political, ideological choice.

Fukuyama asserts that:

The triumph of the West, of the Western idea, is evident, first, in the total exhaustion of viable systematic alternatives to Western liberalism. In the past decade, there have been unmistakable changes in the intellectual climate of the world's two largest communist countries, and the beginnings of significant reform movements in both. But this phenomenon extends beyond high politics and it can be seen also in the ineluctable spread of consumerist Western culture in such diverse contexts as the peasants' markets and color television sets now omnipresent throughout China, the cooperative restaurants and clothing stores opened in the past year in Moscow, the Beethoven piped into Japanese department stores, and the rock music enjoyed alike in Prague, Rangoon, and Tehran (5).

What Fukuyama described in the early 90s as 'Western liberalism' is known today as neoliberalism that the American scholar David Harvey 7] describes as a class project, designed to impose class on society. The French economists Gérard Duménil and Dominique Lévy posit that the restoration and increase of the power, income, and wealth of the upper classes are the primary objectives

of the neoliberal agenda, and that at the core of this ideology is the belief that states should abstain from intervening in the economy, and instead leave as much as possible up to individuals participating in self-regulating markets 8].

This is the ideological backdrop of a period of our common history (we now know that history is not over, sic!) known as ‘Globalization.

The German sociologist Ulrich Beck (2018) describes Globalization as an ‘escape’ from the categories of the national state and into the rhetoric that operationalised terms such: economy, markets, job competition, production, goods and services, financial flows, information, lifestyle and the wrights of the individual 9].

Ulrich Beck asserts that ‘the premises of the welfare state and pension system, of income support, local government and infrastructural policies, the power of organized labour, industry-wide free collective bargaining, state expenditure, the fiscal system and fair taxation – all this, melts under the withering sun of globalization and becomes susceptible to political moulding. Every social actor must respond in one way or another; and the typical responses do not fit into the old left-right schema of political action 10].

Oxfam reported earlier this year, ‘Eighty two percent of the wealth generated last year went to the richest one percent of the global population, while the 3.7 billion people who make up the poorest half of the world saw no increase in their wealth, according to a new Oxfam report of 22 January 2018 11].

Neoliberal ideas in Russia are associated with the events of the end of the XIX- the beginning of the XXI centuries. Social-economic reforms of the 90th cannot be considered as neoliberal, but more radical. Moreover, neoliberalism rejects extreme and radical measures. The national interpretation of the neoliberal approach is related to the concept of the strong central power, the distribution of power among state and political entities, the well-controlled and developed market economy and liberal reforms in the social relations. An individual can and must rely on the personal achievements, self development, the results of his/her labour activity 12].

Concluding this brief characterization of the neoliberal world we can again refer to David Harvey who maintains that all this privatization has gone too far, that there are a lot of common goods that we need to take care of, such as - the environment 8].

This is in brief, the ideological backdrop of the modern world that facilitates many things and among them - multilingualism.

3 Multilingualism and Self-Translation

In an article published by the Linguistic Society of America, the American scholar from Stanford University Guadalupe Valdés s asserts (among many others) that most of the world’s population is bilingual or multilingual. Five to

eight thousand different ethnic groups reside in approximately 160 nation states and scholars estimate the number of languages spoken in that same small number of nation states at 5000. It is evident therefore, that very few nations are either monolingual or mono-ethnic. And this without taking into account emigrants, travelers and many people around the world who formally study foreign languages 13].

Indeed, new data suggests that the UK is the worst country in Europe at learning other languages. As part of a vote organized for European Day of Languages, Britain was revealed to be the most monolingual country in Europe as 35% chose Britain as the worst in Europe for communicating in any other language apart from their mother tongue. French citizens came second in the vote with 22 per cent, followed by Italy with eight per cent” 14].

The situation in Russia is more optimistic. In 2014 the Russian Public Opinion Research Center held the survey that showed that 92% of the respondents thought that children should study foreign languages at school. In big cities Moscow and St. Petersburg this figure is 98%. In fact, nowadays the overwhelming quantity of parents realize the importance of learning foreign languages, so the children start their acquaintance with another language, in most cases it is English, from the age of 3-4 15, 16]

Bilingual authors have the innate ability to write fiction in both of their languages. The literary studies scholar Stephen Kellman (2003) coined the term ‘trans-lingual writers to describe authors who write in more than one language or in a language other than their primary one.’ Such authors may write a single text in different languages or different texts in different languages. Those who decide to ‘(re-)write’ or ‘translate’ the same work in a different language engage in the practice of self-translation 17]

The translation studies scholar, Alexandra Kroh defines as bilingual ‘anyone who finds in a second language the sensation of being at ease, the certainty of mastering the rules of the game and knowing how to transgress them not from ignorance, but to obtain a desired effect’ This view is grounded in the practical realities of a modern, global society that requires sound practical communicative competence such as implicit grammar knowledge, operational proficiency and communicative skills as opposed to an explicit mastery of the grammatical rules and a native-like accent 18].

Susan Bassnett recalls how the translation theorist and her close collaborator André Lefevere and herself had both been educated as bilinguals. They were enthralled, she asserts, with linguistic and cultural difference 19]. Bassnett expands thus, the technical, linguistic properties of bilingualism to include those of bi-cultural competence. The linguistic aspect of bilingualism gives access to the cultural ‘content’ of both cultures and it leads to their appreciation and

eventually to a comparison of the salient characteristics. Bassnett and Lefevere stress the wider, cultural and historical context in which languages are spoken and texts written. This view informs translation studies and offers a critique of the previous linguistic approach that focused on the key issues of meaning, equivalence and shift. Cristina Marinetti, a translation studies scholar, asserts that such a 'cultural approach' views translations as a fact of historical circumstances and as a direct product of a given target culture. She maintains that 'translation as a process cannot be explained through the simple mapping of linguistic correspondence between languages or judged with respect to universal standards of quality and accuracy' 20]. The argument Lefevere and Bassnett advance about language being imbedded in a given cultural, historical and political context shifts the focus of the interest of translation studies from the text and its linguistic properties to a much broader 'cultural' context.

The Slovak/Canadian translation studies scholar Anton Popovič 21] formulated the first definition of self-translation as 'the translation of an original work into another language by the author himself.' Popovič assumes the existence of a first text from which the self-translation is derived. Another translation studies scholar Sarah Kippur 22] argues that self-translation is understood as having two essential features: a single author and two identical texts that differ only by language. Kippur's definition stresses that the two texts are 'identical' but for the fact that they are in different languages.

These two definitions describe self-translation as an 'act' (Popovič) or the result of the work of one author engaged in the production of two texts (Kippur). Both definitions engage with the status of the first text. For Popovič, the first text is the 'original' and for Kippur, the two texts are 'identical' except for the language that is different. It seems that while Popovič recognises the authority of the first text, Kippur sees both texts in an aggregate state as 'co-originals.'

The Canadian translation theorist Rainer Grutman defines self-translation as the 'act of translating one's own writings or the result of such an undertaking' 23]. He makes a clear distinction between the 'act' and the 'result' of self-translation while remaining non-committal on the question of the status of the texts that he refers to as 'writings.'

The comparative literature and translation studies scholars Hokenson and Munson argue that self-translation is a well-established literary and translation practice of producing a 'single text in two languages' 24]. In their view, self-translation is only the continuation of the creative writing process for the two practices produce 'one single text' that for all intent and purposes should be regarded as a monolith original.

While, Popovič sees the product of self-translation in terms of the dichotomy original – translation, Grutman does not entertain this point at all. Kippur treats

the two texts as if they were of equal creative standing ('identical but for the language') allowing thus, for the status of the first, 'original' text to be challenged, while Hokenson and Munson erase completely the distinction between the two texts and treat them as one single, continuous unit.

The Australian literature and translation scholar Rita Wilson argues that the 'self' resides in a language, and that fundamentally, reality is a linguistic construct. The 'self' inhabits 'the' first language, and when we turn to another language and seek to express ourselves in this new paradigm, the 'self' shifts, reproduces and re-builds itself anew. She asserts that self-translation is 'a pivotal concept for trans-lingual writers, who fashion narratives that try to encompass both the 'original' and the re-located cultural-linguistic self, is that of 'self-translation'... They are translating the self into the other' 25].

This definition of 'reality as a linguistic construct,' stands in stark contrast with Kippur's assertion that the practice of self-translation produces 'identical' texts that differ in language only.' If language is a reality per se, in its own right, and it does feature a world view and an ideological standpoint, there cannot be two 'identical' texts in two languages for there cannot be two identical realities and ideologies in two languages.

The Belgian translation and literature theorists André Lefevere and Susan Bassnett argue that translations are never produced or indeed, received in a historically and culturally empty space 26]. Lefevere maintains that translation is an open communicative process that cannot be studied as an isolated, linguistic phenomenon but only in relation with power and patronage, ideology and poetics. He suggests that there are no abstract translations and no criteria for their evaluation per se, on purely linguistic merit. Bassnett dismisses any comparison between originals and translations for such a comparison does not take into consideration the cultural and political context the two texts appeared in 27]. According to Lefevere and Bassnett, the cultural (linguistic, historical, political) context the (self-) translation takes place in is of critical importance and Hokenson and Munson argue that self-translators not only bridge the gaps between cultures but also combine these cultures into a single subject. They write both languages with one single hand inverting the roles of translator/author, foreign/domestic and posing questions about the completeness of the text(s), its belonging to literary traditions and the possibility of measuring, comparing these texts. The present study looks at the self-translation practice of three authors who each belong to different linguistic and cultural milieus. It is therefore, of critical importance that we look at them both in terms of their roles as translator/author, foreign/domestic who combine their respective cultures into a single entity as well as to engage with them using a comparative method.

Bassnett argues furthermore, that, in the context of self-translation, ‘the binary notion of original-translation appears simplistic and unhelpful’ 28]. Once this fundamental binary notion is brought into question, the very practice of self-translation needs to be re-visited. It is perfectly conceivable, for instance, that an author produces two versions of their text simultaneously in two different languages, abolishing therefore, the dichotomy ‘original’ - ‘translation.’ She suggests that ‘the term self-translation is problematic in several respects, but principally because it compels us to consider the problem of the existence of an original’ 29] and that the very definition of translation implies the existence of a previously produced text somewhere else. Indeed, Wilson argues that self-translation opens ‘new possibilities for the original’ and here we enter the real of the possible. Multilingualism and the practice of self-translation bring thus, the question of the authority of the ‘original’ into sharp focus.

Cultures, as well as languages and politics are to be placed in and understood within a historical, temporal dimension. Time is a factor of critical importance in the discussion on self-translation. The hiatus between the writing of the first and the subsequent second text in another language represent a space of emotional and intellectual activity that is conditioned by the cultural and political environment.

Grutman asserts that self-translation is ‘chronophagous’ – a time-consuming activity. He maintains that this is a complex, tri-dimensional rather than binary (‘original’ – ‘translation’) activity that is situated not only within a ‘cultural’ context but also within a temporal framework. He observes how the self-translating Irish author and Nobel Prize laureate Samuel Beckett is able to narrow the time gap between the production of the first and second text and how, in doing so, he blurs the distinction between the two. Beckett even manages, asserts Grutman, to invert the chronological order of the versions abolishing completely the distinction between ‘original’ and ‘version’ as well as the deconstruction of the very same notions 30].

The implications of simultaneously writing and/or publishing the same text in different languages are relevant. A self-translation that has the potential to ‘look back’ and influence the ‘original’ text can be called ‘open’.

A ‘closed’ self-translation, on the other hand, is one where the ‘original’ text is finalised for any given reason (it could be published). In this case, the ‘original,’ the first text is closed as there are no further alterations. The only text remaining that is open to any sort of creative input is the ‘translation,’ the second text. This relationship could, of course, change or even be inverted should the author decide to publish further editions of the first version of the text.

The Spanish scholar Julio-César Santoyo asserts that an ‘open’ relationship ‘creates a sort of complementarity between the original and its translation, a

reciprocity whereby one text supplements and/or depends on the other as both texts become, de facto, the head and tail of the same coin. ...] Thus forming, a unique text in which original and translation are both complementary and appear intimately bound together, face-to-face and back-to-back, constantly intertwined in one textual entity.' 31] He argues thus, in agreement with Hokenson and Munson's definition ('single text in two languages'), for 'one textual entity.' This one, single 'entity' cannot therefore, be partitioned into one 'original' and one 'translation.'

To summarise, according to Santoyo, Hokenson, Munson and Kippur, authors continue their creative production by engaging in self-translation. They carry on writing the same text in a different language and, importantly, for a completely new audience.

The Italian translation scholar Simona Cocco argues that 'the self-translator seems to be modifying the original for their new audience' 32]. As previously discussed, it is by 'modifying the original' that the self-translator communicates with the new audience. In the words of the Spanish translation scholar Castillo García, 'the content of a message is changed to make it somehow fit the culture of the reader ...] a new information is introduced that was not linguistically implicit in the original' 33]. García stresses that the content of the message changes to conform with the recipients' world view. She does not view self-translation therefore, in terms of language equivalence but in terms of its communicative function.

Hokenson and Munson 24] also argue that many authors translate and alter their own work in the process, because they want to address a new target audience. This new audience usually features a common language as well as a cultural, historical and political background. This audience could also be made of speakers of the same language but with somewhat different cultural backgrounds as in the case of English speakers from Britain, South Africa, Texas or New Zealand, or Portuguese speakers from Portugal, Brazil or Angola. The self-translator not only modifies the original but they can also amplify their initial message.

Two important elements are at play in this instance. Firstly, the temporal dimension that can influence the process of modification/amplification, and secondly, the need to address a new audience. The reception theorist Hans-Robert Jauss describes this new audience in terms of a 'horizon of expectation.' Such a 'horizon' assumes the existence of a 'mental set' within which people of a specific generation, language and/or culture understand, interpret, and evaluate a text and must be taken into consideration when addressing an audience: 'A literary work, even when it appears to be new, does not present itself as something absolutely new in an informational vacuum, but predisposes its

audience to a very specific kind of reception by announcements, overt and covert signals, familiar characteristics, or implicit allusions.’ The literary work is therefore fully immersed in the cultural context and needs to ‘communicate’ with the audience taking into account its salient characteristics 34].

Jauss develops the idea that the text assumes meaning only in interaction with the reader. The reader is therefore, the target of the act of producing a text and when the self-translator switches to a different language creating a new ‘version’ of the text it is exactly because it seeks to address this specific ‘new audience.

A. Lefevere coined the term ‘refraction’ by which he understands an ‘adaptation of a work of literature to a different audience,’ that is produced ‘with the intention of influencing the way in which that audience reads the work’ 4].

As an example of ‘refraction,’ Lefevere uses the translation of Anne Frank’s Diary. Originally written in Dutch, the French, English and German translations of the Diary were a direct result of ideological manipulation (1992: 59-72). Especially so the German translation as it eliminates whole sections of Frank’s account of the brutal treatment of the Jews. Lefevere views this translation as a clear example of a text being re-written to make it compatible with the, at the time, dominant public discourse engaged in portraying Germany as a country fighting its way out of the Nazi past. The divergence between the two texts (Frank’s text and the translation) is well beyond the linguistic sphere and explicable only with the help of historical, political and therefore, ideological tools.

4 Conclusion

The eminent British translation studies scholar Clive Scott asserts that ‘translations are normally understood as the translation of a source text (ST) into the target text (TT) ...] for the benefit of those readers who have no access to the ST’ (2012: 1). Translation Studies therefore, acknowledge the presence of a source-text (ST) and a target-text (TT). The first, source text is the ‘original’ and the second, target text is the ‘translation.’ 35] While, Scott uses here the notion of a ‘source text,’ the chronologically first text or, if we like, an ‘original’ text, for very practical reasons (the ST is ‘fixed’ on paper or digital format), the literary theorist Roland Barthes maintains that ‘the text is a tissue of quotations drawn from the innumerable centres of culture... (the author’s) only power is to mix writings, to counter the ones with the others, in such a way as never to rest on any one of them’ 36]. Therefore, literary theory allows for the authority of the ‘original’ to be challenged as any text may be considered derivative in nature. Hence, not the ‘first’ text but just one in. along line of texts. The British scholar Graham Allen maintains that: ‘We must give up the notion that texts present a unified meaning and begin to view them as the combination and

compilation of sections of the social text. As such, texts have no unity or unified meaning on their own, they are thoroughly connected to on-going cultural and social processes' 37].

The translator Christopher Whyte argues against self-translations. He maintains that such texts are inevitably interpretations that reproduce only one of the many resonances of the text and that they do so with an authority that cannot be challenged for their source is the very author. Whyte therefore, sees self-translation outside of the field of translation proper and the field of literary studies sees self-translation as derivative since based on a previously existing text 38].

Both these positions strengthen the argument that self-translation is a phenomenon related to both creative writing and translation that features distinctive traits that warrant for it to be studied independently. Central to this argument is the relationship between the 'original' and the second text, the 'version' or the 'translation.

The research has demonstrated, 'originals,' 'versions,' and re-written texts can and do travel in both directions. Often, however, through a thick curtain of ideological fog and with many questions that remain to be asked: Is the self-translator conscious of this political or even cultural divide? If so, is s/he willing to engage with it and challenge with their re-writing the horizon of expectation of the new audience hoping to 'educate' them? If on the other hand, the self-translator is an author who continues his/her work in a different language holding a bona fide licentia poetica, what authority other than that of a neoliberal market can impede their artistic expression? And finally, can the practice of translingual writing and literary self-translation challenge some of the postulates of the dominant discourse and ideology?

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BIBLE PHRASEOLOGY IN FUTURE TEACHER TRAINING

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Abstract: The aim of this article was the confrontation of partial results of the research focused on active and passive use of phraseological units of biblical origin in contemporary Czech and Slovak university environment. Based on these results, we suggest and specify set of idioms of biblical origin, The set of idioms could be the frazeological base for students in teacher training for primary schools in the Czech Republic and also the set could led to the

development of idiomatic competence of future teachers not only in their mother tongue, but also in other Slavic languages.

Key words: biblical idioms, humanitarian education, paremiological competence, training teachers.

1 Introduction

In the Czech language, especially in the speeches of Czech classics, contemporary writers and the media, many phraseological units, winged expressions, aphorisms, proverbs and sayings of biblical origin function actively. Since in the past a large part of the Czech people was not actively involved in the Bible, the biblical symbols are still incomprehensible to many.

Part of this cultural lacuna, we tried to fill in as part of the university training of future primary school teachers at the pedagogical faculty of the Evangelist Purkyne University in Usti nad Labem in the Czech Republic. We strive to show that modern school education in the Czech Republic is making increasing efforts for the in-depth humanitarian education of schoolchildren, which implies the inclusion of biblical phraseology in compulsory programs. And certain exercises and knowledge in this area can be offered both in the primary school and in the training of future teachers of the initial stage of education in universities.

2 Aim and Object of research

The object of the description are Czech and Slovak bibleisms in phraseology, which become a mirror of national and pan-European realities and demonstrate the Slavic linguistic picture of the world within the framework of Y. A. Komensky's didactic competence, creating the actual fragment of *Orbis pictus*. It examines specific examples of the use of biblical texts in the Czech language in comparison with another close Slavic language - Slovak, which also leads to the deepening and expansion of the socio-cultural competence of the Slavic language as native and foreign.

Some biblicalisms in the Czech and Slovak languages have very similar features, while others have their own specific features, which manifest themselves, for example, in their different structure, different component composition, etc., as well as the way they function and use them in communication (especially different frequency on the axis "center-periphery." In this case, the original form and semantics of the original quotations and expressions from the Bible are often modified (see more: Balakova-Kovachova-Mokienko[2:12]).

In our study, carried out at the beginning of last year on the material of the survey, 80 students of the university in Usti nad Labem. E. Purkyně with the specialization of the teacher of the 1st degree of general education schools, we proceeded from our general scientific German-Russian-Slovak project "Bible

and Christianity in Phraseology" (Greifswald-Petersburg-Ruzhemberk 2010-2012). The purpose of this project was to trace the reflection of the general cultural heritage of the Bible in the linguistic consciousness of the younger generation of philological students by interviewing the selected 80 BI of the international character in three languages with a comparable initial situation in changed socio-political conditions (see more: Balakova-Kovachova-Mokienko[2:10]). We also took into account our research on the paremiological competence of the young and middle generation in the Czech Republic, which were carried out on the same principle (see more details in Šindelářová [9:604-611]).

The target group of our survey was, as mentioned above, students with the specialization of a teacher of the 1st degree of general education schools, while in an international project the students of philological disciplines - Russian studies, German studies and Slovak studies - were subjected to a survey. native language from the point of view of its use (active knowledge - passive knowledge - ignorance) and its origin (identification of the BI).

3 Methods and Results of Studies

In the questionnaire, which included 80 BIs, we first of all checked the competence of students to evaluate the corresponding BI from the point of view of its use on the basis of their own speech experience. Respondents chose one of five opportunities on three levels: 1A - I know, I use, I can explain the meaning (and lead it); 1B - I know, I use, I can not explain; 2A - I know, I do not use, I can explain (and again - bring the meaning); 2B - I know, I do not use, I do not know how to explain; 3 - I do not know.

The results of our survey showed that almost a third of the respondents (29%) use thematically restricted PSUs actively (levels 1A and 1B), while Passive knowledge (levels 2A and 2B) was demonstrated by 53% of students. Only 18% of respondents described the proposed BI as unknown (level 3).

Figure No. I
Phraseological competence I

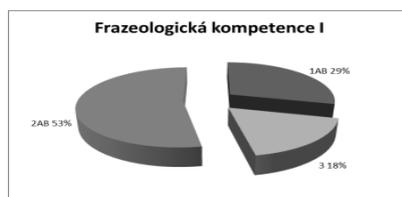
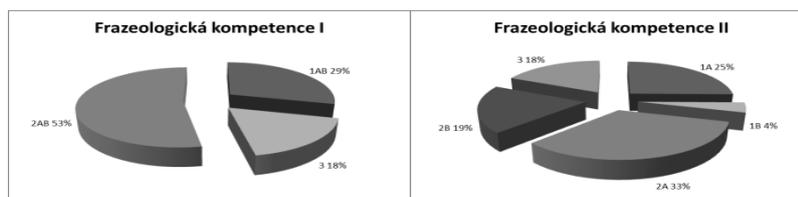


Figure No. II
Phraseological competence II



the students of the discussed set of the BI, in which, however, their passive knowledge exceeds active use and ignorance, which we assumed.

Comparison with the studied statistically processed data of the Slovak university youth (for more details see: Kováčová [7: 104-106]) confirmed that the passive knowledge of the FEB of the young Czech generation is 4% higher than that of the Slovak one.

From the point of view of active use of **BI**, the results were similar, Czech and Slovak respondents received the same percentage (29%) at the questionnaire. The third level detects such an amount and percentage of unknown to the students of the **BI**, which the Czechs make up 18% of the entire discussion set of **BI**.

The following table (Table No. 1) offers an overview of the most well-known **BI** with the percentage of Czech respondents who described them as "know".

Table No. 1

ALFA A OMEGA.	92,3
ZAKÁZANÉ OVOCE NEJVÍC CHUTNÁ.	89,2
(JAKO) V SEMÉM NEBI (být, cítit se).	86,2
KDO HLEDÁ, NAJDE.	85,4
KDO DRUHÉMU JAMU KOPÁ, SÁM DO NÍ PADÁ.	83,1
OD ADAMA.	82,3
VŠECHNO MÁ (CHCE) SVŮJ ČAS.	80,0
OKO ZA OKO, ZUB ZA ZUB.	75,4
TVÁŘÍ V TVÁŘ.	68,5
VLASY HRŮZOU VSTÁVALY/ JEŽILY SE NA HLAVĚ.	67,7
OTEVŘÍT OČI <i>komu</i> .	67,7
STÁT JAKO SOLNÝ SLOUP.	61,5
ANI PÍSMENKO, ANI ČÁRKA, ANI Ň.	56,9
CO ČLOVĚK ZASEJE, TO TAKÉ SKLIDÍ.	56,9
Z CELÉHO SRDCE/ Z (CELÉ) DUŠE DĚLAT <i>co</i> .	56,2
RVÁT/TRHÁT SI VLASY.	55,4
SKŘÍPAT ZUBY.	49,2
NEVĚŘÍCÍ TOMÁŠ.	48,5
SYPAT SI HLAVU POPELEM/POPEL NA HLAVU.	46,9
VYPUSTIT DUŠI.	46,2

NEMÍT kde HLAVU SLOŽIT.	45,4
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The following table (Table No. II) offers an overview of the most well-known BI with the percentage of Slovak respondents who described them as "know".

Table No. II

<i>Všetko (chce) svoj čas.</i>	84,6
<i>(ako) v siedmom nebi (byť, cítiť sa)</i>	79,2
<i>Vlasy dupkom vstávali /na hlave/.</i>	70,0
<i>Kto hľadá, nájde.</i>	69,2
<i>Kto druhému jamu kope, sám do nej spadne.</i>	68,5
<i>otvoriť (otvárať) oči niekomu</i>	67,7
<i>vyliat' si dušu/srdce (pred niekým, niekomu)</i>	64,6
<i>tvárou v tvár</i>	64,6
<i>Zakázané ovocie najviac chutí.</i>	63,1
<i>na veky vekov</i>	61,5
<i>Miluj svojho blížneho ako seba samého.</i>	57,7
<i>Oko za oko, zub za zub.</i>	57,7
<i>z celého srdca (robiť niečo)</i>	57,7
<i>Sodoma a Gomora</i>	56,9
<i>stáť ako soľný stĺp</i>	55,4
<i>ani písmenko /ani čiarka/ ani bodka/ ani ň</i>	54,6
<i>niešť svoj kríž</i>	54,6
<i>neveriaci Tomáš</i>	50,8
<i>vypustiť dušu</i>	47,7
<i>v Adamovom/Evinom rúchu</i>	47,7
<i>alfa a omega</i>	46,9

In comparison with the Slovak students, who did not know only 14% of the BI from the general set of the BI, it turned out that in the Czech language environment, the BI ignorance is 4% higher than that of the Slovaks.

The results obtained at all three levels indicate certain types of two national differences, depending on the measure of activity or passivity of their use. A

qualitative statistical evaluation of the **BI**, which forms the core of the phraseological competence, can be compared with Czech and Slovak students with a qualitative indicator, which is expressed by the corresponding measure of active use of the **BI**.

The next criterion was the evaluation of the phraseological set of the **BI** on the axis "center (core) - postcentre - periphery" in order to determine the relevance of the individual **BI**.

The next criterion was the evaluation of the phraseological set of the **BI** on the axis "center (core) - postcentre - periphery" in order to determine the relevance of the individual **BI**.

In graph No. III, we characterize the representation of the PSU of the BP on the transitional limits of the use of **BI**. When determining the boundary (percentage) values of these three areas of different use of FE, we proceeded from the ratio of the answers 1AB and 2AB. The first row corresponds to the units of the center of phraseological use by respondents in the percentage range of 100-76%, the other reflects the range of 75-51% and relates the **BI** to the post-center. The last range with a ratio of 50-0% is formed by phrases that are on the periphery or on the full limit of phraseological students (see Chart No. III, compare Balakova-Kovachova-Mokienko 2013: 106-116).

Chart No. III - Frontier rows of the **BI**



(center, post-center, periphery)

Interesting results were established within the most commonly used FP of the **BI** in the series "center (core)" in the Czech and Slovak linguistic environment, because for the first ten **BI**, complete similarity was achieved (the absolute magnitude of the difference was zero). The specific **BI** and the corresponding percentage values are summarized in the following table No. III:

Table No. III

VLASY HRŮZOU VSTÁVALY/ JEŽILY SE NA HLAVĚ.	100,0
<i>Vlasy dupkom vstávali /na hlave/.</i>	100,0
(JAKO) V SEDMÉM NEBI (být, cítit se).	100,0
<i>(ako) v siedmom nebi (byť, cítiť sa)</i>	100,0
OKO ZA OKO, ZUB ZA ZUB.	100,0
<i>Oko za oko, zub za zub.</i>	100,0
ZAKÁZANÉ OVOCE NEJVÍC CHUTNÁ.	100,0

<i>Zakázané ovocie najviac chutí.</i>	100,0
STÁT JAKO SOLNÝ SLOUP.	100,0
<i>stát ako solný stĺp</i>	100,0
KDO DRUHÉMU JAMU KOPÁ, SÁM DO NÍ PADÁ.	100,0
<i>Kto druhému jamu kope, sám do nej spadne.</i>	100,0
SMÍST Z POVRCHU ZEMSKÉHO (ZE ZEMĚ) <i>koho, co.</i>	98,5
<i>zmiest' z povrchu zemského niekoho, niečo</i>	98,5
LIDÉ DOBRÉ VŮLE.	95,4
<i>ľudia dobrej vôle</i>	95,4
SŮL ZEMĚ (BÝT SOLÍ ZEMĚ).	74,6
<i>sol' zeme (byť solou zeme)</i>	74,6
KRV Z KRVE, KOST Z KOSTÍ <i>koho.</i>	38,5
<i>krv z krvi, kost' z kosti niekoho</i>	38,5

Minor differences between the Czech and Slovak language environment we recorded for the next seven **BI** (with an absolute value of 0.769), see the following table No. IV:

JEHO DNY JSOU SEČTENY.	98,5
<i>Jeho dni sú spočítané.</i>	97,7
ALFA A OMEGA.	100,0
<i>alfa a omega</i>	99,2
OTEVŘÍT OČI komu.	100,0
<i>otvorit' (otvárať) oči komu</i>	99,2
NEVĚŘÍCÍ TOMÁŠ.	99,2
<i>neveriaci Tomáš</i>	98,5
TVÁŘÍ V TVÁŘ.	98,5
<i>tvárou v tvár</i>	99,2
V ROUŠE (V ROUCHU) ADAMOVĚ/EVINĚ.	97,7
<i>v Adamovom/Evinom rúchu</i>	96,9
NEMÍT kde HLAVU SLOŽIT.	96,9
<i>nemať kde hlavu skloniť</i>	96,2

A higher absolute difference (1, 538) between Czech and Slovak students was found in the next nine **BI** (for specific values, see the following table No. V):

Z CELÉHO SRDCE/ Z (CELÉ) DUŠE DĚLAT <i>co.</i>	98,5
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<i>z celého srdca (robiť niečo)</i>	96,9
KDO SEJE VÍTR, SKLIDÍ BOUŘKU.	60,8
<i>Kto seje vietor, zožne búrku.</i>	59,2
MILUJ SVÉHO BLIŽNÍHO JAKO SEBE SAMÉHO.	100,0
<i>Miluj svojho bližneho ako seba samého.</i>	98,5
NA VĚKY VĚKŮ.	100,0
<i>na veky vekov</i>	98,5
KDO HLEDÁ, NAJDE.	100,0
<i>Kto hľadá, nájde.</i>	98,5
NĚST SVŮJ KŘÍŽ.	98,5
<i>niešť svoj kríž</i>	100,0
SPÁT/USNOUT VĚČNÝM SPÁNKEM.	97,7
<i>zaspať (usnúť) večným spánkom</i>	96,2
MEZI NEBEM A ZEMÍ.	96,2
<i>medzi nebom a zemou</i>	97,7
SODOMA (A) GOMORA.	96,2
<i>Sodoma a Gomora</i>	97,7

Somewhat higher absolute differences (2,308) between the **BI**s in Czech and Slovak students were found in the following four sentences:

The values attained by future Czech teachers are convincing evidence of the predominant position of the center (58 PSU of the BP from the list of 80 FEB BPs discussed, ie 46%) over the two following types, which also indicates that the students of the teacher's profile for the 1st stage of secondary schools at the Pedagogical Faculty of the University. E. Purkine in Usti nad Labe know the **BI** and actively use them in communication (compare with similar results for the Czech middle generation - see more: Šindelářová 2012: 604-611).

Since many of the PhUs of the **BI** of our set almost coincide in their usage in the Czech and Slovak student language environment, they could thereby become the basis of the phraseological minimum for the students of the teacher's profile at the 1. stage of secondary schools in the Czech Republic. Therefore, on the basis of our research and its partial results, we recommend that the following FEBs related to the center be included in the system of Czech higher education of future teachers, for we are convinced that this will lead to the development of their phraseological competence not only in their native language, but and in other Slavic languages.

Table No. VI – Center

OD ADAMA.	100,0
ALFA A OMEGA.	100,0
MILUJ SVÉHO BLIŽNÍHO JAKO SEBE SAMÉHO.	100,0
NA VĚKY VĚKŮ.	100,0
VLASY HRŮZOU VSTÁVALY/ JEŽILY SE NA HLAVĚ.	100,0
VŠECHNO MÁ (CHCE) SVŮJ ČAS.	100,0
OTEVŘÍT OČI <i>komu</i> .	100,0
KDO HLEDÁ, NAJDE.	100,0
(JAKO) V SEDMÉM NEBI (být, cítit se).	100,0
OKO ZA OKO, ZUB ZA ZUB.	100,0
ZAKÁZANÉ OVOCE NEJVÍC CHUTNÁ.	100,0
STÁT JAKO SOLNÝ SLOUP.	100,0
KDO DRUHÉMU JAMU KOPÁ, SÁM DO NÍ PADÁ.	100,0
VYPUSTIT DUŠI.	99,2
NEVĚŘÍCÍ TOMÁŠ.	99,2
JEHO DNY JSOU SEČTENY.	98,5
NĚST SVŮJ KRÍŽ.	98,5
SMĚST Z POVRCHU ZEMSKÉHO (ZE ZEMĚ) <i>koho, co</i> .	98,5
TVÁŘÍ V TVÁŘ.	98,5
Z CELÉHO SRDCE/ Z (CELÉ) DUŠE DĚLAT <i>co</i> .	98,5
ANI PÍSMENKO, ANI ČÁRKA, ANI Ň.	97,7
V ROUŠE (V ROUCHU) ADAMOVĚ/EVINĚ.	97,7
ZBLOUDILÁ OVCE (OVEČKA).	97,7
SPÁT/USNOUT VĚČNÝM SPÁNKEM.	97,7
NEMÍT kde HLAVU SLOŽIT.	96,9
MEZI NEBEM A ZEMÍ.	96,2
SYPAT SI HLAVU POPELEM/POPEL NA HLAVU.	96,2
SODOMA (A) GOMORA.	96,2
KAPKA V MOŘI.	95,4
LIDÉ DOBRÉ VŮLE.	95,4

POHÁR/ČÍŠE TRPĚLIVOSTI PŘETEKL/PŘETEKLA.	94,6
SKŘÍPAT ZUBY.	92,3
CO ČLOVĚK ZASEJE, TO TAKÉ SKLIDÍ.	92,3
NÁVRAT ZTRACENÉHO/MARNOTRATNÉHO SYNA.	91,5
SLOUŽIT DVĚMA PÁNŮM.	90,8
VYLÍT/VYLÉVAT DUŠI <i>před kým, komu.</i>	90,8
CHRÁNIT JAKO OKO V HLAVĚ.	90,8
NEZŮSTANE KÁMEN NA KAMENI.	90,8
V POTU TVÁŘE (PRACOVAT, DĚLAT <i>co</i>).	90,8
CHYTIT/LAPIT koho DO SVÝCH SÍTÍ.	90,8
PADNOUT NA ÚRODNOU PŮDU.	90,0
VYPÍT ČÍŠÍ/KALICH/POHÁR HOŘKOSTI (až) DO DNA.	88,5
RVÁT/TRHAT SI VLASY.	87,7
JÍST ZE STROMU POZNÁNÍ.	87,7
VÍRA HORY PŘENÁŠÍ.	86,9
BÍT SE DO PRSOU.	86,9
KDO NENÍ S NÁMI, JE PROTI NÁM.	86,2
ODDĚLIT ZRNO OD PLEV.	86,2
ŠALAMOUNSKÉ ŘEŠENÍ/ROZHODNUTÍ.	86,2
SPIŠE PROJDE VELBLOUD UCHEM JEHLY, NEŽLI (doplňte).	84,6
ČÍM KDO ZACHÁZÍ, TÍM TAKÉ SCHÁZÍ.	83,1
HODIT KÁMEN/KAMENEM <i>po někom.</i>	80,8
LEVÁ RUKA NEVÍ, CO DĚLÁ PRAVÁ.	80,8
ZAKOPAT/ZAHODIT SVŮJ TALENT.	80,8
JAKO JEDEN MUŽ.	80,8
MNOHO POVOLANÝCH, MÁLO VYVOLENÝCH.	79,2
DUCH A LITERA ZÁKONA.	76,2
STAVĚT/POSTAVIT NA PÍSKU.	76,2

Since the post-center compiles twelve FEBUs in the Czech language environment from the discussion set, we will list their results (including the

percentage of the total number of PSBs discussed) for completeness in the description of our sounding results in the following table:

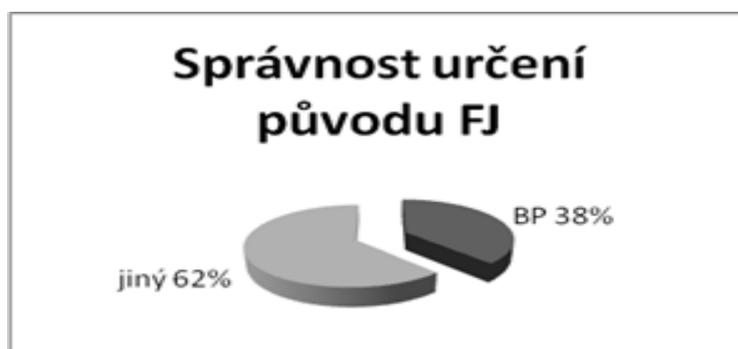
Table No. VII - Post Center

HLAS VOLAJÍCÍHO NA POUŠTI.	75,4
UMÝVAT SI RUCI.	75,4
ZLATÉ TELE.	75,4
SŮL ZEMĚ (BÝT SOLÍ ZEMĚ).	74,6
NEHÁZEJTE PERLY SVINÍM.	73,1
DVOJSEČNÁ ZBRAŇ / DVOJSEČNÝ MEČ.	73,1
SLOUŽIT MAMONU.	69,2
NEJEN CHLEBEM JE ČLOVĚK ŽIV.	69,2
KDO NEPRACUJE, AŤ NEJÍ.	65,4
KDO SEJE VÍTR, SKLIDÍ BOUŘKU.	60,8
PRST BOŽÍ.	60,0
TŘICET STRÍBRNÝCH.	53,1

On the periphery, in the Czech language environment, there are only ten PhUs (for details, see the following table No. IX BI in the peripheral series, designated by Czech students as "unknown", including their percentage to the whole), which from the consciousness of the Czech youth is already eroded and, therefore, in our opinion, they can not be attributed to the phraseological minimum of future teachers.

The proof of this situation is the results of a survey of students from the Slovak language environment (for more details see: Kováčová [7]), while Czech students in statistics were only one BI more successful than Slovak (11 FE).

The aim of the last part of the study was to determine to what extent students are aware of the biblical origin of the proposed PhU group. The percentage ratio in the Czech environment is shown in the following graph No. IV:



Graph No. IV - Correctness of the determination of the origin of the PhU with the highest assessment of BI by Czech students (with specific percentages) are given in the following table No. X:

Table № VIII – BI

MILUJ SVÉHO BLIŽNÍHO JAKO SEBE SAMÉHO.	99,2
V ROUŠE (V ROUCHU) ADAMOVĚ/EVINĚ.	92,3
JÍST ZE STROMU POZNÁNÍ.	86,2
NA VĚKY VĚKŮ.	83,1
NÁVRAT ZTRACENÉHO/MARNOTRATNÉHO SYNA.	83,1
NEVĚŘÍCÍ TOMÁŠ.	83,1
PRST BOŽÍ.	83,1
VÍRA HORY PŘENÁŠÍ.	80,8
SODOMA (A) GOMORA.	79,2
NĚST SVŮJ KŘÍŽ.	76,9
TRUBKA/ POZOUN Z JERICHA.	73,8
OD ADAMA.	73,1
ZBLOUDILÁ OVCE (OVEČKA).	73,1
LIDÉ DOBRÉ VŮLE.	70,0
TŘICET STŘÍBRNÝCH.	65,4
POSÍLAT <i>koho</i> OD HERODA K PILÁTOVI/OD PILÁTA K HERODOVI.	62,3
HLAS VOLAJÍCÍHO NA POUŠTI.	61,5
ŠALAMOUNSKÉ ŘEŠENÍ/ROZHODNUTÍ.	60,8
ZLATÉ TELE.	57,7
ZAKÁZANÉ OVOCE NEJVÍC CHUTNÁ.	57,7

DUCH A LITERA ZÁKONA.	54,6
HODIT KÁMEN/KAMENEM <i>po kom.</i>	53,8
MEZI NEBEM A ZEMÍ.	52,3
NIKDO NENÍ DOMA PROROKEM.	52,3
VYLÍT/VYLÉVAT DUŠI <i>před kým, komu.</i>	52,3
NEZŮSTANE KÁMEN NA KAMENI.	50,0

The results of our study aimed at evaluating the PhD of the BA and the corresponding phraseological competence of the students of the teacher's profile for primary education in the Czech language environment allowed us to not only compare the investigated phenomena with the results obtained in the implementation of the international project "Bible and Christianity in Phraseology" [2], and to create an idea of the international common core or periphery of the international-level FE on the international scale from the point of view of their relevance in the active or passive phraseological joke of the modern young generation (taking into account the origin of the Biblical origin of the FE), but also led us to more general conclusions in connection with the study of phraseological competence and the fund of biblical internationalism in the minds of the young European generation.

The findings of our study can reveal not only the national specifics, but also wider linguocultural and integration tendencies in the modern European environment.

We are convinced that not only this sounding, but future similar studies will confirm that the dynamic of the phraseological foundation is constantly changing, because it reflects not only cultural and social changes in a given era and in a specific social environment, but also age differences and changes in the a certain language, and therefore its synchronous analysis must pay more attention. The general conclusions of our study in the Czech language environment (in accordance with the conclusions of the authors of the project in the Russian, German and Slovak linguistic environment) confirm that an adequate level of phraseological (specifically linguistic) consciousness, assuming an accurate and correct knowledge of the meaning of a specific PhU of the BP, should not be an indispensable condition for successful communication, since the native speaker is able to use the PhU of the BI in an acceptable and appropriate way, on the basis of his linguistic (and within it, also phraseological and biblical) rather a superficial semantic knowledge of the corresponding PhU BI (compare Kováčová [6: 686]).

Conclusion

For the university training of future teachers, we, together with colleagues from the Faculty of Philosophy of the University. Ya.E. Purkine in Usti nad

Labem is trying to reveal the picture of the world by connecting the phraseology to the learning process, namely, either as an independent linguistic discipline by including it in the didactics of the native language or by means of a phraseological seminar as a mandatory or optional course. We are convinced that the teacher in his teaching practice can not do without phraseology, including FE of biblical origin, which is confirmed by a number of our surveys of the past.

In our article, we tried to prove that biblicalisms have an inestimable methodological and didactic value in the modern process of teaching the native language, because they positively influence the dynamics of the training group, ensure the integrity of teaching, create natural communicative situations and make possible a combination of various skills that allow the complex creation of the necessary phraseological competence in order to understand the bibleisms in the learning process for all age groups of students.

The national specificity of the Slavic languages and their cultures, including their phraseological component, must be viewed in a broad pan-European context, without betraying the international for the national. The linguistic study of the problem of the "linguistic picture of the world" in the phraseological perspective seems to be very useful and productive and can give much to both Slavic and linguodidactics.

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JAPANESE COMMUNICATIVE CULTURE: WHAT SHOULD RUSSIAN STUDENTS BEAR IN MIND

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Abstract

The article contains an analysis of Japanese speech communication traditions, which are relevant for intercultural dialogue and study of the Japanese communicative culture by Russian people. The topic current importance is due to the growing ties between Russia and Japan in various fields of industry and culture.

The paper aims to explore similar and different characteristics in the communicative cultures of two countries. The purpose of such an analysis is to use these data in educational programs in the Japanese language for Russian citizens.

The research methodology combines literature review and interviews of Russian and Japanese specialists who engage in linguistic and cultural support to representatives of Japanese and Russian businesses, state, educational, and public structures that implement various forms of collaboration. Totally 56 such specialists from Japan and Russia took part in the survey. They identified a number of specific characteristics of the Japanese communicative traditions behavior, which should be taken into account by Russians studying the Japanese language and culture.

The above specifics are explored within the most typical situations of interpersonal interaction.

Key words: Japanese communicative culture, Russian Communicative culture, cross cultural communication

1. Introduction

A considerable amount of material has been accumulated on the description of Japanese culture and traditions; Japanese etiquette system has been described in detail, etc. Specialists note that the Japanese themselves even experience discomfort in communicating with representatives of other communicative cultures due to the specifics of their culture [1]. In fact, this feeling does not change over time [2]. Many specialists attribute this to the specifics of mentality of the Japanese communicative culture representatives, which is largely determined by social roles and status: this position also exists for quite a long time [3]. In addition, the communicative closure of Japanese native speakers in relation to representatives of other cultures is considered in the context of general differences between east and west [5].

However, in our opinion, comparative studies of two specific cultures are of great value see, for example, [7].

At the same time, it should be noted that such studies often take into account the views of only one communicative culture representatives in relation to the specifics of the other [8].

Meanwhile, simultaneous empirical analysis of the opinions and specifics of perception of a communicative culture by foreigners who know the language and native speakers of this language is of greater value, which makes it possible to combine the "external" and the "inner" perception of the features of the communicative culture.

Currently there is a growing interest on the part of Russians towards Japanese culture. However, to date, there has been no comparative empirical analysis of the Japanese communicative culture specifics, with the simultaneous participation of Japanese native speakers and the Russian language native

speakers, for whom the Japanese language and culture are the objects of professional activity.

The foregoing determines the relevance of the present analysis, which is performed precisely in the specified channel.

The purpose of the study is a comparative analysis of similar and different characteristics in the communicative cultures of two countries with the aim of including these data in educational programs in the Japanese language for Russian citizens.

2 Methods of investigation

The study is of a comparative nature; it also applies the methodology of qualitative analysis.

The research methodology includes analysis of relevant literature and experiment involving Russian and Japanese specialists rendering linguistic and cultural support to representatives of Japanese and Russian businesses, state, educational, and public structures in establishing contacts between representatives of two countries.

A total of 56 such specialists took part in the survey, including 21 representatives of Japan and 35 representatives of Russia.

The experiment included a survey and discussion of its results in thematic focus groups.

The questionnaire included the following questions and suggested answers in a free form:

- What specific features of communicative behavior of the Japanese in official communication should be known to the Russians studying the Japanese communicative culture?
- What situations for Russians studying the Japanese language and the culture of communication can be distinguished from the point of view of specifics in the communicative behavior of the Japanese?
- What typical similar and distinctive features in the Japanese and Russian communicative cultures can you specify?

The discussion of the results of the experiment includes only those specific characteristics that are identified by carriers of Japanese and Russian communicative cultures. This selection principle promotes better data objectification, i.e. the coincidence of views of representatives of different communicative cultures performing identical professional activities.

Comments of the focus group include comments on the correlation between some characteristics of Japanese communicative culture and Russian communicative culture.

3. Results and discussion

The participants of the experiment highlighted the following specific characteristics of the communicative behavior of the Japanese, which are of greatest significance for Russians studying the Japanese language and culture:

- different degree of focus on the interlocutor noted 98% of respondents
- a low degree of metaphoricality noted 91% of respondents
- a high degree of rituality noted 90.5% of respondents
- greater adherence to traditions of communication and pedantry noted 88% of respondents
- limited use of jokes, humor, etc. noted 86% of respondents
- caution in presenting their views and opinion noted 85% of respondents

Among the most typical situations representing the specificity of the speech behavior of the Japanese, the respondents noted

- Invitation
- Introduction and start of the conversation
- Farewell
- Apology
- Non-verbal behavior (emotions and boundaries of personal space)

Let us consider the comments of respondents in more detail.

Regarding the different degree of focus on the interlocutor survey participants made the following comments.

Within the framework of the Japanese communicative culture, the interlocutor usually does not oppose the speaker; he/she behaves with restraint and is focused on the partner. Ability to take the position of sympathy, empathy; demonstration of various nonverbal forms and so called silent understanding are characteristic features of the communicative manner of the Japanese, in contrast to the more informal, and sometimes shocking manner dominating in Russia.

Accordingly, the Japanese language is characterized by a special construction of utterance, where the interlocutor is central. Everything is subordinated to the task of maximum attention, courtesy to the interlocutor, and creation of a positive feeling.

As the practice of negotiating shows, Japanese representatives, as a rule, avoid direct pressure, sometimes hesitate to embarrass the opponent, put him in an embarrassing situation, take him by surprise, preferring formal and verbal dialogue. Adversely, the slightly shocking, expressive style begins to prevail in the Russian communicative manner, characterised by an element of provocation. Russians are much more likely than the Japanese to "put in place" a negotiating partner.

The Japanese are very cautious in outlining their own opinions and views; they prefer vague, fuzzy language. Taking care in every possible way not to

cause moral damage to the interlocutor, they avoid direct negative assessments and disputes. Conflicts are usually settled by seeking consent and compromise, rarely leading the matter to an open and sharp speech conflict.

As it is known, the Japanese language involves a large number of both grammatical means and special vocabulary, which together make up a rather complex system for mastering by language carriers and foreigners. There is an unusually rich system of personal pronouns, about 50 forms of addressing in respectfully official, high, neutral, lowered, friendly polite, modest, familiar style, etc.; about 50 forms of greetings, more than 40 expressions of farewell, more than 20 kinds of apologies, etc. In addition, there is also a special vocabulary to choose from.

Moreover, the Japanese are able to stand up to the point of view of the other person; they are able to sympathize with the explications of the negotiating partner instead of rationally insisting on their own point of view. This is very important for Russians who study the Japanese language, since in Russia, as many sociologists note (A.C. Akhiezer, K.G. Kholodkovsky, etc.) there is no culture of compromise and true dialogical communication.

Japanese official discourse is characterized by a low degree of metaphorically and imagery and a high degree of ritualism, which is very clearly discernible during business negotiations between diplomats and businessmen, Russians and Japanese. Russian representatives habitually manifest much less organization and sometimes do not observe all the formalities of the protocol. However, they react more directly to what is happening; they try to outplay a partner's speech.

Representatives of the Japanese communicative culture are committed to the formulations adopted within the culture; they are characterized by caution and circumspection of utterances. In addition, there is strict correspondence of actions to the "scenario" of the event, emphasizing the relations of the social hierarchy.

Specialists also point out that a joke, a pun, or a play on words do not always seem appropriate and in place during official contacts. Improvisation and play appear to be inappropriate liberties at a crucial moment, when someone is performing his/her duties [6].

In the Russian language etiquette, the boundaries of styles and genres are less strict, the syntax is more expressive, the interstyle movement of vocabulary is broader, the opposition of "our - alien" is less important, and eccentric speech play often occurs not only in familiarity of close people, but also in official communication. In the course of negotiations, the efforts of the Russian side are sometimes aimed at using informal dialogical discourse with the aim of changing the nature of the dialogue.

Next, we will examine in more detail those communicative situations, which specifics in terms of significance for the Russians studying the Japanese communicative culture was noted by the focus group.

Invitation in the Japanese tradition can be formal and informal. Both the Japanese and the Russians form unofficial invitations in an arbitrary form. Despite the same wording, the perception of such an invitation by the Russians and Japanese will be markedly different. Thus, Russians are inclined to accept such an invitation quite seriously. Usually it does not occur to Russians that such invitations are only a polite form of rapprochement. In Japanese culture, the actual meeting is discussed more specifically, with the date and time of the meeting, as unexpected visits are usually excluded. Unlike Russians, the Japanese prefer to wait for a second invitation, made in a more specific form.

The degree of perseverance of inviters in Russia and Japan is about the same. Before accepting the invitation, it is normal to reject it for some time. Regarding official invitations, there are also many coincidences in both cultures. Both in Russia and in Japan it is common to formulate an invitation to partners clearly and directly. The official agreement usually follows or is duplicated) in writing. In addition to the date and time, it is customary to report the reason for the invitation. Acceptance or possible rejection of an invitation in Russia is expressed directly and clearly, as for Japan, it is very difficult for the Japanese to reject, therefore, he/she will more often agree, even to the detriment of his/her plans.

Introduction collaborates in both Japanese and Russian cultures, and it is determined by the specific situation. Here there are two main options: the first option provides that the interlocutors introduce themselves in the process of communication. The second option is practiced in a more formal setting. In this case, the introduction is performed by the third person. The etiquette of introduction in both Japanese and Russian cultures is almost the same. But if you introduce a Japanese, you need to take into account his/her rank and status. It is generally accepted that the longer the introduction, the more polite it sounds.

Farewell is an important and clearly defined act of communication in both cultures. Through the form and nature of parting, the parties determine the prospect of further interaction. The process of "Russian" farewell is much longer than "Japanese" farewell. After the goodbye words, the Russians may have so called "afterword", which, depending on the social distance between the interlocutors, embraces practically everything from "say hi" to joint acquaintances, to wishes for health, to meaningful remarks.

A verbally neutral farewell is accompanied by the words "Goodbye". In the Japanese language, the most common salutation is "Sayo-nara", but in fact the scope of this expression is surprisingly narrow.

Most often this salutation is used when there is no need to show special courtesy to the interlocutor, who, therefore, is equal or inferior in status especially in the youth environment). Some adult Japanese use this expression with everyone without exception, but this, in most cases, is not welcomed. The reason is that the phrase contains the semantics of estrangement and/or formality. It means separation of people who are strangers to each other, but not the temporary abandonment of "their" group. For the same reason, it is not practically used in family communication, except in cases of separation for good.

Apologies in Japanese and Russian cultures are used in approximately the same communicative contexts. The main difference is that Russians are less inclined to apologize for any actions. From the point of view of the Russians, the Japanese ask for an apology even when it is quite possible to do without it. Formal apologies in Japanese are much more widespread than in Russian, this explains misunderstanding of many Russians who consider such politeness excessive. The Russian apology implies a more "serious" fault that needs to be ironed out, and is much less likely to be treated as a simple form of politeness.

In general, **nonverbal behavior** in the Japanese communicative culture, as well as speech, is characterized by increased restraint. So, traditionally it is accepted to avoid physical contact, including in family environment and communication with friends. The use of rhythmic gestures emphasizing speech is essentially limited, and they themselves have a relatively small range of movements.

Emotions are expressed very sparingly you can note the sluggish facial expressions, especially the eyebrows and mouth). Most means of conveying emotions are directed towards themselves rather than those around them. On the whole, the set of strictly Japanese gestures of negative and positive emotions of a direct character is relatively poor. For example, traditionally there are no clearly expressed gestures of gross refusal, open threat, direct insult, strong indignation, etc. A typical non-verbal expression of indignation and/or anger is a short glance from under the eyebrows with a cold-neutral expression. There are almost no native Japanese intensive gestures of positive evaluation, joy, and despair; there are some scant means of expression of affection, etc. Here are some examples of nonverbal behavior of the Japanese.

Personal distance is the most visible parameter, allowing to trace the difference in behavior of the Japanese and Russians. For example, the intimate zone of the Japanese extends to about one meter. If someone invades an intimate zone, it is automatically interpreted as a disrespect for the person. In Russia, the intimate area is not so large. Most people can be in close proximity to each other, without experiencing any apparent discomfort.

4. Findings and recommendations

The results of the analysis and their discussion in focus groups suggest that educational programs in the Japanese language should be aimed not only at studying the Japanese system and the peculiarities of its writing. The training course should also focus on the traditions of communicative culture.

Acquiring these traditions should bear an applied nature. Both the course packs developers and the course instructors should teach the language on the principles of personal involvement, context-oriented and problem-based learning.

The features of the Japanese communicative culture featured in the article must be presented to students in typical communicative situations, in various formats for perception and production reading, listening, writing, and speaking). Of particular importance are authentic video resources that provide students with the opportunity to audiovisual analysis of the specifics of the Japanese communicative culture and the necessary reflexive activity.

The prospect of further research is related to situationally oriented selection of educational material, taking into account the aims and levels of study of the Japanese communicative culture.

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TERMINOLOGY THEORY APPROACH TO TEACHING LANGUAGE FOR PUBLIC SERVICES.

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Abstract. Terminology theory developed as result of linguists' research and practical work of technical specialists aimed at standardization of terminology, which was required for effective communication among specialists. Rapid development of technologies and social sphere introduced new concepts and terms. Development of public sphere as a specific field of people activities introduced a lot of specific notions, which have to be designated and used in various settings. Difficulties which new terminology creates in communication necessitated the development of all kinds of terminological vocabularies. The importance of language for public services studies is emphasised by the fact that the specific terminology may create obstacles not only in communication with foreign residents, but community customers and between public servants themselves. Language as service provided within the sphere of public services is of growing importance in multicultural communities. Language and translation in the sphere of public services requires qualified specialists and new competences in variety of settings public services cover from communal to legal. The teaching and learning terminology have to be considered from various approaches: theoretical, educational and practical.

Key words: terminology of public sphere/services, theoretical approaches to study terminology, terminology databases and vocabulary, language training.

1. Introduction

Terminology having been specific to specialists fields is penetrating now all spheres of peoples activities, the importance of terminology becomes evident,

which aroused the greater interest to the study of terminology. Terminology makes an important part of a specialist language.

One of the concerns of terminology theory is the relationship between terms and concepts they designate. [1:182] describes terms or terminological units as multidimensional being also units of knowledge, language and communication which have to be studied in a specialized discourse.

Considering terminology as an interdisciplinary discipline gives an insight into the nature and specific function of special domain language. Terminology is of even greater importance in multilingual societies with evergrowing contacts and intensive professional communication.

2. Terminology theory approaches to study specific language

Knowledge of terminology means specialized knowledge in particular sphere. Modern theory of terminology embraces such approaches such as a cognitive approach dealing with concepts and related terms, a linguistic approach analyzing forms of terminological units and a communicative one focusing on the use of terminology [9]. Terminology is not an isolated phenomenon which can be researched and practiced without close contact with other fields of knowledge. Terminology is interdisciplinary science. Terms as specialized knowledge units are multidimensional, and have a cognitive component, a linguistic component, and a socio-communicative component. In this respect, they behave like general language word [2-3]s. Their specificity resides in a series of cognitive, syntactic, and pragmatic constraints, which affirm their membership in a specialized domain [8].

3. Communication and Language Training in the sphere of Public services

Communication within the sphere of public services covers a wide range of linguistic issues concerning the use of specific vocabulary, comprehension of public service texts and documents. Public service is hierarchical system. Communication within public institutions has also been classified as “up”, “down”, “across”. ‘Up’ communication is achieved by such method as systematic, written and verbal reports of performance and progress, statistical and accounting reports concerning work, written verbal requests for guidance, suggestion and discussions. ‘Down’ communication is achieved through devices, such as, directives, manuals, written or verbal orders or instructions, staff conferences, budget sanctions and establishment authorization. Across communication is achieved through exchange of written or verbal information and reports, formal and informal and personal contacts, staff meetings and coordination committees. The aim is to bring together different but related parts of the organisation. The first great difficulty of communication in public service system is the complexity of language. There are a lot of examples of language

misuse which confuses the public, service users and service providers, leads to obscure accountability. Failed communication is inconsistent with open government. Inaccurate use of terminology can undermine efforts to reform public services which are under way in many countries.

Terminology misuse can prevent effective communication. Terminology of public services sector is under way of development, alongside with common terminology new terms appear, they are often borrowed into other languages, where they may acquire new features. Language of public services sphere should be neutral, and formal.

Language training system in the public services sphere has evolved in many countries and is intended at training employees who wish to improve their communication skills and upgrade their language skills. Language training is considered a key component of professional development Office [2]. Public officials have to display knowledge of official language and language culture. Besides courses on foreign languages are provided, as communities become more internationalized, particularly in big cities. LSP courses are designed to meet public servants' needs of using foreign languages in multilingual societies.

They have to acquire a range of interpersonal communication skills such as negotiating, listening, problem-solving skills and language skills, such as reading skills (skimming, scanning and detailed reading), writing skills (writing letters, memorandums, reports, email and note-taking), verbal communication skills (questioning skills, presentation skills, emphasis, use of terminology, abbreviations etc., listening skills (receiving orders, directions, etc.).

One of the important considerations of public services language is that it is not only a specific language of particular sphere, but could be a service itself. Language services have become important social services provided in public sphere for linguistically disadvantaged groups. Language specialists are in demand as there is a need to ensure access to information in all sectors of society [4].

Language training in the public services sector has become a new educational area. The reforms which are going on in the sphere of public services put more emphasis on language training. Language courses are integrated into professional training at universities and as a part of in-service professional development on site. Language training has been a part of Code of Practice in some countries where two or more official languages are used [4]. The knowledge of foreign language/languages has become a particular merit for many professions. This is true of public services providers who have to deal with people speaking different languages as societies are getting multilingual.

Language training at universities is provided on various programmes on Foreign languages, Language for specific purposes, Translation and Interpreting

using traditional and innovative approaches. While providing language training for public service workers, special courses for group and individual training are devised aiming at improving professional language and communication skills, other official languages or foreign languages skills. Methods and content of language training depends on the course aims.

The programmes to train public services interpreters and translators are part of governmental policies. But this sphere used to be neglected by public authorities in many countries when interpreting was provided by family members or other people having no qualification. The situation has been changed considerably. In the European Union the translation and interpreting is regulated by specialized department Directorate-General Translation (DGT), which develops standards and requirements for translation and is also helpful in organizing courses for training interpreters and translators.

4. Conclusion

The analysis of the specific language and communication in the sphere of Public services shows the complexity of language, importance of language training for effective functioning and development of specialist competences and improving the quality of public services. The terminology constitutes one of the most problematic aspects of communication and is challenging both for specialists and customers. The special textbooks for language training in this sphere which are not abound could be compensated by numerous databases and specific vocabularies to get acquainted students with complicated terms and specialized knowledge.

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LAWYERING SKILLS WITHIN A LEGAL ENGLISH COURSE

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Abstract. Implementing competence approach into the Russian higher education system made standards designers think more about developing students' technical and non-technical skills rather than just providing knowledge of particular subjects. Nevertheless, in Russian law schools curricula disciplines devoted to substantive and procedural rules of law are in overwhelming majority comparatively to courses aimed at forming and mastering skills necessary in everyday lawyers' activities. This article aims at finding ways to combine teaching subject-matter with developing skills and content-language integrated learning (CLIL) is one of the solutions. Literature analysis allowed identifying important lawyering skills and studying the ways they are taught in American law schools. A survey of recent Russian law schools graduates shows what knowledge and skills obtained during the period of studies they find most useful in their work and highlights the ways they attained these skills and knowledge. Statistics analysis, information synthesis, and teaching experience prompt a solution: incorporating teaching of some lawyering skills into a Legal English course.

Key words: CLIL, Professional Competence, Legal English, Technical Skills, Soft Skills.

1 Introduction

Competence approach to education emerged in EU in the end of the 20th century has quickly penetrated into a Russian educational system and found its way into Federal State Educational Standards (FSES) in the form of describing results of training process. 1] Three categories of competences are used for that purpose: general cultural competences (GCC), professional cultural competences (PCC), and professional competences (PC). At the same time in a particular discipline syllabus there appear such provisions as competences formed and knowledge and skills attained as a result of the discipline studying. This terminology uncertainty in describing education results – competences, skills, attributes – can be a research subject in and of itself, so for the purposes of this article they will be considered interchangeable to some extent in the context of different educational systems because it is much more important what graduates can do than how to name the results of training.

Foreign language (FL) teachers are usually involved in forming and developing communicative competence, in FSES terms GCC-5 (having ability to communicate orally and in writing in Russian and foreign languages to resolve tasks of interpersonal and cross-cultural interaction), but for lawyers communication is one of the fundamental activities. So it is possible to combine teaching FL with mastering professional skills.

2 Lawyering Skills

The main goal of higher education is to prepare a competent specialist and legal education is not an exception. In different countries educational standards are established by various organizations, Ministries of Education and professional associations being among the most important ones. Their work on improving current requirements to training results is a continuous process responding to the quickly changing conditions of a modern world.

Legal education in the USA strongly depends on American Bar Association (ABA) which accredits law schools, conducts a bar exam, and advises law school curricula. So it is ABA that develops practical skills requirement for professional Standards. As for Russia there are Ministry of Education approved FSES consisting of base and variable parts. But what knowledge and competences should be included in standards and requirements? What skills and attributes are crucial for a graduate to become a professional?

2.1 Teaching Lawyering Skills in the USA

One of the ways to assess training program results is conducting surveys among employers and graduates who have just started their careers. A survey

carried out at a National Conference of Bar Examiners request showed a rather interesting outcome. Newly licensed lawyers were asked to assess the significance of knowledge and skills which they had gained at their law schools for their job activities. A 1-4 scale (4 stands for “extremely significant”) was offered and the first line in “Knowledge Domain” was occupied by *Rules of Civil Procedure* with average significance 3.08 (the category contained 86 disciplines), while *Written communication* got average significance 3.77 in the “Skills and Abilities” category (35 items) followed by 24 more rubrics having obtained scores higher than 3.08. 2] So skills and abilities seem much more important for performing practical tasks at a working place than knowledge of substantive and procedural rules.

Based on this survey Bratman 3] arranged these twenty five skills and abilities into five classes, namely: communication, analysis, research, project management, professionalism. The significance of these findings for legal education having been discussed at a Legal Writing conference, several conclusions were made about using them as a “starting point” in developing ABA’s new standards requirements. For purposes of this article skills fallen into communication and analysis categories deserve special attention. Such communicative skills as written communication, listening, oral communication, interpersonal skills, answering questions succinctly, and analytical skills of critical reading/comprehension and issue spotting are also included in the FSES list of competences describing the training results.

The idea of reflecting lawyering skills importance in educational standards is not new. Almost thirty years ago scholars and practitioners sought the ways “to overcome the tendency in law schools to separate the teaching of legal theory from instruction in its practical application in society” 4] although such courses as “legal analysis and reasoning,” “legal research,” and “legal writing,” had been customary taught in American law schools. Learning-by-doing methodologies were introduced in teaching core subjects along with developing client counseling and negotiation courses. 4]

Most authors considering lawyering skills from diverse viewpoints first of all mention legal writing which is a compulsory first year subject and includes drafting different memorandums and briefs. Other skills taught to different extent are “client interviewing, case preparation, and trial advocacy” 5].

Law teachers who came to universities after years of practice more than others realize the importance of incorporating skills training into doctrine teaching. Christensen 6] underlines that “combining skills and doctrine in *every* law school course” enhances students’ leaning and makes them more prepared for real life practice. His study shows that law school success most of all depends on grades got by students in skills courses and among the reasons he names

cooperative learning. Such exercises as work in pairs or small groups and preparing short presentations can be easily included in any class. 6] And these are types of work broadly used by foreign language (FL) teachers.

Understanding the importance of teaching lawyering skills led to implementing experiential education into law school curricula in the form of clinical education and/or semester-in-practice. Clinic pedagogy has evolved from client counseling to creating mediation programs and clinics against the background of alternative dispute resolution development. Moreover, now ABA requires having “at least six credits in experiential courses as a condition of graduation”. 7]

Summing up the above it is necessary to underline that teaching lawyering skills in American law schools has been changing in recent years towards increasing the number of courses in curriculum and credits necessary for graduation. Students can enroll in specific courses in legal writing, trial advocacy, negotiations as well as get practical experience in law and/or mediation clinics. On the other hand, there are a number of skills significant for job activities which can be called soft skills (listening, oral communication, interpersonal skills, etc.) which can be mastered within different courses.

2.2 Teaching Lawyering Skills in Russia

An overview of teaching lawyering skills in Russia is made up on the basis of analysis of a baccalaureate fundamental professional training program of higher education worked out at Saratov State Law Academy (major – jurisprudence 40.03.01). 8] The program is composed in compliance with FSES and contains general provisions, requirements to graduates, competences formed within the program, short descriptions of disciplines syllabi, etc.

There is no wide variety of courses immediately aimed at developing and mastering lawyering skills, some titles are ‘Russian language and speech culture’, ‘Legal reasoning’, ‘Legal methods’, courses of a FSES variable part, each is worth 2 credit hours. All three of them form PC-7: having skills of drafting legal documents, which is also indicated as one of the results of studying many law courses. The first two frame PCC-5: having an ability to reasonably and clearly perform oral and written communication, as well as GCC-5: having ability to communicate orally and in writing in Russian and foreign languages to resolve tasks of interpersonal and cross-cultural interaction.

Although law clinics have become widely spread in Russia practicing at a law clinic is not compulsory for students, it is a so called facultative course. But these students who do enroll in a law clinic highly appreciate the experience they get there. One more facultative course, ‘Conflict resolution studies’, can also be called skill-oriented and form a communicative competence and negotiating skills but again not many students take it.

Communicative competence in a foreign language (PCC-7) is formed within courses ‘Foreign language’ and ‘Foreign language in the sphere of jurisprudence’ included in a FSES basic part, courses which also frame competences GCC-5 and PCC-5 (see above). In fact, elements of business correspondence taught at foreign language lessons provide students with a written communication skill to a bigger extent than it is done during teaching other courses (the conclusion made out of empirical data received from years of teaching experience).

So there is a great deficiency of skill-oriented courses although theoretically many disciplines are aimed at forming and mastering professional competences necessary for future jobs and it is essential to find ways how to enhance teaching with elements of mastering lawyering skills.

2.3 Law Schools Graduates Survey

A short study of the matter from a graduates’ viewpoint was carried out and the research methodology, including the survey composition, respondents, and data analysis, together with the survey results will be described below. An idea of the survey questionnaire was prompted by the one referred in 2.1 but the goal was different. The survey was aimed at finding not only most significant for job activities knowledge and skills but also to identify sources the students obtained them from. The first part of the questionnaire, ‘Knowledge Domain’ 2], contained disciplines connected with State Qualification Exams and/or worth more credit hours. The second part included such skills as written communication, oral communication, client interviewing, drafting contract, preparing complaints, negotiations, communication with the other party, etc. The respondents are Saratov State Law Academy graduates of 2014-2017 working in private practice and having not passed a Bar exam yet, 80 per cent of whom got additional qualification ‘Translator in the Sphere of Professional Communication’.

A 0-3 scale (3 being ‘extremely important’) was offered and the results were somehow similar to those in Case 2] because the skills of written and oral communication are in the first lines with average importance 3.

Table 1. Average importance of knowledge and skills for job activities

Knowledge or Skill	Average importance
Written Communication (Business Correspondence)	3
Oral Communication	3
<i>Civil Law</i>	2, 89
Client Interviewing	2, 89

Drafting Contracts	2, 78
<i>Arbitrazh (not to confuse with arbitration)</i>	2, 56
<i>Family Law</i>	2,33
<i>Civil Procedure</i>	2,22
Negotiations	2,22
Drafting Complaints	2,11
Communication with the Other Party	2
<i>Financial Law</i>	1,89
Communication with the Court (Judge)	1,78
<i>Theory of State and Law</i>	1,667
<i>Administrative Law</i>	1, 67
<i>Criminal Law</i>	1
<i>Criminal Procedure</i>	0,67
Examination, cross-examination	0,56

It is clearly seen from the table of the results that for Russian Law School graduates skills are as much important as for their American colleagues.

Another interesting finding is sources of obtaining these skills and knowledge. There is no divergence in the source of knowledge – it is the curriculum, as for the skills only ‘Examination, cross-examination’ and ‘Drafting Complaints’ were indicated by respondents as obtained within the curriculum. Other skills, especially those occupying the first two lines, came from the program of additional qualification, law clinic, and/or internships.

3 Implementing CLIL into a Law School Curriculum

3.1 CLIL in Russian Law Schools

Since Marsh 9] first closely analyzed CLIL and outlined its perspectives many scholars and practitioners have addressed the topic and continue elaborating CLIL theory and presenting results of numerous CLIL projects. In Russia interest to CLIL has aroused later but developed exponentially: there are only four works devoted to CLIL dated 2012 in eLibrary (the main source of Russian citation index) 10] while the list of 2017 publications contains 95 titles considering a wide range of problems from theoretical essays to empirical reports of using CLIL both in secondary and higher education.

However, in Russia implementing CLIL into university curricula is complicated by several factors. Firstly, a Russian higher education system is strongly centralized and it is very difficult to change a curriculum, although it is

possible in its variable part. Secondly, it is necessary to have teachers ready and capable to use CLIL. If a subject teacher knows a foreign (mostly English) language at C1 or C2 level he/she can conduct classes in English (it will be English as a Medium of Instruction) but it does not mean that he/she can teach a CLIL course as elements of special FL teacher training are necessary for exercising this task. Thirdly, students' level of English language knowledge varies greatly and rather big part of students is not ready to conceive a CLIL course at a university level.

Nevertheless, there are evidences of continuous and successful efforts of creating CLIL courses for law students. An interesting experiment was carried out at Law Faculty of Kolomna branch of Moscow Polytechnic University where a European Law course was taught in English with additional focus on acquiring technical vocabulary. 11] At Saratov State Law Academy students have an opportunity to take a facultative course "Client Consultation in English". 12] Cooperation of foreign language teachers and subject teachers and, what is even more significant, engagement of university authorities will definitely result in broader implementation of CLIL into law school curricula which is also important for creative professional development of both students and teachers. 13]

3.2 A Legal English Course Syllabus

A university course syllabus is usually developed by a relevant department in compliance with FSES requirements. And while including a CLIL course in a law school curriculum is a challenge, incorporating more tasks aimed at developing skills necessary for future students' careers into a Legal English (LE) course syllabus is an achievable goal.

Framing a skill-oriented syllabus resolves several tasks. Realizing the usefulness of a particular assignment for future professional activities increases students' motivation and enhances education quality. 14] Moreover, such skills as team working, information (in case of a FL class – text) analysis, interpersonal and cross-cultural communication are extremely important for life-long learning and provide students with instruments for future professional development. 15] These transferable skills are usually included in a FL and/or ESP (English for Specific Purposes) course but what lawyering skills can be taught within a LE course and how?

An ESP course syllabus as most FL courses is based on various topics which are as a rule introduced by texts. These topics in a LE course are connected with different branches of law which are usually presented as an overview of this branch in the English-speaking countries. While working with texts analytical skills can be developed by giving such assignments as comparing the essences of Russian law with the given one. Although a FL teacher is not able to assess

the legal constituent of students' answers it is usually classmates who object any subject matter inaccuracies and argue their own positions.

Preparing and making presentation on questionable issues of a topic fosters public speaking skills. In practice, during their studies students do not have many opportunities to practice this skill which is of primary importance for a lawyer. Performing such tasks in a foreign language strengthens and enhances communicative competence in a native language, too.

Offering students real life cases and situations for reading and further writing their summaries is the first step in writing briefs. Another domain of writing which is usually covered only at FL/LE classes is business correspondence. A typical layout of a business letter, awareness of formal/informal register, basics of records management are almost the same in different languages and mastering this skill in English improves them in Russian as well.

A FL/LE course presupposes much work in pairs or small groups. Organizing this work as simulations of lawyer-client interviews or negotiations of different issues (entering in a contract, resolving a dispute, reaching a settlement, etc.) promotes oral communication skills in the professional sphere. Within this types of work active listening skills are introduced and trained together with using different types of questions depending on the purpose of asking (to clarify or to get more information). Moreover, providing students with existing clichés and rules develops awareness of professional ethics standards.

Therefore shifting accents from reading and translation to discussions, presentations, work in pairs, etc., and putting the results of oral communication in writing gives LE teachers the opportunity to develop students' lawyering skills alongside with LE vocabulary and grammar acquisition.

4 Conclusion

Lawyering skills are of vital importance for professional success and although their mastering is a life-long process their formation should begin at a law school. Professional communicative competence is at the top of the lawyering skills list and its shaping and training is a realistic objective for LE course designers and teachers. Modern LE textbooks and internet resources provide teachers with a wide range of materials for exercising lawyer-client role-plays and negotiation simulations, organizing elements of moot courts, holding discussions, in other words, training different aspects of oral communication. Writing different types of letters habituates future lawyers to legal correspondence both with clients and colleagues while studying contract templates in English prepares students to draft contracts in two languages.

Cooperation with law teachers and CLIL ideas promotion at the university administration level will lead to development and implementation of CLIL courses for law students which will enhance the quality of LE teaching

especially in the situation of classroom hours critical deficiency and will bring teaching lawyering skills at a new level.

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MANAGING ACCULTURATION DURING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION COURSES

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Abstract. This paper is dedicated to questions arising in multidisciplinary research within the interdisciplinary field of intercultural communication, cross-cultural communication and acculturation, subjects that are becoming increasingly relevant in light of recent interest in studies relating to the multicultural world. The paper also focuses on the relationship between culture and communication. It seeks to clarify the definition of “cross-cultural communication”, and how it can be differentiated from everyday conversation, which raises the question as to what is meant by “cross-cultural” in the first place. The main objective is to give a general idea of what is acculturation and intercultural communication and why these should be studied interdisciplinarily.

Key words: Culture; Communication; Cross-cultural Communication

1 Introduction: Defining culture

There are different reasons why it is difficult to define culture. The most significant reason is because studies on culture are multifaceted, differing in theoretical frameworks, goals, methods, and data sources.

According to Kluckhohn [13: 86, 5), “culture consists of patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values.”

Hofstede [11: 21] treats culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another”. He believes that culture includes systems of values that are among the building blocks of culture. What is more, Hofstede states that “culture is to a human collectivity what personality is to an individual”. He suggests that “culture could be defined as the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group’s response to its environment”. It turns out that “culture determines the identity of a human group in the same way as personality determines the identity of an individual”. Moreover, the two interact. Psychological anthropology deals with culture and personality, measuring them by personality tests.

Attempting to explain the phenomenon of culture, Samovar and Porter [23: 12] state “we define culture as the deposit of knowledge, experience, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, notions of time, roles, spatial relations, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving.”

Knoblauch [14: 3] states that the analysis of cross-cultural communication depends on the clarification of the relationship between communication and culture. He asks whether communication is only one subordinate element of culture. If so, he continues, is cross-cultural communication only one of many paths between cultures?

Thus, culture has been defined in different ways.

Culture as human activity		Culture (different cultures)
	Culture	
Culture (subcultures)		Culture (fine arts)

Figure 1. Meanings of culture

Figure 1 shows the popular or common definitions of culture. Reynolds and Valentine [22: xiv–xvii] use a definition of culture that involves four elements:

1. *Culture is acquired.* Children learn it from their parents and community they live in.
2. *Culture is shared.* People living in one country are expected to think and behave in certain ways.
3. *Culture defines core values.* As people living together on one territory have acquired one culture and share it with each other, they form the same core values, things that are important to them.
4. *Culture resists change.* Culture can and does change, but cultural changes occur over many generations and only rarely reflect huge shifts in core values.

To conclude, there are different approaches anthropologists, sociologists and psychologists use to define culture that include a distinctive set of beliefs, values, attitudes, etc. Experts who have been working within the framework of cross-cultural communication research state that another culture, another perspective of reality, can be acquired as well as taught.

1.1 Cultural grammar

It has been a challenging task to find out what methods/tools/etc should be used for reaching a better understanding of other cultures. This has determined the directions of cross-cultural communication studies.

Hall [8] introduced the term of “cultural grammar” that enables a concrete, systematic and organized means of learning another cultures. According to his approach, if culture is learned, then this means that it can be taught. Following the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis [29] that is also known in linguistics as the “linguistic relativity hypothesis”, Hall represented the process of culture learning to be analogical to the process of language learning. If the SWH postulates a systematic relationship between the grammatical categories of the language a person speaks and how that person both understands the world and behaves in it, then cultural knowledge could be studied and acquired if there are suitable categories of cultural grammar. Thus, Hall has founded the basis of all programs that study cultures. He also began applying ethnographic methods (like observation, description, summarizing of experiences etc) in cross-cultural communication research and commenced adapting them to be used in training and academic courses. Since then close collaboration between different branches of science and an orientation towards solving practical missions have always been the basic principles of cross-cultural communication studies.

2 Defining communication

According to Samovar and Porter [23: 16] communication is “that behaviour which happens whenever meaning is attributed to behaviour or to the residue of behaviour. When someone observes our behaviour or its residue and gives meaning to it, communication has taken place regardless of whether our behavior was conscious or unconscious, intentional or unintentional”.

It is obvious that this definition does not encompass all elements of communication. As Casmir and Asuncion-Lande [2: 279] point out it is “impossible to develop one single definition or methodological approach”.

In short, communication can be defined as sending and/or receiving information both verbally and/or nonverbally (see Figure 2). A message should be transmitted and received through encoding and decoding processes. In spite of internal-external and/or semantic noises an idea and a decoded message cannot differ in a tremendous way. Otherwise communication will not be possible.

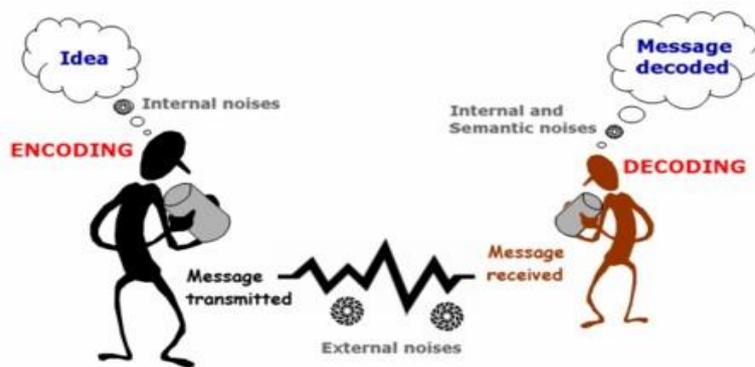


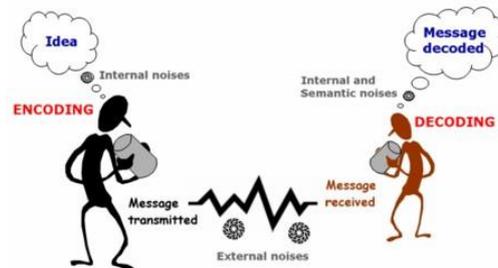
Figure 2. Classical communication model¹

If one talks about “cross-cultural” communication, then it generally refers to interactions with each other people with different cultural backgrounds, but this does not necessarily entail that they come from different countries (see Figure

3). i

impact of environment

¹ Retrieved 30th April 2018 from <http://www.vtaide.com/png/images/talking.jpg>



cultural element
 sociocultural element
 psychocultural element
 situational element

cultural element
 sociocultural element
 psychocultural element
 situational element

Figure 3. Classical cross-cultural communication model (based on Gudykunst and Kim 1984)²

Here, the decoding of a message not only involves internal/external and semantic noises but also cultural, sociocultural, psychocultural and situational elements have to be properly received and dealt with correctly. There is no doubt that the ethnography of speaking as a field of sociolinguistics concerned with the distribution of speech varieties and the context of communication fills in this gap in cross-cultural communication studies. Due to the awareness of the extent to which people are “programmed” by their own culture, interlocutors with different cultural background are able to communicate.

3 History of cross-cultural communication research

The term “cross-cultural communication” (“intercultural communication” in his terminology) was first used by Edward Hall, the American anthropologist, in 1954. Predicting the tendencies of social development towards plurilingualism and multiculturalism, Hall posited cross-cultural communication as a subject for scientific research and showed in a practical manner the possible uses of anthropological and linguistic conceptions (see [27]).

² Retrieved 30th April 2018 from <http://www.vtaide.com/png/images/talking.jpg> and modified.

In 1959 Hall wrote the book “The Silent Language” and, thus, founded the field of cross-cultural communication.

At that time cross-cultural communication as a field was studied very multidisciplinary. Looking at connections between cultures and communications, Hall tried to use both anthropological and communicative research methods. Hall’s contribution to the cross-cultural communication field is tremendous as he enlarged the prevalent monoculturally focused anthropological methods of his time to include the analysis of interaction among different cultures. He also widened the conception of culture, taking the term “communication” into account. For Hall, communication and culture are acquired structural phenomena that can be analyzed. He refused to engage in the analysis of individual cultures (that is the classical research done by anthropologists up to the present day) and turned to contrastive studies of communicative behavioral micropatterns (such as gesticulation, mimicry, proxemics etc) that arise between different cultural norms [16: 262–264]. According to Hall, one has to know certain cultural areas where the differences between interlocutors are most likely to occur in order to determine communicative disorders caused by cultural differences. In the case of Russian-Estonian communication such areas could be a perception of time (monochronic or polychronic), proxemics (use of individual space), and/or power distance (hierarchical or democratic) etc.

Such new readings of classic anthropological theses and theories were fundamentally vital for their practical use to acquire other cultures. The most important aim of cross-cultural communication is the approach to decoding other cultures, that is understanding the alien at first glance. The main question of cross-cultural communication research has been what tools could be used in better insight of other cultures. Every scholar tries to answer this and it naturally influences his/her approach to research on cross-cultural communication matters.

4 Multidisciplinary development of the field

Bringing out clearly that culture and communication are connected with each other, Hall worked on a broad spectrum of study questions in the cross-cultural communication field, taking several research disciplines into account. Notwithstanding that the foundations of cross-cultural communication were laid by a cultural anthropologist, cultural anthropology as a field has not cooperated with it since then. Instead, communication sciences took Hall’s principles and put them into practice in university curriculums, student books, scientific projects, publications, conferences and associations [20,1, 7: 7–9). During the following period cross-cultural communication in fact became a part of communication science as a whole, where it received very important influences

from psychology (especially cross-cultural psychology) and theoretical maturity [4,5]. Later some attempts were made to attract cultural-anthropological theories and methods for the further development of the field. Gudykunst suggested that using qualitative methods could enhance these methods in a more effective way [6: 231; 16: 278).

Foreign language didactics showed some interest towards cross-cultural communication in the end of 1970s. This was caused by the growing role of regional geography in language learning and teaching [3; 28]. Starting from cross-cultural communication theory a new conception of language didactics [21,9] was built on the verbal elements of cross-cultural interactions and on the problems of understanding meaning [18, 19]. Taking into account the understanding of working life values [10], psychology has contributed to her input to cross-cultural communication development, studying perception, identity, subjective perception of international contacts and also looking for “cultural standards” [24, 25, 26]. The interest of ethnopedagogics, ethnology, cross-cultural didactics [15] and economics [12] towards cross-cultural communication was caused by practical needs – growing floods of migration, European multiculturalism, etc.

In the 1980s, cross-cultural communication research has developed new target groups and new challenges due to the process of globalization. Hofstede has had an enormous influence on the research tradition in cross-cultural communication. In his book *Culture's Consequences* [10], Hofstede investigated the relationships between employees and managements in forty different cultures, considering his own research an exploration into new territory. As he proposed, “the territory that lies between the various rather neatly defined disciplines of the sciences of man: anthropology, sociology, psychology, economics, political science, law, and medicine” [11: 278]. Based on the perspective of nations as homogeneous static societies, Hofstede developed four dimensions: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism / Collectivism, and Masculinity / Femininity (see Appendix). He used two questionnaires: the first one was a Values Survey Module and the second one concerned personal experience of informants. As Hofstede [11: 279] states, the analysis of differences in national cultures should be complemented with a further differentiation of regional, ethnic, occupational, and organizational subcultures. Of course this cannot be done without the help of other sciences – religious history, history, social geography etc.

5 Cross-Cultural Communication: From Multidisciplinary Research to Interdisciplinary Field

Hofstede [11: 26] proposes that cross-cultural studies need a systematic approach, by which he means that any element of the total system called

“culture” should be eligible for analysis, involving a discipline that usually deals with these kinds of elements. From the very beginning studies on culture and communication were multidisciplinary [17: 28]. The central disciplines have been cultural anthropology, psychology and linguistics. Later communicative studies supplemented the theoretical bias of cross-cultural communication research.

I am convinced that cross-cultural communication must be studied from different angles using approaches, and addressing different aspects of cross-cultural communication from linguistics to psychology, from anthropology to sociology, and naturally taking cultural studies into account.

According to Hofstede [11: 26] cross-cultural studies presuppose a systems approach, in which the disciplines of psychology (particularly cross-cultural psychology), sociology (organization sociology in particular), anthropology, political sciences, economics, geography, history, comparative law and medicine, international market research should be involved. I would add to this list the study of linguistics and especially sociolinguistics. It is a well known fact that language is both the vehicle of cross-cultural research and part of its symbolic body [11: 27].

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE TUTORING SOCIAL DYNAMICS IN ACTION

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Abstract. Recently, conversation-based foreign language tutorials have been generally perceived by educators as an invaluable component of foreign language learning due to increased speaking opportunities for students in more naturalistic contexts (e.g. Back, 2016; McCafferty, 2002). Yet educators often lack an opportunity to have a closer look at how such tutorials unfold. In the present study, I examine the informal conversation in Russian between an L1 Russian tutor and four L1 English students, which had been characterized by its participants as a successful one. I use the sociocultural theory framework (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) to conceptualize the conversation-based tutorials as *collaborative conversations-for-learning*, or meaningful dialogues, in which students and tutors participate for the purposes of mutual knowledge co-construction and language learning within the student zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978).

Micro-discourse analysis of two excerpts from a 50-minute tutoring session demonstrates the unfolding social dynamics of a tutorial oriented to by participants as a successful student-led informal session. In the analyzed fragments, participants demonstrate their mutual orientation toward each other's situated identities as a circle of friends with students initiating the majority of sequences. At the same time, their tutor minimizes her verbal involvement to non-existent promoting a student-led interaction through her non-verbal behavior. I argue that the frequent appearance of student-initiated events termed as "laughables," or "speech-laugh" (Ford & Fox, 2010), throughout the session ensures continued attention and thus contributes to student engagement and learning (van Lier, 1996).

1 Introduction

This article focuses on analysis of two representative cases of collaborative dialogue between a tutor and four students in small-group tutoring. The dialogue in this particular tutoring session is very informal and free-flow. According to the Russian Flagship Program (RFP) policy, students in tutoring are expected to take a leading role in the dialogue by initiating new topics and negotiating grammatical or lexical items to be discussed. However, the close analysis of the interviews with tutors revealed their general concern with students' lack of enthusiasm in taking the lead. In their narratives, tutors often emphasized how, despite their attempts to encourage student-led interactions, students preferred taking a passive role in conversation by answering questions. In turn, learners confirmed that oftentimes they feel more comfortable with tutors planning and leading the sessions, though most of the time they acknowledged the benefits of being in charge of their own learning process. These results led to the main research question of the present article: *How are student and tutor beliefs on various aspects of tutoring sessions exemplified in tutoring session interaction, if at all? Is there evidence that beliefs and interactional practices differ?* Particularly, the 50-minute session under scrutiny demonstrates how an "invisible" mediation by the tutor, together with students' active participation, creates an environment conducive to FL learning.

2 Small-Group Tutoring Social Dynamics in Action

In their narrative accounts, Tutor 8 and Students 11, 13, 14, and 15³ commented on the complex social dynamics of their small-group tutorial. While Student 15 described all four student participants of the tutorial (S11, S13, S14, and S15) as good friends, Student 11 commented that sometimes she would feel

³ The data for the article is taken from a larger study

disappointed that she could not participate an ongoing conversation, as the topic would be well-known to the other three students but not to her. Throughout the interview, Student 11 mostly referred to the other three students as one group, while setting off the group actions against her own conduct as, for instance, in the passage below. There, Student 11 describes the gradual shift of the focus of the small-group tutorials from an article of interest to informal conversations, or from being more object-regulated to being more other-regulated during the semester:

We started the semester where we would pick a topic or Tutor 8 would send like a short reading to do and then we would discuss that but I tended to be *the only person* who would read- prepare things beforehand, so uh now it's kind of a conversation and Tutor 8 would just listen and then we have questions on-maybe there is like a topic, she'll do some words or word association. So it has become less focused cause *the other three* don't really you know prepare ahead of time so I find it a little frustrating group tutoring personally (italics added).

Reflecting on the reasons of that tutoring sessions become less focused on a particular theme, Student 11 gave a unified characteristic to all three other students in the group as constantly showing up unprepared. She continued to position herself against the rest of the group in terms of being more proactive and more talkative, although less confident grammar-wise, as the other three students took an intensive Russian course in the summer while she took a year off:

I tend to talk a lot and *other people* don't so I feel like I am the only one talking or like we don't really address grammar because they were obviously- in summer they were just here doing second year so they hadn't had a year off in terms of grammar so the things that I would maybe like to review I feel bad bringing up in the group setting 'cause everyone already knows it here (Student 11).

In the recorded session, in alignment with her narrative account, Student 11 takes an active position by initiating the most topics in comparison with the other three students and by demonstrating her participation in most interactions if not verbally, then at least through gesture and posture. At the same time, Student 13 revealed that due to her quieter personality it has been more challenging for her to participate in small-group discussions: *I'm kind of shy I guess and I don't always like asserting my opinion or whatever in groups*. However, she emphasized the benefits of the group tutoring due to the opportunity to participate in more informal conversations and to be exposed to peer talk. Among the group participants, Student 14 stands out as the one with comparatively low self-assessment of speaking proficiency (Intermediate Low-Mid, while others reported being Intermediate-Mid or Intermediate). Thus, he

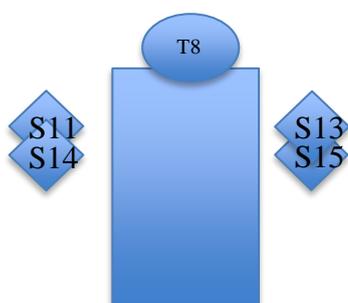
perceives group tutoring to be less stressful: *Since there's more of us and it the conversation] changes directions more cause in one-on-one she the tutor] just focused on me versus in one where there's four of us it kind of just switches to whoever is the most um not like excited but involved or invested in the conversation.* Moreover, Student 14 commented on his appreciation of the group tutoring being less formal with less perceived social distance between participants due to their long-term friendship. Notably, he includes Tutor 8 in the circle of equal conversation partners:

S14: I've been with Student 15 every single semester since last fall and I've been with Student 13 every but one, and then Student 11- I just started with her this year so like we all know each other pretty well. Then also with Tutor 8 we try to drag things back at her, when we are talking about family we ask her too.

The close analysis of the tutorial interactions revealed Student 14's proactive stance due to his frequent self-selections as the next speaker and multiple initiations of laughables (see below for a more detailed analysis of laughables). Finally, Tutor 8 commented favorably on her teaching experience in a tutoring setting in comparison with formal classes because of a more relaxed, informal atmosphere conducive to open and free conversations: *I think we are more relaxed in tutoring] so we are not afraid to tell each other what we think, so and students aren't afraid to tell directly what they think.*

Summarizing the beliefs of Student 11, Student 13, Student 14, and Tutor 8 regarding the social dynamics of their group tutoring, it is worth emphasizing that the tutor as well as the three of the students unanimously pointed out the positive outcomes of more informal tutorials, with students leading the conversation and the tutor attending to their errors at the end of the session. Student 11 revealed being less satisfied with free-flow sessions, though she also noted the usefulness of the tutor's corrections and language-oriented explanations. The data from the recorded session revealed that students indeed perceive themselves to be members of a close circle of friends and strongly oriented toward leading the session. Tutor 8 maintained the role of a conversation facilitator rather than a micro-manager. As a result, the positively perceived tutorial settings proved to be conducive to the learners' L2 knowledge development. Below, I examine two particularly salient episodes of the tutorial, where the above themes are reflected in talk-in-interaction practices.

Figure 1. Participants' seating arrangement.



The primarily student-driven co-construction of talk-in-interaction, as well as their orientation to each other as a tight circle of friends, can be seen in the following fragment, “Secret,” which is taken from a videorecorded conversation-based 50-minute session with Tutor 8 and four students (S11, S13, S14, S15). The participants’ seating arrangement is displayed in Figure 1. Unlike the setting in the previously described episodes, students do not have any learning props, such as laptops, notebooks, or pens, in front of them, except for Student 14, who holds a pencil, which he uses as a pointing device throughout the session. The tutor has a pen and a piece of paper in front of her.

Transcript 1. “Secret”

5:15-5:39

1 S11: Ja tolko xotela uh::m skazat’ ((shifts gaze from the table to S13 and then to S15 accompanying it with a hand circular gesture as if unifying S13 and S15))

I only wanted to say
I just wanted to ask

2 chto vy delali v vyxodny?je/
what you did in w] weekend
what did you do over the weekend?

3 (1.2) (T8 nods and turns to S13 and S15)

4 ((S13 turns to S15; S15 looks at T8; S14 points his pen to S13; S11& T8 turn to S14))

5 S14: uhm (S14 keeps pointing his pen to S13; all others turn to S14)

6 S14: ☺ dve nedeli nazad ((keeps his gaze at S13))

two weeks ago
two weeks ago

7 S13:HHH ((smiles, widens her eyes, turns her gaze away from S14))

8 S14: ty:: spala-
you slept

you slept

9 S13: ☺↑MY:: sn'aem ☺film sej↓cha::s
we record w] film now
we're recording a film now

(S11 points her index finger to the camera; all others look at S13; S14 smiles)

10 ne mogu (.2) mozhem govorit'
I cannot can talk
we cannot talk about

11 T8: ↑hu:h huh **(shifts gaze from S13 to S14)**

12 S13: sekrety huh huh
secrets
our secrets

13 T8: huh huh huh huh

14 S14: hhhuh HUH ↑HHUH huh huh ja zaby] huh huh huh

15 S13: huh huh ↑↑HUH HUH HUH

16 S11: huh huh

The excerpt opens with Student 11 initiating a new topic by asking one of the regular warm-up questions to the fellow participants about their weekend. As I mentioned earlier, the study videorecorded data reveal that students rarely initiate new topics. At the same time, such initiations, when they are supported by tutors by minimizing their own initiations, signal participants' mutual orientation toward symmetrical contributions to the interaction, which promotes a higher degree of genuine engagement on the part of students in ongoing conversation (van Lier, 1996). Student 11 starts her TCU in line 1 and completes it at the end of line 2, providing an occasion for a transition to another speaker at the gap after the TRP in line 3, a place where the addressee might respond. In CA, the initiating action speaker's gaze direction is treated as resource for next speaker selection (Lerner, 2003). Thus, while vocalizing her question in line 1, Student 11 selects Student 13 and Student 15 as the next possible speakers using her circular gesture and her gaze, according to the turn-allocation set of rules within the turn-organizational model (Sacks et al., 1974). However, neither of the selected students expresses their willingness to speak. Instead, both of them attempt to reassign the role of next speaker: Student 13 turns to and gazes directly at Student 15, while Student 15 looks at Tutor 8. Thus, as none of the selected next speakers starts, any other interlocutor may "self-select." The extended pause in line 3 might be interpreted by the fact that "non-selected"

speakers (Student 14 and Tutor 8) projected Student 13's or Student 14's response and held off in order to give either of them floor. Indeed, Tutor 8 non-verbally "supports" Student 13's choice of the next speakers by nodding and looking at Student 13 and Student 15. However, given Student 13 and Student 15's visible dispreferred orientation to the completion of the sequence with a response (Pomerantz & Heritage, 2013), Student 14 "self-selects." He starts his response in line 5 by producing the token "uhm," which indicates his claim to launch a turn. Despite noticing the gaze directed at her by Student 15 in line 4, Tutor 8 remains silent and participates in the interactions only through her multimodal resources, thus encouraging students' active involvement in interaction.

While producing the first part of his TCU in line 6 "dve nedeli nazad/two weeks ago," Student 14 uses smile voice, which is characterized by hearable spread lips due to the raised first formant (for detailed discussion of smile voice see Ford & Fox, 2010). This indicates Student 14's possible initiation of a laughable, or a turn "produced with possibly laugh-relevant sounds and/or bodily displays," which "must be responded to with laugh-relevant sounds or bodily displays" (Ford & Fox, 2010, p. 340). At the same time, his pointing and direct gaze at Student 13 indicates that she may be the subject of his response. In response, Student 13 inhales audibly, widens her eyes and takes her gaze away from Student 14. This non-verbal behavior indicates her possible dispreferred orientation to continuing the topic. Student 13's turn in line 9 overlaps with Student 11's turn. This action of Student 13 can be characterized as an attempt at a deliberate interruption. Student 13's turn is emotional, which is evident due to her increased loudness, prolonged vowels, and sharp modulations in pitch in line 9. Her prosody goes back to normal in lines 10 and 12 as she starts constructing another laughable "ne mogu mozhem govorit' sekrety/we can't talk about our secrets," while others display their willingness to be involved in the laughable event by showing their preferred orientation through mutual gazes, laughs, and smiles in lines 13-16. By using of the word "secret" here, Student 13 separates tutorial participants from the rest of the possible audience. Her utterance implies that she would have discussed the event with others, but the presence of the camera makes it impossible. Others display their engagement and preferred orientation by participating in laughter, initiated by Tutor 8 in line 11. These in-unison responses from the group correspond to their shared belief expressed in the interviews that the social distance between them is much smaller than in a regular formal classroom. Remarkably, Student 15 remains the least engaged throughout the excerpt; she does not partake in the final loud outburst of laughter that is performed by all other participants.

To summarize, the excerpt demonstrates the unfolding social dynamics

of a tutorial oriented to by participants as a successful student-led informal session. In this fragment, Student 11, Student 13, and Student 14 initiate sequences. At the same time, Tutor 8 minimizes her verbal involvement to non-existent, while remaining actively involved and alert, which she demonstrates through her non-verbal behavior. Additionally, participants demonstrate their mutual orientation toward each other's situated identities as a circle of friends who are close enough to discuss stories and anecdotes with each other that are not to be shared with the audience behind the camera. The frequent appearance of student-initiated events termed as "laughables," or "speech-laugh," or "possibly laugh relevant (PLR)" (Ford & Fox, 2010), throughout the session ensures continued attention and thus contributes to student engagement and learning (van Lier, 1996). The first two such events appeared in lines 6-16 of the above-analyzed excerpt. Below, I analyze the genesis and the outcome of more laughable events in the fragment "The Cat."

Following the fragment "Secret," for the next seven minutes of the tutorial, all students take turns telling about their weekend. Then Student 13 reveals that she has been looking for a new apartment together with Student 15, but they are having difficulties because Student 13 has a cat that becomes the next conversation topic.

Transcript 2. "The Cat"

12:15-14:03

- 1 S14: Mozhet byt' ((**sharp throwing hand gesture, gaze shift from S13 to the distance**)
 maybe
maybe)
- 2 v sledujshchem godu ((**circular movement of the right hand pointing to S13 and S15**)
 in next year
next year)
- 3 u vas budet uh budut (**gaze shift to S13**) prikl'uche,nija/ (**smiles**)
 by you will w] will be adventures
you'll have adventures)
- 4 (1.2)
- 5 (**S11 turns her head from S14 to S13; T8 moves her gaze from S14 to S13**)
- 6 S13: chto? (**question look at S14**) what?
what?)
- 7 S14: v novoj kvartire/
 in new apartment
in your new apartment)

- 8 (2.1)
- 9 S13: ja ne ponimaju./(looks at S11)
I don't understand
- 10 S14: prikluche?nija/
adventures
adventures
- 11 S11: °ja tozhe° (starts getting her bottle of water from under the table)
I too
me neither
- 12 T8: prikl'uchenija *adventure?* (T8 and S13 look at each other)
adventure
- 13 S13: *adventure?*
- 14 T8: mmhmm
- 15 S13: ↑a:h hh (turns from T8 back to S14, nods several times and smiles;
S11, S14, T8 look at S13 and smile; S15 looks at S11)
- 16 da:./ potomu chto on (0.2) /uhm / PFFF /(1.0) kak skazat' *destroy?*
(looks at S11)
yes because he how to say
That's right. It's because he ... how to say it?
- 17 T8: on uhh ((circular movement of both hands)) ☺ra:zru:SHA::ET huh
huh huh
he destroys
- 18 S13: on sejchas ra:zrusha?jet moju kvartiru:./
he now destroys my apartment
he's been destroying my apartment
- 19 T8: huh huh ↑huh
- 20 (S11, S14, T8 look at S13 and smile; S15 looks down)
- 21 S13: °i: ↓da.° ((looks at S11 then at S14)
and yes
- 22 T8: chto on delaet./
what he does
what has he been doing?
- 23 S13: ↑o:n razrushil tru?bi/ (.2) v kvarti,re/ uhm/ na nih byl *insulation?*
he destroyed pipes in apartment on them was
*he destroyed the heating] pipes in the apartment. They were covered
with insulation*
- 24 T8: .ahh huhuh
- 25 S14: huh

- 26 S11: huh
- 27 S13: i o:n (scratches the air with both hands) kru? (repeats the scratching gesture and looks at T8)
 and he kru w]
and then he probably an incorrect form of "scratched"]
- 28 T8: ca↓ra:pa:l./ ((scratches the air with both hands)) mhm
 scratched
scratched
- 29 S13: cara?pal/
 scratched
scratched?
- 30 T8: carapal./ eto scratch?/ mhm/ da/ (gets up, approaches the whiteboard and starts writing)
- 31 scratched/ it yes
scratched. It is to scratch, right
- 32 carapat' / pocarapal c po/ da?/ kogda uzh sovershil/ po::carapal/
 ((keeps writing))
 scratch scratch with po- yes when PRT completed scratched
to scratch, scratched, with prefix po- when you've completed the action then "to scratch"
- 33 uuhm tru:.,by/ ((turns to the students)) mmhmm ((nods))
 pipes
pipes
- 34 S13: da,/ (nods) i kovjor/
 yes and rug
yes, and the rug as well
- 35 T8: mebel' vsju da? huh huh huh
 furniture all yes
all the furniture, right?
- 36 S13: da huh huh
 yes
yes
- 37 T8: mhhh::m/ (comes back to her seat)
- 38 S14: Kogda-nibud' on byl v drugoj kvarti?re/ (.2) ili v dome/
 sometime he was in another apartment or in house
has he even been to another apartment or a house?
- 39 S13: on, (.2)/ my (.2)/ u:./ um/ my vz'a?li ego:/ (turns to T8)
 he we by we took him
he- we- we took him

40 T8: mhm (**nods two times**)
 41 S13: >v *Humane Society*</
 in *Humane Society*
 we took him] from the Humane Society
 42 (0.5) (**T8, S11, S14 nod**)
 43 i: do:: etogo on zhil v lesu:,
 and before that he lived in forest
 and before that he used to live in the woods
 44 T8: oh
 45 S13: da (**nods**)/ °on° *feral* (**nods several times**)
 yes he *feral*
 yes, he is feral

The excerpt starts with Student 14's comment that Student 13 and Student 15 will have many "adventures" in their new apartment, which I argue is the initial construction of "a laughable." The sequential context of the turn – the previous instances involving participants sharing laughables, as well as Student 14's visible smile in line 3 – contribute to the TCU's interpretability as a laughable (Glenn, 2003). Student 14 humorously describes a busy and worrisome future of Student 13 and Student 15 with an incongruent word "adventure" implying a mutually known piece of information that the cat has been damaging things. The presence of incongruity has been defined by researchers as one of the central characteristics of humor in conversation (Ford & Fox, 2010; Glenn, 2003; Glenn & Holt, 2017). This attempt of Student 14 to make a joke is remarkable as, for the second time, he relies on the knowledge about Student 13 that was acquired outside of the classroom due to the fact that they are close friends. Eventually this initial action is taken up by the recipient, Student 13, with displays of laughter in line 15, though the reaction is delayed as both Student 13 and Student 11 display through their actions that the word "adventure" is initially unknown to them. Compare Student 13's and Student 11's direct acknowledgements of their lack of understanding in lines 6, 9, and 11 ("what?" "I don't understand," "me neither"). Interestingly, while admitting her lack of understanding, Student 13 invites Student 11 rather than Tutor 8 to partake in the sequence, which indicates her strong orientation to student-led activity. Student 11's response embodies an alignment with the first adjacency pair part (Schegloff, 2007) as Student 13 echoes Student 11 that she does not understand Student 14's utterance either (line 11). However, the utterance's decreased volume and the gaze aversion allows us to characterize her turn as a dispreferred response. Kendrick and Holler (2017) statistically prove that among other functions, gaze direction signals the response preference; more specifically, gaze aversion indicates dispreferred responses, which, I argue, is

the case in this fragment due to Student 11's possible feeling of discomfort from being forced to admit her lack of knowledge. Therefore, Tutor 8 initiates a repair in line 12 by providing the translation of the word used by Student 14 into English, which results in an overlap with the preceding utterance by Student 11. Having reconfirmed with Tutor 8 her correct understanding of the word in lines 13 and 14, Student 15 completes the laughable in line 15 with an exclamation "ahh," smiles and reverts her gaze back to Student 14. Interestingly, while choosing the next speaker by looking at them, students who are actively engaged in the conversation avoid involving Tutor 8 by not looking at her. For example, in line 21, while the prosodic characteristics of the utterance "and yes" – namely the falling intonation, falling pitch, and a sound stretch – signify the opening of TRP (Schegloff, 1987), Student 13 invites Student 11 or Student 14 to continue the sequence by looking at them. However, both remain silent and avoid looking back at Student 13; thus Tutor 8 initiates a new sequence in line 22, "What has he been doing?" This tactic of the tutor proves to be effective for sustaining the informality and naturalness of the conversation without "letting it die."

The second laughable is initiated by Student 13, and co-constructed through the mediation by Tutor 8 and co-participation of Student 11 and Student 14 in lines 16-20:

Transcript 3. Laughables

16 S13: da:./ potomu chto on (0.2) /uhm / PFFF /(1.0) kak skazat' destroy? (looks at S11)

yes because he how to say
That's right. It's because he... how to say it?

17 T8: on uhh (circular movement of both hands) ☺ra:zru:SHA::ET huh
huh huh

he destroys
18 S13: on sejchas ra:zrusha?jet moju kvartiru:./
he now destroys my apartment
he's been destroying my apartment

19 T8: huh huh ↑huh
20 (S11, S14, T8 look at S13 and smile; S15 looks down)
<...>

23 S13: ↑o:n razrushil tru?bi/ (.2) v kvarti,re/ uhm/ na nih byl insulation?
he destroyed pipes in apartment on them was
he destroyed the heating] pipes in the apartment. They were covered
with insulation

24 T8: .ahh huhuh
25 S14: huh

In line 16, Student 13 attempts to employ exaggeration as another characteristic of humor-oriented turns, together with incongruity (Ford & Fox, 2010). However, she lacks the appropriate lexicon; therefore, she initiates other-repair through a metalinguistic question (how to say “destroy”). Tutor 8 provides the translation and displays her intention to be involved in the co-construction of a laughable by employing speech-laugh, smiles, loudness modulations, and laughter tokens (lines 17, 19, and 20). Having acquired all the recourses necessary to tell a joke, Student 13 delivers it with a poker-face to enhance the effect. All the group participants react in line 20 by smiling, though the reaction is rather reserved, with Student 15 displaying misalignment with the whole group by looking down. The delivery of the joke was delayed and therefore, the effect was “spoiled” by repair activity in lines 16-17. Consequently, Student 13 chooses to code-switch instead of inquiring about a translation of the word in line 23 in order to construct a humorous sentence about her cat scratching the insulation. Her turn is followed by Tutor 8’s, Student 11’s, and Student 14’s enthusiastic laughter (lines 24, 25, 26), which indicates a much better reception of her joke. In line 27, Student 13 initiates other-repair by looking at Tutor 8, asking for her input in situation similar to the episode involving the Russian equivalent for “destroy” (line 16), though this time Student 13 minimizes her use meta-language by omitting the typical expression “how to say in Russian,” which she had employed previously. Instead, she just describes the word by employing a scratching gesture and looks questioningly at Tutor 8. In lines 27 and 28, Tutor 8 mirrors Student 13’s gestures supporting intersubjectivity; however, she sacrifices the flow of the story for the sake of grammar by going up to the whiteboard and taking the time to write down the word in question and its aspectual paradigm. Remarkably, the fragment contains multiple instances of L2 lexicon learning through mediation. In line 1, Student 14 uses the “throwing” gesture that helps him produce the word “next” capturing the future-related semantics of the word (McCafferty, 2002). With the help of Tutor 8, students learn the word “adventure,” which allows them to participate in a laughable event. Finally, Student 13 learns and successfully modulates the verb “to destroy” in lines 18 and 23. As learning instances accumulate in the relatively short duration of this fragment (less than two minutes), eventually, Student 13 chooses to code-switch instead of asking for a translation in lines 23, 41, and 45.

Transcript 4. Code-Switching

39 S13: on, (.2)/ my (.2)/ u:./ um/ my vz'a?li ego:/ (**turns to T8**)
 he we by we took him
 he- we- we took him
 40 T8: mhm(**nods two times**)

41 S13: >v *Humane Society*</
 in *Humane Society*
 we took him] from the Humane Society
 42 (0.5) (T8, S11, S14 nod)
 43 i: do:: etogo on zhil v lesu:,
 and before that he lived in forest
 and before that he used to live in the woods
 44 T8: oh
 45 S13: da ((nods))/ °on° *feral* (nods several times)
 yes he *feral*
 yes, he is feral

In line 39, Student 13 uses rising intonation and turns to Tutor 8, inviting the tutor to provide a repair in case she made a grammatical error. As a response, Tutor 8 produces “mhm” (line 40), which may be interpreted as an acknowledgement token, confirming that the sentence is grammatically correct. Tutor 8’s nod may be additionally interpreted as a continuer, or an “indicator that a recipient of speech understands that an extended unit of talk is in progress and should continue” (Schegloff, 1987, p. 106). While continuing her multi-unit TCU in line 41, Student 13 code-switches (*Humane Society*), pronouncing the English noun phrase faster than her Russian utterances and with a regular versus questioning intonation. As a result, other participants demonstrate an alignment-producing “preferred” response in the form of another continuer/acknowledgment token, or a nod (line 42). Throughout the fragment, invited mediation by Tutor 8 in lines 17, 28, and 30-32 becomes exponentially lengthier and more extensive. Conversely, Student 31’s orientation towards metalinguistic analysis is gradually replaced by her strong orientation toward the content of the conversation. Such turn-taking practice is typical for L2 learning environments and signifies learners’ attention to the form together with the genuine interest and deeper involvement in the conversation topic. By alternating the tactic of interrupting the flow of the story with lexical inquiries and code-switching in her turns throughout the fragment, Student 13 constantly negotiates between her identity as a fun friend and her equally strong identity as a skillful target language speaker (Achugar, 2009).

In this excerpt, Student 15 remains visibly distant from the conversation. Other participants do not attend to such behavior. The situation where one of the students in small-group tutoring does not actively participate in the ongoing conversation is typical for the research data. Normally, other students in the group tend to avoid addressing the non-participating student. Moreover, tutors do not attempt to involve such students in the conversation by addressing questions directly at them. Such a collective attitude is commented

upon as one of the positive aspects of small-group tutoring by many students. Learners do not feel extra pressure as in class and have a rare opportunity to choose the appropriate moment for initiating their participation in a conversation. Neither Student 15 nor the other participants reflected on her passive behavior at the beginning of the session. Throughout the tutorial, Student 15 gradually became more involved in the conversation-for-learning, especially in instances directly related to her, such as a discussion of an upcoming visit of her sister or the problems with her parents' pool.

To summarize, the main feature of the episode of ongoing conversation-for-learning analyzed above is its participants' orientation toward perceiving each other's situated identities as equal conversation partners, including the tutor. The RFP tutoring curriculum aims to promote an informal conversation, which is in line with the general goals and objectives of students and tutors. Thus, for the educators focusing on conversation practice, it might be worth trying to mitigate the unavoidable social tensions between novices and experts. The main technique of Tutor 8 of facilitating and supporting content-oriented conversation with minimal verbal participation but the display of maximum involvement with the help of multimodal resources during the conversation, as well attending to major grammar issues at the end of the session, proved to be fruitful as evident from phenomenological and micro-discourse analyses. It might be fruitful in terms of improved socializing practices trying to conduct some learning sessions with minimal or no typical objects associated with the L2 study process, such as computers, dictionaries, or notebooks. The analysis of the present study data reveals strong reliance on and orientation toward a laptop screen when the latter is present, which leads towards more frequent breaks in the carefully co-constructed delicate intersubjectivity. Another suggestion for maintaining the delicate structure of informal conversation could be connected with transcending the existing institutional boundaries of tutorials. Specifically, in order to lessen the connection with institution-imposed identities of a teacher and students and vice versa, to strengthen the identity of socially equal conversation partners, or friends, the tutorials might be physically moved to various locations unrelated to the institutional setting, for example, outside or to cafés.

3 Conclusion

In this article, for the purposes of a deeper understanding of participants' orientations toward tutorials and the consequent outcomes, I examined the two excerpts taken from a small-group tutorial with four students and one tutor. Drawing on sociocultural theory, van Lier, cited earlier, argued that contingency is essential for promoting L2 acquisition through social interaction. Thus, I argued for the need for additional pedagogical training of

world language tutors that would address certain techniques eliciting learner agency within the organic dynamics of collaborative dialogue. This question concerns a larger issue of perceived social statuses and co-constructed participant situated identities. Therefore, in this article I discussed how the carefully co-constructed social status equality of the conversation partners serves as a positive factor to promote conversation and students' L2 development.

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HEALTH CARE INTERPRETING: CASE STUDY OF SPAIN AND RUSSIA

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Abstract. The paper analyzes provision of interpreting services in the health care settings for people with limited official language proficiency in Russia and Spain. Special emphasis is laid on issues of health care interpreters' professional training to deal with cultural, as well as language barriers in interpreter-mediated communication in health care domain. The **aim of the research** is to identify interpreter's competencies relevant for enhancing the effectiveness of doctor-patient communication through studying the existing practices in ensuring access to health care services in both countries for people with no or very little command of the host country's official language. The paper also aims at analyzing existing practices of medical interpreters' professional training implemented in the countries under study and to identify trajectories for their further development in line with current society needs. **The research methodology** applies qualitative and quantitative methods as well as methods of empirical experiment and statistical analysis. The experiment involved 50 students doing pre-thesis interpreting internship within the framework of master degree programs on interpreting in specialized contexts. **The research findings** obtained through surveys of students suggest that linguistic and interpreting competences alone are not sufficient enough to ensure effective interpreter assisted communication. Besides knowledge of field related terminology, medical interpreter has to act as lingua cultural mediator, master communication skills, be able to integrate and work in a team, remaining at the same time within the boundaries of the professional role.

Key words: public service interpreting, health care setting, limited official language proficiency, linguistic and cultural barriers, interpreter's training

1. Introduction

The rapidly developing processes of globalization have had a strong impact on the migration of the population, its patterns and structure. Migration and

social mobility are an integral part of life and development of modern society. In this regard, public services in developed countries have to adapt their activities to new conditions and develop new strategies of dealing with different ethnic groups of the population. Though Russia and Spain have always been multicultural countries, they are currently facing a number of problems related to migration processes that are enhancing linguistic and cultural diversity.

It is well understood that countries targeted by immigrants have developed or developing their own strategies in dealing with matters of ensuring access to health care services for people with limited official language proficiency. Various practices which are determined by the current demographic and social situation as well as the nature and structure of migration are being implemented. The aim of the article is to analyze and compare existing practices in ensuring access to health care services for persons with limited official language proficiency in Spain and Russia, as well as to develop recommendations concerning perspectives of medical interpreters' professional training on the bases of the experiment.

Spain and Russia were chosen for the analysis as they are both originally multinational and have long standing traditions and strategies of dealing with multilingualism in various social spheres; but due to contemporary situation with migration on global scale both countries are facing similar challenges of addressing the linguistic needs of people with limited official language proficiency specifically within the health care domain.

2. Methodology

The research methodology rests on both qualitative method including various methods of collecting, analyzing and interpreting the data, quantitative analysis when reporting the data obtained through survey, interviews and direct observations, as well as on method of empirical experiment. The methods of statistical analysis and specific theoretical perspectives were also used in the paper in analyzing and explaining the obtained research findings. The experiment involved 50 students doing the interpreting pre-theses internship in international medical institutions of Moscow

3. Review of Literature

Healthcare interpreting as a specific field of professional practice within Public Service Interpreting domain is a multifaceted phenomenon which has been an object of many aspect-specific researches.

Doctor – patient communication is one of the central issues within health care domain analyzed from various angles. Specificity of doctor-patient communication mediated by an interpreter is developed in Rosenberg B. [11]. As healthcare interpreting takes place in institutional setting it automatically entails issue of power balance in doctor – patient communication. There are

researches [4] the results of which indicate that due to the influence of institutional contexts interpreters tend more to take sides with medical professionals, rather than advocate for patients' rights. In view of this, mention should be made of the work that underlines the need to recognize the official status of an intercultural mediator and to consolidate its role at the legislative level [12, 1, 3].

Research literature also covers such specific aspects as risks associated with interpreter's mediation [9,5]. The use of so called ad hock interpreters or family members in medical settings potentially involves risk of ineffective or even miscommunication [10]. Medical interpreter working in health care setting takes more than one role in communication unlike court interpreter who is expected to adhere strictly to "conduit" model [9,7]. In the course of communication, the interpreter can also adopt various communicative goals such as obtaining correct medical history of the patient, being doctor's aid, or patient's advocate [6]. It is highlighted that the ability of the interpreter to adopt a specific communicative goal to ensure effectiveness of medical-related communication and consequently to enhance the quality of health care services' provision.

Since communication in health care setting sometimes involves sensitive issues, these issues tend to become even more sensitive in interpreter mediated communication. A number of researches have been undertaken into cultural barriers that impact doctor – patient communication [6].

4. Current situation

In the last decades, the profile of the Spanish population has changed significantly. If in 1998 the foreign population in relation to the indigenous population was 1.6%, according to the statistics for 2017 this indicator has risen up to 11.2%. Concerning the structure of migration in Spain the following can be said in conformity with the data provided by the National Institute of Statistics of Spain (NISS): slightly less than half of all immigrants come from European countries, while the main countries of origin of migrants are Romania, Morocco, Britain, Italy and China. Here, of course, we should distinguish between so called "economic migration", those groups of people who come from countries with emerging economies in search of better life or means of supporting their families back at homeland and "social immigration", foreigners with high incomes, who mostly belong to the European culture (Britain and Italy, to a lesser extent other European countries, comprise almost 40% of the total number of foreigners residing in Spain).

Needless to say that the main problem for health care institutions in Spain in terms of linguistic is caused by economic migrants. Thus, according to NISS, in 2016 the proportion of immigrants from Africa amounted 1.048. million people (23%) of the total number of foreigners (4.618 million) with almost 1 million

stateless persons. It is this group of people that first and foremost faces the problems of linguistic and cultural barriers that make it difficult for them access to health care services. Public services, including health care institutions, have to respond to the language needs of people with limited official language proficiency, developing new approaches to solving these problems through suggesting the ways of effective work organization of the relevant structures in the context of intercultural multilingual communication. According to a research conducted in the emergency care department of Rafael Méndez Lorca Hospital of the Autonomous Community of Murcia, almost 90% of the surveyed informants – medical professionals complained about numerous difficulties in communicating with immigrants, while 93% stressed the need to establish an institution of interpreters-intercultural mediators in medical institutions. It should also be pointed out that due to administrative division of Spain into autonomous communities, invested with power to legislate at the local level, the situation with immigrants can vary considerably from one autonomy to another. Since the distribution of migratory flows through autonomies is not even, and communities at the legislative level have a significant autonomy to determine the organization of their own health care system, the pattern and strategies of providing health care services to immigrants as well as dealing with linguistic barriers.

Migration situation in Russia has another structure with economic migration dominating all other types of migration. According to official statistics general growth of migration has stabilized at the level of 250-300 thousand people per year. Immigration in Russia is encouraged in terms of compensating for the natural loss of the population's capacity to work. The main region-source of migration to Russia is CIS (Commonwealth of Independent States) countries, with the Ukraine, Tadjikistan, Uzbekistan, Kirgizia and Kazakhstan as the major ones (for the period of 2012-2016). The exact figures on each of the countries would vary as migration flows also depend on season.

Discussing the provision of health care services to migrants we can underline that it is determined by Federal Law on “Compulsory medical insurance in the Russian Federation”, which means that migrants have the right to free medical aid if they lawfully reside in the territory of the Russian federation. Tackling the issue of Russian language proficiency for migrant the government of Russia adopted the law (its latest amendment came into force on 1 January 2015) that makes it mandatory to pass the test on elementary knowledge of Russian and basics of Russian legislation for migrants who wish to obtain work permit or have the right to apply for Russian citizenship. Such measure is focused on better integration of migrants into the host society through eliminating the language barrier on the one hand, and ensuring social security on the other.

However, health care setting also involves issues of cultural barriers. A number of researches identified that many immigrants instead of applying for medical help into the public polyclinics use methods of so called traditional national medicine or engage in self-treatment very often with detrimental results for their health. The researchers also identified the tendency among migrants' national communities to ask for help the doctor, who belongs to the same nationality, as it is much easier to communicate with him/her not only in terms of language, but also in terms of culturally sensitive issues.

As we have seen from the above, massive influx of immigrants poses serious problems for public health care institutions and services in terms of insuring not only access to health care services for people with limited official language proficiency through eliminating language barrier, but also ensuring as effective communication as possible. In this respect we again have to refer to linguacultural mediator, and according to C. Valero, translation is just one of the aspects of mediation. It should be mentioned here that there is no unified definition for linguacultural mediator, nor common understanding concerning the legal status of linguacultural mediator or his/her scope of competence. It is generally understood that linguacultural mediator in health care settings is a trained interpreter with specific cultural competencies. However, in various sources, we can find such definitions as an interpreter in health care services, an intercultural mediator in health care services, a social translator, a socio-sanitary mediator, a linguistic intermediary, such terminological diversity indicates the lack of an unambiguous definition and interpretation of the concept of a professional intended to serve as a link, bridging the communicative gap between the medical personnel and immigrant services users.

Provision of effective interpreter mediated communication in health care setting requires specific training of professionals. For the purpose of the research we deem it expedient to provide a brief overview of the current situation in the field of training interpreters and translators qualified to work in health care settings.

Regarding academic policy, it should be noted that a number of Spanish universities currently run a number of sector specific translation programs. The University of Alcala de Henares offers a Master's program in the field of intercultural communication *Máster Oficial en Comunicación Intercultural: Interpretación y Traducción en los Servicios Públicos* (public services) with internships taking place in hospitals (el Hospital Ramón Cajal de Madrid; el Hospital General de Guadalajara). The University of Jaime I (Valencia Autonomy) runs a training program in the field of intercultural mediation and interpreting in the health care field followed by compulsory internship in autonomy hospitals. (*Curso de Formación Superior en Mediación Intercultural*

e Interpretación en el Ámbito Sanitario). At the University of Alicante, students do an interpreting internship in a number of hospitals (Clínica Medimar, El General Hospital de Alicante, El Hospital General de Elche, el Hospital de Villajoyosa y el Hospital General de la Vega Baja). Universidad de la Laguna is implementing a program which leads to obtaining a degree in translation in social institutions. According to this degree, graduates qualify as "linguistic intermediaries" (Experto Universitario en Traducción e Interpretación para los Servicios Comunitarios: Mediadores Lingüísticos (EUTISC) and do compulsory internship in hospitals. The content of programs mentioned above cannot be considered as unified, which is probably due to the lack of appropriate certification of such specialists and ambiguous approach to the definition of the profession.

Russian universities also run educational programs focused on training translators and interpreters in medical setting, but they are few in numbers. There are two major universities -participants of "5 top 100" Russian Academic Excellence Project implementing such programs. The RUDN University (Peoples' Friendship University of Russia) launched in 2013 and currently running the MA Program "Interpreter and Translator for Public Services and Institutions" The program provides specialized training in medical translation and interpreting and envisaged compulsory interpreting internship in the city polyclinic No 25 attached to the University.

Sechenov First Moscow State Medical University was the first among specialized medical universities to launch the linguistic MA program "Foreign Languages and Intercultural Communication". The program focuses more on translation in medical setting as well as intercultural communication in various health related domains. It should be mentioned that both programs involve major European languages, they do not concern rare languages.

5. Results and Discussion

The authors have analyzed the models of immigrants' access to interpreting services in health care institutions in Spain and Russia. The following groups of interpreters engaged in providing linguacultural mediation in medical institutions in Russia and in Spain:

1) Direct communication: the doctor has sufficient linguistic competence to communicate with the patient with no intermediary being involved. The data that we obtained in Moscow international medical centers reveal that such a situation cannot be regarded as widespread, since only a small number of physicians have sufficient linguistic knowledge in major European language, let alone rare languages, for example, Khmer, Vietnamese, etc. In Spain the situation is somewhat better.

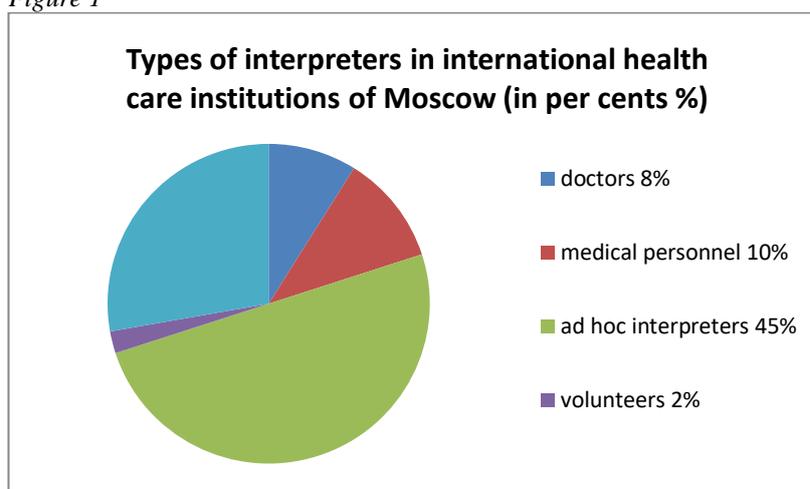
2) Medical personnel (other than doctors) may function as interpreters-mediators (especially if they are native speakers) and thus facilitate doctor-patient communication. A number of researchers (Elderkin-Thompson et al., 2001: 1356) convincingly demonstrate that this category of medical personnel should also have appropriate training, including techniques for translation and cultural mediation.

3) Ad hoc interpreters: - family members or friends who speak the intermediary language. This category of interpreters is most widely represented in medical institutions of both Russia and Spain. This type of interpreters is the most numerous one, as they are virtually the only possible alternative in case of rare languages.

4) Unqualified translator-volunteers. These are people who provide interpreting services within the framework of non-governmental organizations or volunteer organizations working for ethnic communities living in Russia. Our surveys revealed that the altruistic nature of the activities undertaken by these interpreters affects their impartiality. Also, if volunteers work for ethnic community representatives, it is much more difficult to observe an important principle of confidentiality. The number of such interpreters-volunteers is relatively small in Russia about 2% of the total number of interpreters engaged in the field.

5) Professional interpreters: most studies demonstrate that professional interpreters provide better understanding of diagnosis and treatment, greater satisfaction from both medical personnel and the service users and thus contribute to enhanced quality of medical care. (Flores et al., 2003: 6, Karliner et al., 2007: 751). Professional interpreters ensure compliance with such basic requirements as the accuracy of interpreting, its confidentiality and impartiality. The low prestige of professional interpreters involved in the marked apparently can be explained by low prestige of the profession, which is regarded as ancillary to medical professionals, as well as limited career opportunities. Besides it is very hard to find professional interpreters of rear languages. (Figure 1 shows the discussed types of interpreters represented in health care institutions of Moscow).

Figure 1



As part of the experiment the authors also conducted a survey aimed at obtaining information on students' satisfaction with educational programs in terms of ensuring adequate training for perspective medical interpreters. The survey involved students who were doing pre-thesis interpreting internship in international medical institution of Moscow. The students were given a simple set of questions to which they were expected to provide yes/no answers. Respondents were also encouraged to provide comments. The obtained results are summarized as follows:

Issue of the Survey	Positive response	Negative response
Does your educational program contain a course of specialized interpreting: medical interpreting?	46	4
Do you think it is important to include the following subjects into medical interpreters' educational program:		
Course on medical anthropology	3	47
	11	39
	35	20

Interpreter's professional Ethics Course on culture studies The health care system of Russia and other countries (the procedure for providing health care services)	25	25
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As the obtained results demonstrate almost all respondents said that their educational programs include a course of specialized medical interpreting. However the majority of respondents stated in the comments that such courses are linguistically oriented courses, most often they are narrowed down to learning medical terminology and rarely go beyond that. Students also indicated that after hands-on experience in medical institutions they feel the need for training other practice related aspects as well, for example specificity of doctor-patient communication, communication in multicultural environment etc.

Processing the questionnaires authors were surprised to find out that students have never heard of such subjects as medical anthropology, which explains only 3 positive answers for this question. We believe that training in this field might lessen the risk of making facts related mistakes.

Concerning professional ethics, only 22% of respondents know about such subject and find it important. Comments provided by respondents suggest that students were mostly guided by doctors instructions in the course of their internship. Culture Studies was recognized by a large number of students as a necessary subject, however not from the practical point of view in terms of its further application in work, but from the point of view of expanding their general erudition. However, 35 respondents realized in the course of interpreting internship that patients tend to develop greater confidence in the interpreter rather than in the doctor, as interpreter is the one who speaks his/her native language. Effective mediation of doctor-patient communication required knowledge of culture as well, so, when working with patients from Asia, it was necessary to qualify a smile not as consent, but as a simple manifestation of politeness, an increased tone of voice and excessive gesticulation of Arab patients should not be assessed as a manifestation of aggression.

Answering the last question 50% of students found it of practical importance as patients frequently approached them with questions related to specificity of medical service provision in Russia, like what services are free of charge, where and how to obtain policy of compulsory medical insurance etc. Students pointed out though that it is not their professional role to provide explanations to patients, nevertheless they believe that this knowledge is of practical value in medical interpreter's professional activity.

Thus, in addition to knowledge of specialized medical terminology, the interpreter needs profound knowledge of the culture and social specifics of the

peoples and countries related to interpreter's working languages, as well as social and personal psychology.

6. Conclusion

By way of conclusion and on the bases of the discussed above, the authors attempted to draft some recommendations that are aimed at overcoming the existing shortcomings in medical interpreters training both in Russia and Spain.

First of all we find it important to create short-term courses on specialized translation and interpreting on the basis of linguistic universities, translation faculties, where rare languages are trained. These courses could also provide interpreting skills training for representatives of ethnic minorities as well. We believe it would be a promising practice to involve NGOs into this activity, as Servicio de Traductores e Intérpretes (SETI) in Spain for example, where ONG creates its own translation services designed to ensure the interaction of migrants and the host society.

Taking into account the health care interpreters' training experience in Spain and the experience of RUDN University and other universities running programs on interpreter's training, we propose to introduce it into the master's programs specialized courses on Medical Anthropology, Interpreter's Ethics, Culture Studies etc. to enhance the graduates' preparedness to meet the real needs of the society.

Authors strongly advocate for inclusion of special courses on mediation techniques into medical interpreters' professional training as it is of vital importance for effective doctor-patient communication. We also suggest developing course on techniques of medical telephone interpreting as this kind of interpreting service is gaining in popularity in Europe.

Considering the experience of Spain, we believe it would be good idea to introduce interpreting internship in medical centers for students. In Spain such internship is a compulsory module in interpreters' training programs.

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***SOCIETY AND LANGUAGES IN THE THIRD MILLENNIUM
COMMUNICATION. EDUCATION. TRANSLATION***

MAY 24-25, 2018

CONFERENCE PROGRAMME

Thursday May 24th

Venue- RUDN Main Building

REGISTRATION –10.00-11.00

PRE-SESSION COFFEE BREAK 10-30-11.00- RUDN LIBRARY ZONE

PLENARY SESSION, RUDN LIBRARY, 11.00. -15.30

11.00-11.30 CONFERENCE OPENING SESSION

WELCOME SPEECHES

Jiří Maštálka, MUDr, Member of the European Parliament, Czech Republic

Welcome address letter

Oleg Yastrebov

President of Russia-wide Association of Legal Education

RUDN Law Institute Director

Prof., LL.D.

Dr. Anne Renate Schönhagen

Leader of the Language Department, Deputy Director of the Goethe Institute

Video message

11.30 PLENARY SESSION

11.30 -12.00 Noël Muylle

Honorary Director General, European Commission, Brussels, Belgium

*Behind the words : multilingualism and the art of translating and interpreting:
Challenges and opportunities.*

12.00 -12.30 Nebojša Radić

Director of Cambridge University Language Programmes

University of Cambridge, UK

Translingualism and Self-translation in the Age of a Global, Plurilingual World.

12.30 -13.00 Jong-Bok Kim

Director, Institute for the Study of Language and Information

Dean, College of Humanities, Kyung Hee University, South Korea

Strategies to say 'yes' and 'no' across the languages

13.00-13.30 Coffee break

13.30 -14.00 Thomas Stieglbrunner

Director of the Austrian Institute in Moscow for German Language Studies

Role of Learning German in the Contemporary World

14.00-14.30 Christina Alexandris

Athene National University, Greece

Multilingual Aspects of Complex Information Transfer and Information Processing in Spoken Journalistic Texts.

14.30-15.00 Alan Peter Thompson

Chairman of Association of Police and Court Interpreters, UK

Irina Norton

Vice-chairman of Association of Police and Court Interpreters, UK

Joint Training for Police and Interpreters in Specific Scenarios

15.30-16.10 Lunch

PANEL SESSIONS 16.10-18.00

Panel Session 1 (Room 354)

Language, Communication, and Translation as Mirror of Society and Culture: Traditions and Trends

Moderator – Associate Professor Valentina Stepanova

Dominik Baumgarten (University of Leuneburg, Germany). *Diacronic Advertising Language change on the Example of “Barnum’s America Museum” and “The Greatest Showman.”*

Anna Gornostaeva (MSLU, Russia). *Expressive Means in Modern Ironic Political Discourse.*

Jerzy Tomaszczyk (University of Lodz, Poland). *Old Habits Die Hard:*

Gender fair Language in Polish Media Conversation and in Two Corpora.

Olga Gorbatenko, Rimma Gorbatenko (RUDN, Russia), Mi Young Cheon (South Korea-Russia, Hanul Hangeul Hakdang)

Terminology as Mirror of National History and Domain Specific Knowledge: South Korea’s Experience in Terminology Studies

Ekaterina Zvereva (RUDN Russia), Larisa Lutskovskaya (RUDN, Russia), Carmen Valero Garcés

(University of Alcalá de Henares, Spain) *Language Service Provision in Healthcare as Response to Societal Needs* Brandon Cross (DTTL, USA-

Russia), Ekaterina Zvereva (RUDN, Russia,) *Inaugural Addresses of Brazilian, Russian, USA, and Chilean Presidents: National Political Cultures in National Discourses*

Tatyana Popova, Yelena Knyzeva (Military University, Russia) *Metaphor as Conceptualization*

Vladimir Ozyumenko and Tatiana Larina (RUDN, Russia) *Ambiguity as Strategy of Manipulation*

Panel Session 2 (Room 355)

Language Teaching: Approaches and Methods

Moderator – Associate Professor Natalia Udina

Ludmila Shestakova (Russian Law Academy, Russia). *Case Studies as a Teaching Method.*

Maria Semenovskaya (MSLU, Russia), Olga Evstegneeva (MTU, Russia), Olga Schegolkova (Comprehensive secondary school №1525, Russia).

Testing: Last Minute or Solid Knowledge?

Anna Brenchugina –Romanova, Larisa Denisova (MPSU, Russia), Tatiana Karaulova (RUDN, Russia). *Introducing New Vocabulary at the Text Pre-translation Stage (Focus on the category of gender).*

Chilingaryan Camo (RUDN, Russia). *New Methods of the English Language Teaching.*

Natalia Udina (RUDN, Russia), Bayarma Bazarova (Buryat State University, Russia) Elena Stolyarova E., (Plekhanov Russian University of Economics, Russia)

Terminology Theory Approach to Teaching Language for Public Services.

Jaromíra Šindelářová (University of Jan Evangelista Purkyně in Ústí nad Labem, Czech Republic) Dana Baláková, Catholic University in Ruzomberok, Slovakia) *Bible Phraseology in Future Teacher Training*

Panel Session 3 (Room 361)

Legal Language and Translation Issues

Moderator – Associate Professor Tatyana Emelyanova

Anna Lebedeva (All-Russian State University of Justice, Russia) *Cognitive Challenges in Translating Legal Terminology: Contract Text Translation Training Methodology. Russian Experience.*

Meshkova Irina, Sheremetjeva Olga (RUDN, Russia). *Lingvo-Cultural Aspects in Translating Legal Texts from French into Russian.*

Elena Vyushkina (Saratov State Law Academy, Russia) *Lawyering Skills within a Legal English Course.*

Irina Kruse (RUDN, Russia), Doris Wydra (Paris Lodron University of Salzburg, Austria). *Formation of conditions for the personality-value development of law students in the framework of the programs of Russian-Austrian Summer Schools for lawyers*

Tatiana Emelyanova (RUDN, Russia). *Linguistic and Methodological Aspects of Law-students' English Language Communicative Skills Formation.*

INTERACTIVE WORKSHOP IN GERMAN: 14.00 -16.00

INTERAKTION IM DEUTSCHUNTERRICHT

«Konzept CLIL und CLIL-Didaktik»

Room 354

Moderators Anna Kalinovskaya, Anton Golodnov, Goethe-Institut Moskau

Elena Terekhova (MPGU), Andrey Karelin h (MPGU), Natalia Shimon (University of Dubna), Margarita Tikhonova (Lomonosov MSU), Liya

Zavalishina (MPGU), Galina Semyannikova (RUDN), Olga Povalikhina (Publishing house "lingua media"), Julia Lebedeva (RUDN), Anna Vladimirova (Moscow State Regional Social and Humanitarian Institute), Elena Kuzmina (RUDN), Valentina Mokhova (MGOU), Lyudmila Feklistova (RANEPA), Natalia Kuznetsova (RUDN), Irina Matveeva (MPEI), Irina Kruse (RUDN)

18.00 Conference Dinner

Friday May 25th

Panel Sessions 10.30-13.00

Panel Session 4. (Room 326)

Language Teaching within Societal Contexts

Moderator- – Associate Prof Tatyana Emelyanova

Antwi Addai. (Director of Steps for Change Humanity Foundation, Ghana).

Languages and Education.

Nacer-Eddine Ben-Abdallah, Mohamed Cherif Messaadia (University Souk-Ahras, Algeria) *'On the Other Side of the World' Project: A Telecollaborative, and Multicultural Perspective in EFL Facing the Global Digital Divide.*

Snezhana Zheltoukhova (Stetson University, the USA), *Foreign language tutoring social dynamics in action*

Rajai AL-Khanji and Rose Hawamdeh (University of Jordan, Amman). *The Semantic Fossilization of a Filipino Housekeeper: A Case Study about the Effects of L1 on L2 Vocabulary Acquisition.*

Anastassia Zabrodskaia (Tallinn University, Estonia), *Managing Acculturation during Intercultural Communication Courses.*

Panel Session 5. (Room 455)

Language Teaching for Non-Language Students

Moderator – Associate Prof. Natalia Belenkova,

Raissa Krivitsky (Cornell University, USA). *FLAC: Language Instruction as Enriching Supplement to Subject Area Courses*

Tatiana Yakaeva, Leila Salekhova (Kazan Federal University, Russia). EMI in training executive functions of students

Roya Khoii, Naeemeh Sadat Hosseini (Islamic Azad University, Tehran North Branch, Iran). *The Relationship between the Ambiguity Tolerance and Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition of Advanced EFL Learners through the TED Application.*

Wafaa Metwalli (Misr International University, Egypt). *Constructivism and the significance of Dubbing in Improving SLA.*

Kucherenko S., Shcherbakova I. (HSE, Russia) *English as Cultural Capital in Russia: Attitudes of Different Age Groups of Learners*

Tatiana Novikov (University of Nebraska, Omaha, the USA) *Making Meaning of Text: Content-Focused Teaching and Learning a Foreign Language.*

Juliette Parnell (University of Nebraska, Omaha, the USA). *Teaching Beginning French Fully Online: Rewards and Challenges*

Panel Session 6 (Room 354)

Translation and Translators in Society

Moderator – Associate Prof .Valentina Stepanova

Barbara Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, Piotr Pezik (University of Lodz, State University of Applied Sciences in Konin, Poland). *Parallel and Comparable Corpora, Cluster Equivalence and Translator Education.*

Boris Naimushin (New Bulgaria University, Bulgaria), Maria Stepanova (Peter the Great St. Petersburg Polytechnic University, Russia)

The Association of Translator and Interpreter Trainers: Building a Network of Teaching Excellence.

Rajai Al-Khanji (University of Jordan, Amman)

Translating Taboos: The Ethics of Translation through Two Perspectives.

Valentina Stepanova (RUDN, Russia), Yoshida Kiyo (Japan- Russia) and Tatyana Karaulova (RUDN, Russia)

Japanese Communicative Culture: What Should Russian Students Bear in Mind?

Yulia Nozdracheva (RUDN, Russia) *Translating and Interpreting in Emergency*
Olga Bochkova (RUDN, Russia) *Challenges to Interpreters: Current State of Affairs*

13.00 Lunch

14.00 –Skype Session: Interventions on ICT in Language Research, Teaching and Translation

14.00 -18.00 Social events in Moscow (Bus tour)

Научное издание

**ОБЩЕСТВО И ЯЗЫКИ
В ТРЕТЬЕМ ТЫСЯЧЕЛЕТИИ
КОММУНИКАЦИЯ. ОБРАЗОВАНИЕ.
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Для заметок

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