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Introduction to
Issue 4(1)

by Guest Editor Dr Robert O’Dowd

Welcome to Issue 4(1) of Training, Language and Culture.

It is an honour for me to be invited to be Guest Editor for this special issue of the journal on the theme of Profession-Oriented Research: Educational and Methodological Perspectives. This theme is clearly a very relevant one for the times we are living in. The dual phenomena of globalisation and online communications technologies have brought about dramatic changes in the fields of business, industry and the professions in the first two decades of the 21st century. In addition, certain related trends have accelerated the impact of these changes: the interdependency of economies around the world, the international outsourcing of manufacturing services, increased dependence on migrant workers and international multi-site collaboration in product development. All these factors have served to highlight the importance of developing students’ foreign language and intercultural competences in order to make them both effective members of the global workforce and also active global citizens. Simply put, in order to live and work in our globalised world, students need to learn how to communicate and collaborate effectively with people from other cultures and it is in the foreign language classroom where they can best be prepared for this challenge.

For many years, I myself have studied how to develop students’ intercultural communicative competence through engaging them in online collaboration projects with partners from other countries. This activity, known as Virtual Exchange or telecollaboration, has grown in popularity in recent years as both educators and universities are looking for alternatives to physical mobility programmes for giving students an international learning experience as part of their university education. Coming from this background, I was fascinated to read the submissions to this edition of TLC which all deal with issues related to professional competence development, intercultural communicative competence enhancement, profession-oriented training of foreign language teachers as well as teaching academic writing.

The first article in this special edition is entitled Profession-oriented training of foreign language teachers in modern conditions and has been authored by Tatiana A. Dmitenko and Olga A. Kadilina. In this article, the authors evaluate the opportunities and ways to improve professional training for competitive specialists. They analyse global educational practices, define the concept of ‘profession-oriented training technology’ and consider general trends and principles for modelling profession-oriented technologies. The authors argue that applying profession-oriented training technology ensures that high quality training will result in the development of competitive specialists who have qualifications which comply with world standards.

Following this, Teaching academic writing: A shift towards intercultural rhetoric by Elina S. Chuikova looks at the area of intercultural rhetoric which she claims will bring a new view on writing culture but which, in her opinion, still requires further research. Her paper uses data taken from the texts of MA students to estimate which elements of academic writing merge. The author looks at various levels of cultural mismatches and considers if the integration tendencies take place at levels of text creation. She identifies the formation of two major characteristics in academic intercultural communication: individuality and authenticity.

In the article Business cultural training in a globalised economy, Dominique Vouillemin argues for a reconceptualisation of the concept of cultural training in business. The author suggests that the fact that every area of business increasingly involves multinationals means that the cultural analysis of countries as independent entities is increasingly irrelevant. This means that the models developed by Hofstede, Trompenaars, Lewis and Meyer need to be viewed in a new light and that emphasis should be placed on the concepts they have devel-
oped rather than the countries they were applied to. The article explores how cultural concepts can be applied to business and concludes by suggesting practical training activities to raise cultural awareness and improve business performance.

Staying with the theme of culture in business contexts, Ozlem Yuges’ article Enhancing the development of intercultural communicative competence in business and study environments explores the development of intercultural communicative competence in English language teacher training and management. The author asks how establishing effective and appropriate behaviour within intercultural communication can promote effective communication in teacher training programmes and in management training. To answer this question, the article explores how the concept of intercultural sensitivity is integrated into intercultural communicative competence in training programmes and how it can facilitate the development of overall sensitivity. In doing so, it identifies some of the enabling and hindering features that shape the development of intercultural communicative competences in English language and culture in training courses in management or university.

In Successful international communication, Chia Suan Chong explores what successful communication in international organisations involves and offers a wide range of strategies and techniques that business English and management trainers can use to improve communication in multinational teams and with clients and partners when using English as a lingua franca. The principles and good practice suggestions which are included in this paper will be helpful to teachers and trainers who are helping students and managers to work with international staff in their own country or abroad. The article is full of practical tools and advice about intercultural communication in English that can be put into practice in a wide range of training and work contexts.

The final article in this issue is The role of toponymic periphrasis in developing professional competence in learning Spanish by Olga S. Chesnokova, Marija Radović and Alexey V. Akhrenov. In this article the authors investigate the toponymical periphrasis or metaphors of two Spanish-speaking countries: Peru and Panama. In the article, the authors examine approximately ninety place names of Peru and Panama. They justify their choice based on their lingua-cultural, geographical, associative, and commemorative significance for Peruvian and Panamanian people. The authors report that the historical, linguistic and onomastic approaches which are proposed in this research reveal different mechanisms of metaphorical naming and renaming. The authors then go on to consider a practical application of their research by evaluating the role of toponymical periphrases in developing the professional competences of Russian university students studying Spanish. They suggest that knowing toponymical metaphors enriches the professional competences of students and can contribute to developing students’ intellectual activities and forming aesthetic values.

These six articles are followed by two very interesting review pieces: the recent publication by world famous linguist David Crystal Let’s talk: How English conversation works is reviewed by Barry Tomalin and Jane Setter’s book on pronunciation Your voice speaks volumes: It’s not what you say but how you say is reviewed by Maurice Cassidy.

In conclusion, I would like to thank the authors and reviewers for their contributions to this edition. I feel that the articles and reviews here make a strong contribution to our knowledge of how culture and language interact together and how the nexus of the two has such an important role to play in how people communicate, learn and work in international contexts. I would also like to thank TLC Editors Elena Malyuga and Barry Tomalin, and Executive Secretary Elizaveta Grischechko, for giving me the opportunity to be involved in this edition.

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

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Profession-oriented training of foreign language teachers in modern conditions

by Tatiana A. Dmitrenko and Olga A. Kadilina

The study discusses the problem of competitive specialist training in the field of intercultural contacts and aims to assess the opportunities and main means to improve professional training for competitive specialists, which are considered quality indicators for university education. The authors analyse global educational practices, define the concept of ‘profession-oriented training technology’, identify relevant problematic affecting the efficiency of vocational training quality, consider general trends and principles for modelling profession-oriented technologies, and argue that applying profession-oriented training technology ensures high quality training results for a competitive specialist whose qualification complies with the world standards.

KEYWORDS: foreign language training, intercultural communication, profession-oriented technology, multicultural environment, competitive specialist

1. INTRODUCTION
When it comes to training competitive specialists in the multicultural environment, preparation of pedagogical corps conforming to the needs of modern life is a priority task. Today, profession-oriented training of future foreign language teachers in higher education institutions is implausible without the intensification and optimisation of the learning process.

High-quality professional training of future specialists in the system of language education implies, on the one hand, optimisation of training, which allows the most appropriate building of the educational process by selecting and organising training material correctly, and, on the other hand, enhancing educational activities, where the main focus is on creating favourable psycho-hygienic and aesthetic conditions for training.

When training teachers in universities, profession-oriented technologies guarantee the necessary and sufficient level of efficiency and quality of education and reduce the negative consequences
of the work of low-skilled teachers; they also provide each student with the opportunity to study according to an individual programme that fully suits their cognitive abilities, motives, inclinations and other personal qualities.

The most important characteristics of profession-oriented technologies are: effectiveness (high results achieved by each student); cost-effectiveness (a large amount of educational material is effectively assimilated per unit of time without high loss of time and effort on the part of both the teacher and the student); ergonomics (psycho-hygiene) (training takes place in an atmosphere of cooperation and a positive emotional microclimate, in the absence of overload and overwork); creating high motivation to study the subject, which allows to identify and improve the best personal qualities of students, to reveal their reserve capabilities (Dmitrenko, 2009).

Profession-oriented educational technologies in higher education incorporate the latest achievements in didactics, psychology, computer science, etc., increasing the informative capacity of the educational content, developing general educational skills, educational and methodological support, ensuring students’ active mental work, etc.

The practical implementation of such training technologies is possible only if this process is effectively managed both from the outside and from the inside, i.e. systemically at all levels of consideration of the student’s educational activities: at the socio-pedagogical, psychophysiological and, finally, didactic levels. Therefore, there is a need to create systems of techniques, tasks, exercises, etc. that stimulate learning activities that not only lead to learning process intensification, but also affect the personality as a whole. They influence a person’s desire for self-improvement, self-education, and self-government, which is why a synthesis of control actions at all levels occurs and we get the expected effect of productive, economical, psycho-hygienic, and highly motivated training and education – a new personality, responsible for the effective self-management of further educational and cognitive activities (Dmitrenko, 2020).

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The analysis of recent national and foreign developments has shown that the intensification of vocational training involves extending the independent work of students, which is considered today as one of the most important ways to improve professional training quality for a future specialist. In this regard, the issue of students’ independent work occupies one of the central places in the university training of a specialist. Its solution is directly related to matters of further self-education and professional growth of graduates.

In modern conditions of the rapid development of science and technological progress, the solution to this problem is associated with the development of critical thinking among students, the desire for self-improvement and continuous enrichment and updating of knowledge. All this can be achieved with the intensification of vocational training, following the path of extending the independent work of students.

The most important indicator of educational and cognitive activity at a high level is the students’ motivational readiness to master knowledge: the desire to comprehensively consider problems that arise, expand the amount of knowledge by referring to additional sources, the need for self-improvement, and the search for innovative ways to solve problems. Self-improvement and self-education outwardly express the most active side of the regulatory and managerial function of self-awareness (Akiba et al., 2007).

Most educators believe that bettering a person’s education first of all implies accustoming them to self-education throughout life. Another way to intensify professional training of specialists is to bring training closer to future professional activities. The essence of profiling is the requirement for a focused and optimal content of the material, strictly focused on solving the problems of full-fledged training of a future specialist. A promising way to increase the effectiveness of vocational training is to solve the psychological and pedagogical problems of ensuring the transformation of one type of activity into another – educational to professional.
Teaching students in the context of future professional activities is currently considered as a way to improve the quality of future specialists’ profession-oriented training:

– from the very beginning, the student is placed in an active position, since academic subjects are presented in the form of activities (educational, quasi-professional, educational and professional) with a specific scenario for their deployment, dynamisation;
– the full potential of student’s work is activated – from the level of perception to the level of social readiness to make mutual decisions;
– students acquire knowledge in the context of resolving future professional situations presented in training in a didactically sound form, which provides the conditions for the formation of not only cognitive, but also professional motivation, the personal meaning of the learning process;
– students’ activity is both individual and joint collective in nature, which determines the formation of business and moral qualities of the future specialist personality and allows everyone to perform a teaching function in relation to other students;
– acquisition of experience in the use of educational information as a means of regulating student’s activity, which is increasingly becoming professional and ensures the conversion of this information into a means of professional activity, into knowledge itself as a personal asset of a future specialist.

We believe that there are three main ways to improve the quality of vocational training in higher education. One of them is the students’ application of learning outcomes in their future professional activities. For this, the teaching of any subject in a university should be carried out in the context of the future profession of students – this is the way to generalise the acquired knowledge and skills.

Another way to increase the effectiveness of vocational training in the higher education system is to provide students with a clear understanding of the basic structure of the course of the subject under study, its theoretical and practical significance, and the components of the course. To understand the structure of the subject, it is important to understand the basic relationships within it. In order for the learning outcome to be fruitful, training should be structured so that the result achieved in one step helps learning in the next steps and is useful in future professional activities.

‘To understand the structure of the subject, it is important to understand the basic relationships within it. In order for the learning outcome to be fruitful, training should be structured so that the result achieved in one step helps learning in the next steps and is useful in future professional activities.’
– search task statement, which contributes to the development of critical thinking among students who can see and creatively solve problems that lead to their cognitive independence, search skills at a high level of communication, ability to apply knowledge in unfamiliar situations, include them in new systems to expand knowledge boundaries;

– use of active teaching methods (projects, role-playing, business games, analysis of business situations), the flexible variation of which in class provides an individual educational trajectory for students;

– use and further development of cognitive abilities of students, the disclosure of students’ reserves, which are inherent in their genetic inclinations and holistic socio-cultural experience.

Creating favourable educational psycho-hygienic and aesthetic conditions for training makes it possible not only to optimise all training and correctly select and organise training material, but also to intensify students’ mental activity.

Profession-oriented teaching technology is aimed not only at quantitative changes (more study time, more training material, etc.), but, above all, qualitative changes in the education system. Many experts interpret it as the best way to implement the trends of scientific and technological progress (Dmitrenko, 2009). The result of teaching a foreign language using profession-oriented technology is embodied in the students’ mastery of professional and communicative competence, their ability to actively and creatively participate in communication on the subject under study.

The strategic direction of enhancing the efficiency and quality of education today is not only increasing the amount of information transmitted in the learning process, but also creating didactic and psychological conditions for understanding it.

It seems that the quality of mastering the subject depends not only on the abilities of the trainees, but also on the scientifically developed system of teaching this subject. In this regard, currently, among the problems associated with improving the quality of professional training of future teachers, specialists highlight psychological issues.

Moreover, linguistic, methodological and other problems related to the specifics of the subject under study become less significant.

Over the past decades, conditions for improving the quality and effectiveness of vocational training in higher education have not yet been fully created. One of the conditions for the quality training of future foreign language teachers in the higher education system is the possibility of involving each student in the active cognitive activity, applying their knowledge in practice and obtaining a clear understanding of where, how and for what purposes this knowledge can be applied.

The concept of education is complex and multifaceted: it includes not only knowledge and skills, but also the ability to think critically, to evaluate historical and any other events in the world from a highly moral standpoint, and to implement the knowledge creatively.

The integration of education, science and production allows us to intensify the use of such teaching methods as problem lectures, practical exercises of a problem-search nature, business and heuristic games.

The latest technical tools are becoming an indispensable link in vocationally oriented education in higher education. Information and communication technologies based on personal computers are gaining recognition.

Many countries associate the future with achievements in the field of scientific and technological progress, especially in the field of information and communication training technologies, primarily, information and computer support for training courses. Some authors suggest that with the development of new information technologies there will be no need for books, and laptops will replace paper and pencil, both in schools and in industry and commerce (Tomlinson & Jarvis, 2014).

Today, computer literacy can significantly increase a person’s intellectual abilities, contribute to making optimal decisions in the most difficult situations, and to a certain extent expand the prospects for the development of the economy and technology, science and culture. Knowing the capabilities of a personal computer and the ability to
use it are included in the concept of general computer literacy, which is becoming a necessary component of modern general cultural training.

In this study, the development of profession-oriented training is discussed at a conceptual level, which helps identify the main guidelines, understand pedagogical experience and the conditions for achieving goals and objectives. The review analysis of leading research in the field of professional training for future specialists showed that effectiveness increase in professional and pedagogical training for future teachers in higher education is possible only if creative approaches prevail in the students’ activity at all stages of the educational process.

Profession-oriented technologies in higher pedagogical schools should meet the following requirements: individualisation and differentiation, professionalisation, deeper insight into creative research studies, computerisation, the use of various forms, methods and means of activating educational process, etc.

3. STUDY AND RESULTS

This study will consider various ways to improve the quality of vocational training of future specialists in the field of foreign languages, which have become profession-oriented training origins, as they are of specific professional interest for foreign language teachers.

The suggestive way of a profession-oriented technology for training specialists in the field of a foreign language is founded on three main principles – joy and relaxedness in the training process, the unity of the conscious and subconscious, and the presence of a suggestive connection between the teacher and the student – formed a substantial basis for the subsequent development of this direction by many researchers (Canals & Al-Rawashdeh, 2019). The proposed type of educational process helps solve new problems, the essence of which is:

– in accelerated learning of new material at a creative level;
– in an accelerated educational effect, moving simultaneously in the following four directions – developing global thinking in a personality, creating motivation for lifelong learning, developing students’ self-control skills and easy achievement of the state of ‘concentrated psychorelaxation’, and overcoming the difficulties of communication;
– in the comprehensive development of all reserves of a personality.

A profession-oriented technology for teaching a foreign language by activating the capabilities of an individual and a team is based on the active use of psychological and socio-psychological capabilities of the individual in the team (Roberts, 2016). This way of profession-oriented training is based on the following principles:

– collective interaction;
– personality-oriented communication;
– role organisation of the educational process;
– concentration in the organisation of educational material and educational process;
– multifunctional exercises.

A profession-oriented technology for teaching a foreign language based on an emotional-semantic context is focused on an emotional-semantic approach aimed at practical mastery of a foreign language (Matsuda, 2017). With such training, the following scheme operates: reality – meaning – sounding speech – knowledge – language.

Unlike others, the profession-oriented technology for teaching foreign languages to scientific employees (the so-called ‘immersion method’) is a focused, controlled, accelerated process of teaching foreign oral speech in the environment of the language under study artificially created and maintained throughout the course, the environment as close to reality as possible (Freeman, 2016).

‘Immersion’ is provided by the training system, including goals, conditions, content, principles, means and methods of training. In creating an atmosphere of high emotional mood in the educational process using the immersion technique, a special role is assigned to the song cycle. In addition to the general aesthetic purpose, musical visualisation in teaching a foreign language via this technology is an effective means of psychotherapeutic influence for relaxation or, conversely, enhancement of emotional activity.
The rhythmic and melodised language material performs an important educational and suggestive task: it is easily assimilated by students and is firmly imprinted in their memory, as the musical accompaniment provides a vivid, imaginative, and emotionally coloured perception of the material in a foreign language and thereby its subconscious memorisation. The song cycle allows perfectly illustrating lexical and grammatical material and it fixes it with the help of sounding melodies. The musical component in the content of teaching a foreign language helps effectively address a whole series of tasks in the educational process at once: to stimulate foreign language communication, to motivate a positive attitude towards the given subject, to illustrate the content of a text, to acquaint students with the musical culture of the country of the language, etc.

Each of the researchers listed above has contributed to the study of the theoretical and methodological foundations of profession-oriented teaching technologies. Thus, the following main characteristics, which have developed in educational theory and practice, are inherent in the new direction of future specialists’ vocational training: appeal to the student’s intellectual and personal reserves; activation of cognitive processes (especially memory); positive impact on the emotional sphere; fatigue removal and the creation of the ‘effect of rest’ in the classroom; psychotherapeutic effects – mitigation of aggressive tendencies, optimisation of social adaptation processes.

Profession-oriented educational technology in the current sense implies a rather high concentration of training. Concentration favourably affects those aspects of educational activity that require concentration when entering a situation. These aspects of educational activity are characterised by the need for continuous reinforcement; provide greater flexibility in behaviour in the future by covering the entire system. In the conditions of profession-oriented training, this problem is solved in a new way, because here a distribution in the concentration system is formed. A specific feature of profession-oriented teaching technologies is the presence of an urgent need. Each student is aware of the need and the conscious need finds itself in the subject of educational activity, i.e. in the assimilation of the studied subject.

The coincidence of motive and goal gives the activity a reasonable meaning and makes this activity effective. They study a subject intensively and qualitatively only when it is needed, and this need is recognised. The very organisation of profession-oriented training in modern forms of its implementation contributes to the strengthening of this need.

A feature of profession-oriented technologies for teaching students of higher pedagogical schools is also the creation of high mental activity among students. Active mental work is caused by a problem situation, the solution of mental tasks. A distinctive feature of such profession-oriented teaching technology is also the dominance of unconscious over conscious memorisation and the predominance of awareness of the content plane over the formal one.

Thus, at present, the psychological feature of profession-oriented training is, on the one hand, a clear organisation of educational material and educational activities of students and, on the other hand, the correct distribution in the concentration system of educational activities, the correct organisation of trusting relationships, through which the student is aware of and comprehends (with the help of a teacher) educational material and a genuine communication situation, in which the mastery of a subject, a foreign language in particular,
is determined by meeting the need to find a means and a way to express one’s thoughts.

Professional-oriented training in general should be defined as a creative educational process, in which a large amount of educational information is assimilated at the highest possible quality level using the student’s personality reserves. It is possible only with the creative influence of the teacher’s personality and under favourable conditions for learning, with no fatigue or overload. The learning process in this case is much faster and requires less labour effort both for the teacher and students (Dmitrenko, 2009).

New profession-oriented technologies used in training future foreign language teachers in the higher education system are expressed:

– in the methodically rational organisation of classes, in which every minute of study time should be used productively to achieve the goals;

– in the communicative orientation of the entire learning process, the motivation of students’ speech activity, the necessary emotionally coloured atmosphere;

– in the variety of methods and forms of work used in view of the individual characteristics of students, the type of activity, the nature of the material and the level of knowledge, methodologically appropriate combination of frontal and individual forms of work;

– in the widespread use of modern technical means that are organically included in the learning process where they can give the maximum effect compared to ‘non-technical means’;

– in the introduction of intensive educational technologies in teaching practice in all cases where they can intensify and individualise the learning process.

Therefore, the main thing for teachers is to build the educational process in such a way as to teach students to think, understand, find, solve, prove, reason, seek confirmation, etc.

In modern didactics, the debatable principle of presenting material has entered the practice of teaching various subjects in the form of problem-solving based learning, when the teacher offers an initial data so that students can find a solution to a particular issue in the process of self-searching. Today, it seems that students should receive knowledge in foreign language classes on a communicative basis, i.e. the teacher’s task is to turn learning into interesting communication on the subject of the academic discipline.

The highest emotional tone of the audience and emotional involvement in the educational process ensures the implementation of the installation for the disclosure of the student’s personality reserves. The most progressive-minded teachers are trying to find new ways to ‘revive’ the educational process, widely attracting students to active creative work, using various forms of explanation of educational material. It is about giving the educational activity non-standard, original techniques that enhance the activities of students, increase interest in knowledge, nurture inquiring thoughts and enthusiasm, while at the same time ensuring speedy memorisation, understanding and assimilation of the educational material, taking into account the individual abilities of students.

To increase the effectiveness of profession-oriented technology for teaching any subject, including a foreign language, it is necessary to think not only about revision, but also about ways of presenting educational material, about the organisation of educational activities and about the formation of cognitive interests. It is important that the educational material itself should be interesting, and then the process of mastering it changes quali-
tatively: the goal of cognition and the form it takes turns into a means of cognition.

The transition from a monologue to dialogue in pedagogical activity is a definite form of manifestation of the humanisation of the process of training and education. Adaptation of the learning process to the individuality of each student should occur through a thorough study of their natural data and the development of the necessary abilities for the qualitative mastering of the subject.

The humanistic purpose of education requires a review and its content. It should include not only the latest scientific and technical information, but also humanitarian, personally developing knowledge and skills, experience in creative activity, an emotional-value attitude to the world and a person in it, and a system of moral and ethical feelings that determine people’s behaviour in diverse life situations.

The emergence of the problem of profession-oriented teaching technology of a new generation is associated with the introduction of innovations in the educational process at universities. A system of quality training of future specialists for creative and inventive activity, especially in the field of intercultural communication, is impossible without the use of modern technical means. This is due to an increase in the volume of creative work that increases the amount of information processed at the same time.

Modern technical means providing a qualitative breakthrough in improving the quality of students’ educational activities; significantly expanding the possibilities of accumulating and presenting information for educational and research activities; and contributing to the formation of the students’ reflection on their activities. All profession-oriented training technologies should be based on the following principles: scientific; systematic; connection of theory with practice; co-creation by teacher and students; trust in the creative powers and abilities of students; unity of the intuitive and the logical, conscious and unconscious, concrete and abstract, rational and emotional, etc.

A brief analysis of some promising modern ways to improve the quality of professional training of future specialists in the higher education system (including individualisation and differentiation, further professionalisation, intensifying the creative search work of students, computerisation, the use of various forms, methods and means of enhancing the learning process, the hygiene of academic work, humanisation of educational activities, etc.) shows that profession-oriented training technology is based on the use of the latest achievements of didactics, psychology, computer science, cybernetics, and a number of other sciences. This process includes such terms as purposefulness of training, accelerating the pace of educational activities, developing the skills of academic work, use of new technical means, etc.

Almost all new profession-oriented teaching technologies are designed only on the basis of practical experience and, in most cases, are traditional teaching technologies with the introduction of various innovations in the latter. It follows from this that theoretical studies of profession-oriented training technologies for future specialists lag far behind the results achieved by many years of practical experience. Therefore, the design of profession-oriented teaching technologies for any educational subject should be preceded by a systematic approach to the learning process, especially in terms of predicting the further improvement of this process.

Here is a brief description of some profession-oriented educational technologies.

Problem-solving based training is a modern, highly effective profession-oriented teaching technology that yields great results in creating motivating learning activities, which assumes a sequence of immersion of students in the critical analysis and resolution of problems. Scholars emphasise the importance of problem-solving based learning for the personal development of students: ‘Problem-solving based learning is designed to incorporate psychological mechanisms; the claim is to obtain a positive result independently and develop cognitive motivation, self-regulation aimed at understanding and managing one’s own actions, and forming an internal need to overcome cognitive difficulties; the development of self-esteem; the
formation of a positive attitude towards the process of cognition’ (Moust et al., 2019, p. 94).

The technology of full assimilation as a profession-oriented teaching technology assumes that learner’s abilities are determined not under average conditions, but under optimally selected conditions for a given student, therefore an adaptive training system is required, allowing all students to fully master the programme material. This requires a complete reorganisation of the traditional class-lesson system, setting for all students the same study time, content, working conditions, but having mixed results in the output (Rochebois, 2019).

The concept of full mastery sets a uniform level for students to master knowledge and skills, but makes time, methods, forms, and working conditions variable for each student. The key concept of this technology is the stages (criteria) of complete assimilation, i.e. the planned learning outcomes that all students must achieve.

Multilevel learning technology as an option for profession-oriented learning technology is based on the level differentiation of students and their features. At the same time, various student inclinations, motives, temperament characteristics, thinking and memory properties, emotionality, and learning abilities, etc. need consideration.

The flows of students are divided into mobile and relatively homogeneous, each of the groups masters the material in various educational fields at the following levels: minimal (state standard), basic, and variative.

The pedagogical technology of modular training represents a profession-oriented training technology that makes it possible to implement fundamental changes. The new paradigm is that students must learn by themselves, while teachers are responsible for motivational management; i.e. motivate, organise, coordinate, advise, control (Calderón, 2018). The underlying reasons for the emergence and use of new profession-oriented training technologies are seen in:

– the need to introduce a system-activity approach to teaching in teaching methods;

– the need to motivate and intensify students’ educational and cognitive activity, replace the in-effective verbal way of transferring knowledge and education (according to psychologists, a student assimilates no more than 36% of the information ‘from the words’);

– the possibility of designing a technological chain of procedures, methods, organisational forms of interaction between students and the teacher, providing guaranteed learning outcomes and reducing the negative consequences of the work of unskilled teachers.

Thus, learning technology is understood as the theoretical project of pedagogical management of educational activities and the system of necessary tools to ensure the functioning of the pedagogical system in accordance with the set goals of education and students’ development.

As for the goals of education, they are largely determined by social conditions, as teaching technologies depend on the goals that society sets before education.

– optimising the teaching process, focused on practical activity;

– updating the content of education;

– reorienting the goals of higher professional education aimed at the development of personal qualities of new generation are aimed at:

– development of educational and methodological features of the technology itself, which include:

– the possibility of in-depth subject study;

– integrity of knowledge; saving study time;

– integrity of the perception of information by students;

– cooperation of the teacher and students;

– variety of complementary forms of educational work;

– rhythmic building of the educational process;

– teachers using profession-oriented teaching technologies in higher professional education, it is necessary to proceed from the fact that the goal of improving the educational technologies in this system is to train specialists of a new type who can increase the prestige of the country they work in.

4. DISCUSSION

The teacher ensures the interconnection of all components of the educational process: the content of training and its capacity, methods, forms and means of training. This can explain the fact that new profession-oriented technologies are generally developed based on the content of the material of specific educational subjects and the technologies of their teaching.
Profession-oriented teaching technologies of a new generation are aimed at:
- reorienting the goals of higher professional education aimed at the development of personal abilities;
- updating the content of education;
- optimising the teaching process, focused on achieving the goals of training highly qualified specialists with little effort on the part of educators and students and at the same time achieving not only high-quality knowledge, skills, but also developing professional and creative work experience;
- shifting emphasis from the teaching process to the self-learning process of future specialists.

In the design of profession-oriented teaching technologies it is advisable to move from the beaten track (experiment – design – testing – theory) to the new trajectory (theory – design – adjusting – refinement to meet modern practice requirements). Profession-oriented teaching technologies in higher education are not a ‘frozen scheme’ of the educational process, not a combination of ready-made templates and stereotypes, but a lively creative process of solving numerous problems of training future specialists, based on classical didactics and being its practical continuation.

We consider profession-oriented teaching technology in the system of higher professional education as a system of psychological, general pedagogical, didactic procedures for the interaction of teachers and students, considering their abilities and inclinations, aimed at implementing the content, methods, forms and means of training that are adequate to the goals of education, future activities and professionally important qualities of specialists – future teachers. The design of such profession-oriented teaching technologies should be carried out through the interaction of theory and practice, a combination of individual and collective work, mentoring and self-education. The building principles include the integration of training with science and industry; the professionally-creative orientation of training; a personality teaching orientation; based on the development of the experience of future specialists’ self-education (Dmitrenko, 2009).

The use of profession-oriented technology, which involves the optimal combination of the most promising technologies, has the following effect. It ensures the effectiveness of the development of the subject taught; it allows a reduction in training time; it frees students from heavy loads of homework; it not only eliminates extreme levels of fatigue, but also, on the contrary, leads to a feeling of emotional and physical comfort. It has an emphasised psychological effect.

The analysis of various models of concentrated learning as a component of a profession-oriented training technology allows us to identify common features of the technology itself, which include:
- variety of complementary forms of educational activity;
- group and individual forms of training;
- cooperation of the teacher and students;
- integrity of the perception of information by students;
- integrity of knowledge; saving study time;
- the possibility of in-depth subject study;
- comfortable learning;
- teachers using profession-oriented teaching technologies in their work with the ability to systematically view the material and be fluent in various forms of educational work;
- rhythmic building of the educational process during the day, week, academic period, and academic year;
- development of educational and methodological support for a particular subject and experimental verification of the impact of various means on the effectiveness of training.

The possibility of simultaneous impact on the conscious and unconscious spheres of students’ mental activity opens up great opportunities for mobilising brain reserves, in particular memory. We refer to the factor of students’ emotional susceptibility, the motivational factor and professional orientation factor as psychophysiological aspects of great influence dealing with the ongoing process of training.

Educational and methodological support factors play the most important role in improving the quality of vocational training. They, in a scientifically
sound reasonable combination with each other, psychophysiological factors and factors related to the specifics of the subject under study, ensure the achievement of the set goals in the shortest possible way and meet the requirements for specialists in the current period of social development.

The influence of each of the effectiveness factors of the profession-oriented training is obvious and can be summed up in five arguments.

1. The intensification of the educational process due to the predominant use of business and role-playing games is effective and economical at the same time, since, as a rule, it does not require heavy expenditure to acquire. Furthermore, the form of the game is closest to the real professional conditions of the future specialists. A system for determining the level of knowledge acquired by students is implemented in the process of conducting educational games, resolving problem situations, discussions, etc. and is carried out by the students themselves together with the teacher as facilitator.

2. Game training allows you to design the educational process of profession-oriented training as a set of games with different levels, purposes and complexity, with the only goal – to prepare highly qualified specialists who meet all modern requirements and are able to complete their business duties after graduation at a professional level.

3. Educational games, by their nature and quality, most successfully and effectively interact with psychophysiological and other factors of educational and methodological support (technical means of training, music, artificially created environments characteristic of the subject under study) and factors related to the specifics of the subject. At the same time, the scientifically substantiated reasonable combination of the game factor with other factors provides a significantly greater effect than the use of games in a ‘pure’, i.e. isolated form.

4. The intensification of the process of teaching a subject with technical teaching aids greatly facilitates the teacher’s achievement of the goal, to ensure the proper quality of knowledge of the subject studied and the training of students, significantly reducing the time of general training.

5. The scientifically substantiated complex use of a variety of technical means of training in the students’ mastering of a subject (foreign language) has proved that with their help it is possible to set new educational tasks that could not be solved by other means. The effect of the technical means of training focusing on improving the quality of vocational training of future foreign language teachers becomes even more noticeable and tangible when technical means of training are combined with other means of educational and methodological support.

Profession-oriented technology absorbs everything progressive in the development of psychology, pedagogy and other sciences. Thus, the society as a whole is constantly being improved.

The main indicator of the quality of vocational training of a specialist in the field of intercultural communication is the demand for a graduate in the educational labour market. A competitive specialist is an indicator of the quality of university training. The creation of optimal psychological and pedagogical conditions for vocational training in the system of higher language education contributes to the preparation of a competitive specialist who is fluent in his or her profession at the level of international standards (Alkhesnham, 2012).

One of the goals of university language training today is to build students’ readiness for intercultural communication and achieve a level of communicative competence that would ensure effective communication with native speakers of the language under study.

From the standpoint of realising the ultimate goal in preparing a competitive specialist, it is advisable to talk about the formation of their intercultural communicative competence, which includes not only knowledge of language material but observance of social norms of speech communication, rules of speech behaviour typical of the representatives of a foreign language culture.

Today, interest in a foreign language as a reflection of sociocultural reality is sharply increasing, which accordingly makes it necessary to study a holistic picture of the world, present in the cultural tradition of one’s own people and the people stu-
died. One of the most significant trends in teaching a foreign language in the system of higher language education is the trend of co-study of language and culture with an emphasis on culture.

At the present stage, language training in universities is beginning to be delivered in the context of personal orientation and cultural dialogue. Its main goal is the language training of a competent specialist ready for professional and business communication in the framework of international cooperation. Comparison and analysis of facts and phenomena belonging to different cultures should be the main procedures for introducing students to a new cultural reality.

Nowadays, the theory of teaching a foreign language focuses on the students’ active work in mastering the language. It fits into the ideas of developing education. Communication efficiency depends on many factors: knowledge of the language, communication conditions and culture, etiquette rules, knowledge of non-verbal forms of expression (facial expressions, gestures), deep background knowledge that all representatives of a given linguistic community are familiar with, etc.

Preparation for intercultural interaction involves the development of a person’s intercultural sensitivity (Ennis & Riley, 2018). The formation of a tolerant attitude provides the recognition of those features of a stranger and one’s own culture that may affect successful communication or good language training.

The student must be able to carry out intercultural communication in compliance with the norms or rules of speech behaviour adopted in the country of the language under study. In this regard, the course of speech etiquette is an integral part of the pedagogical training of a future specialist.

An important part of speech etiquette is avoiding the communicative taboos that are in force in national communication, the prohibitions on the use of certain expressions or touching on certain topics in different communicative situations (Byram et al., 2013).

The desire to comply with the norms of a foreign speech culture shows respect for the representatives of this culture and has a positive impact on achieving mutual understanding in the process of communication and helps establish friendly relations between communicators.

Modern profession-oriented teaching technologies allow us to gain experience in intercultural communication in the process of modelling cultural space during the lesson. Practice-oriented communicative tasks aimed at the formation of intellectual flexibility and tolerance towards foreign language speakers and their culture contribute to the assimilation of new knowledge and the development of skills and behaviours in a foreign culture environment.

The knowledge and understanding of the similarities and differences between the cultures of the native country and the country of the language studied allow students to choose a style of behaviour in the process of intercultural communication, to critically assess the situation of communication, to adequately and respectfully treat others national etiquette and to show interest in the culture and history of the country (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013).

The specificity of the foreign language studied and its culture becomes apparent when juxtaposing languages and cultures, similarly as one’s native culture is revealed in comparison with a foreign one.

Therefore, the ways for the future specialist in the field of intercultural communications to form and develop a value picture of the world involve teaching foreign language communication in the context of a dialogue of cultures, developing the personality of students, and raising the need for constant self-education as a means of socio-cultural development of the world.

5. CONCLUSION

Profession-oriented technology in training a foreign language teacher in modern conditions is aimed at teaching intercultural interaction and involves sensory perception and interpretation of cultural differences. Introducing students to intercultural differences in relationships with the representatives of other cultures through situations that
It is necessary to draw the attention of future specialists in intercultural communication to the knowledge of stereotypes that are important for intercultural communication and allow them to make assumptions about the causes of failures and possible consequences of theirs and other people’s actions.

occur differently in various cultures allows students to overcome the stereotypes of foreign language verbal behaviour and prepare the transfer of knowledge to other situations. Ignoring cultural differences hinders the establishment of fruitful relationships between communicators.

It is necessary to draw the attention of future specialists in intercultural communication to the knowledge of stereotypes that are important for intercultural communication and allow them to make assumptions about the causes of failures and possible consequences of theirs and other people’s actions. They are very useful and effective for communication, as they help communication partners to understand situations considering the socio-cultural context, they can clarify much about what is desirable and what is not, and what is taboo in a particular culture.

The ability to decode information about the identity of the interlocutor puts the communicant in conditions equal to those of a different culture. This knowledge allows not only choosing the right tone for communication, but also avoiding painful issues in discussion and better understanding the psychology of the partner. Thus, in order to speak a foreign language correctly, one needs to know the behavioural norms, psychology and the culture of one’s communication partner in order to prevent misunderstandings.

The introduction of informational and communicative technologies in the process of profession-oriented foreign language teaching offers educational didactic opportunities, as well as significantly enriching the educational process. A foreign language lesson is filled with new content, while students develop a creative outlook and rational working skills, which improve language acquisition qualities.

The concept of a new type of training is guided by the competent model of a specialist in the field of intercultural communication in accordance with modern requirements under new working conditions. The introduction of advanced teaching technologies into the educational process using modern technical means best contributes to solving the problem of training a competitive specialist.

At the present stage, the main feature in foreign language teaching methods’ development is the transformation of the linguistic-educational paradigm from communicative to intercultural. This change is caused, among other things, by the use of computer programmes of various types (teaching, applied, instrumental, telecommunication), aimed at creating an integrated learning environment, with the help of which students are completely immersed in the linguistic environment being studied and in foreign language culture, which significantly expands and deepens their communicative and professional competence.

The teacher’s facilitation helps students’ improve their awareness of the purpose of work, their ability to choose rational means and techniques, i.e. the ability to independently acquire knowledge and work creatively with information. Naturally, this should have a significant impact both on the effectiveness of academic work and the development of a positive environment for teaching staff. The new concept of training competent specialists in the system of higher linguistic education involves creating optimal conditions for unlocking students’ personal potential in the educational process.

Thus, training of competitive specialists is about raising the culture of foreign language teaching to a qualitatively new level, ensuring students’ development and social adaptation, and contributing to the formation of an appropriate environment for social and personal development.
References


Teaching academic writing: A shift towards intercultural rhetoric

by Elina S. Chuikova

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New trends in cross-cultural studies are aimed at the analysis and definition of interculture that is generated in a classroom in the process of cultural integration. Academic writing interculture remains a potentially appealing area for research since this topical issue is almost neglected in the Russian-English interactive teaching context. Sociocultural peculiarities of the English and Russian rhetorical traditions have been thoroughly investigated by the English-speaking and native scholars. However, the characteristics of a new culture formed by the merging of different traditions are under discussion. Intercultural rhetoric brings a new and expanded view on writing culture and requires further research. The paper presents statics on the basis of Master’s students’ texts, estimates which elements of academic writing merge. The author studies various levels of cultural mismatches, discusses if the integration tendencies take place at any of text creation levels, and argues that authenticity coupled with individuality pertains greatly to the quality of academic texts. In conclusion the tendencies and changes in academic writing style and individual thinking style of the Russian students are summarised. The results indicate the formation of two major characteristics in academic intercultural communication: individuality and authenticity.

KEYWORDS: academic writing, intercultural writing, cultural mismatch, authorial voice, text authenticity

1. INTRODUCTION

Intercultural communication tends to blur boundaries between the engaged cultures. Taken for granted the fact that cultures initially possess their specific features, researchers in the field of cross-cultural studies realised that cultures merge into one. Consequently, the epoch of cross-cultural studies has been replaced by intercultural ones. The term ‘intercultural rhetoric’ is now considered as ‘the most appropriate name for this area of study that provides an appropriate connotation of collaborative interaction between and among cultures’ (Connor, 2011). A new scientific paradigm inevitably influences a foreign language (FL) teaching practice; and the area of teaching academic writing is not an exception. The writing classroom based on English for academic purposes (EAP) presents a unique case in which the predo-
The term 'intercultural rhetoric' is now considered into one. Consequently, the epoch of cross-cultural studies realised that cultures merge their specific features, researchers in the field of teaching practice; and the area of teaching academic genres (Connor, 2011). A new scientific paradigm approached, and prewriting-drafting-revising strategy of teaching writing was first implemented in Russian language classrooms. Nowadays these ideas are commonly used in the English writing classes as well, but without a clear picture of how some rules of one written culture merge into another. The article hopes to initiate the research within the Russian scholars interested in intercultural rhetoric.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The research material presented in the study includes a scope of students’ works. The students took part in Master’s degree programme ‘Foreign Languages in Education’ in 2017/2018 and 2018/2019 academic years at Moscow City University (Samara Branch). The experimental work was arranged in the Foreign Language Department and lasted for 2 academic years. It involved 28 students who, by the end of the programme, had to compile a story of their research and to present it in the annotated form. The groups of students were heterogeneous. Students who graduated from Samara Branch of Moscow City University had previously a basic course of academic writing. In contrast, students graduating from other higher institutions in the region may have had no essential experience in academic writing. To assess the results the following steps were to be taken:

- culture specific elements of academic writing needed systemising;
- a course of academic writing needed planning and organisation;
- there was a need to develop the descriptors to assess text authenticity and measure its deviation from the model one; we used statistics to estimate which elements of English academic written culture were adapted to a greater extent by Master’s students.

Students taking Academic writing course imitate model texts and language patterns. Subconsciously they compare the way they communicate in the academic context in their native language culture. ‘Learners can mimic the behavioural patterns of that community derived from the authentic text to a certain extent since the first goal is to communicate and not to behave like someone else...”
which means somehow losing one’s social and linguistic identity’ (Ciorni & Dina, 2015, p. 275).

The aim of students’ academic texts analysis was to pinpoint the elements of writing interculture in the classroom with the Russian students.

3. STUDY AND RESULTS
3.1. Systemising culture-specific elements of academic writing

To address the research questions suggested above, along with an argumentative writing task, two other instruments were required: one measuring authenticity of an academic text, and another one measuring what elements of the English academic written culture were adapted. The research procedure required developing a scheme and descriptors to analyse students’ texts quality.

Connor (2011) mentions the shift that intercultural rhetoric has made recently having found peculiar features of a written discourse beyond its logical structuring. Specific elements are also identified in style and in genre interpretation as well as in language implementation: ‘genre analysis and corpus linguistics have been brought into intercultural rhetoric’ (Connor, 2011, p. 5). A more detailed classification of sociocultural mismatches may be presented in the form of hierarchy. There were numerous attempts to systemise the levels of text creation, at which various sociocultural mismatches appear (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicative task interpretation</td>
<td>Motivational / Pragmatic level</td>
<td>Background knowledge of a person</td>
<td>Sociology of writing</td>
<td>Cross-cultural difference in thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea selection</td>
<td>Linguo-cognitive level</td>
<td>Semantic organisation and structuring</td>
<td>Organisation level</td>
<td>Cross-cultural difference in writing patterns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>Verbal-semantic level</td>
<td>Language level of a person</td>
<td>Language level</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

In analysing various classifications / text models describing levels where sociocultural differences might be found, it is possible to distinguish levels that overlap in the presented studies. These are the four levels as listed below:
– interpretation of the communicative task level: task / thesis / genre mismatches;
– organisation level: linear English writing vs non-linear Russian style of writing;
– idea selection level: the material should be credible and familiar or clearly explained to the potential audience of another culture;

At any level of text production cultural literacy should be defined further. Students’ works frequently contain sociocultural mismatches at the linguistic and organisational levels. Obviously, motivation or pragmatic reasons are not explicitly realised in the text, yet cross-cultural mismatches at other levels may be distinguished (Table 2).

As was previously mentioned, the groups of Master’s students were heterogeneous. Some of the students lacked the essential basic experience in academic writing (‘non-academic’ students). They did not get acquainted with the requirements for academic texts till the moment they actually faced the need to publish the results of their own research in English.
Table 2
Sociocultural mismatches in academic texts of Master’s students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TEXT LEVEL</th>
<th>ELEMENTS OF THE ACADEMIC TEXT REALISED AT THE LEVEL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>– text structure should correspond to the genre;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– basic requirements are met (thesis statement, topic sentence, framing);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– logical arguments organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea selection</td>
<td>– relevance of research topic;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– original ideas;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– argumentative, source-based writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>– academic vocabulary;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– professional vocabulary;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– high lexical density;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– active grammar forms;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– variety in syntax structures;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– hedging;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– avoidance of non-qualified statements;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>– overall language competence: use of grammar and vocabulary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2. Planning and organising an Academic Writing course for Master’s students

At the University Master’s students are supposed to take an elective course of Academic Writing. Additionally, some formats of academic writing / text genres are discussed, studied and created within other disciplines: English for Professional Purposes, Speech Practice in a Foreign Language. The genres in which Master’s students have practice are abstracts and summaries. Students are supposed to write summaries or profession-oriented articles in the field of students’ research as well as to write their own articles which present researchers’ original ideas. To prepare students for professional communication at the intercultural level, they should experience an extensive training that will ensure effective real-life interaction. The chosen genres for students’ practice are the most typical ones for applying EAP in Russia.

The linguists who follow Noam Chomsky’s theory of language acquisition consider a language to be not primarily a tool for communication. A language might present a system or subsystem of thought. Thus, at the post-graduate stage of studies creative thinking skills are developed alongside with academic language skills: ‘Creative thinking encompasses a range of intellectual abilities including the ability to generate numerous ideas (fluency), produce ideas of various types (flexibility), build on existing ideas (elaboration), and produce original ideas (originality)’ (Paul & Elder, 2019, p. 58). Students who have already had a preliminary Academic Writing course at Bachelor’s level gained more opportunities to work at the original content, at the process of generating ideas. On the contrary, ‘non-academic’ students were to spend time on studying general requirements of academic writing, learn the ABC of Anglo-American rhetoric tradition (Table 3).

The requirements for academic texts in Anglo-American tradition, including the unwritten rules of academic discourse, have been thoroughly analysed in recent years. For instance, hedging was a new phenomenon that Russian writing instructors faced within the framework of contrastive rhetoric a decade ago. Nowadays, hedging is known as one of the types of vague language use. Thus, McGee (2018) lists three types of vague expressions including vague categories, approximations and hedging. Other researches point out that hedging is implemented differently in various types of discourse. In the academic context Gribanova and Gaidukova (2019) analyse ‘approximators’ or ‘rounders’. Some of them are used in case the exact or precise information is of no importance to the speaker, as in almost, about, approximately and something between, while others disclaim responsibility for the general truth of the information.
Table 3
Contents of Academic Writing course for Master’s students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ESSENTIAL TOPICS FOR STUDENTS HAVING TAKEN PRELIMINARY ACADEMIC WRITING COURSE AT BACHELOR’S LEVEL</th>
<th>ESSENTIAL TOPICS FOR ‘NON-ACADEMIC’ STUDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic communication in Russia: potential application of academic writing competence</td>
<td>Structuring argumentation in English: thesis statement, topic, types of arguments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglo-American linear way of thinking</td>
<td>Academic genres: abstract, summary, article, speech writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural elements of academic texts: background information, material, research methods, presenting results, practical application</td>
<td>Academic language style (basic requirements): tone of formality, syntax, academic vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elements of style (professional requirements): professional terminology, language density, hedging, active grammar, authorial voice, correction of non-qualified statements</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Conveyed in the utterance, as in I think, I take it, probably, as far as I can tell, right now, I have to believe, I don’t see that.

Therefore, having distinguished specific elements of English academic writing style, a few researchers study further which of these elements have been incorporated into the culture they ‘communicate’ with, i.e. which elements have been adapted by non-English students. To understand why some requirements of academic context are adapted while others remain ignored is seemingly the next possible stage in intercultural studies.

3.3. Developing the descriptors to assess students’ works authenticity

To assess students’ works authenticity, a scheme of descriptors and a new system of calculating were introduced into the experimental teaching practice. The coefficient of academic text authenticity ($C_{auth}$) discloses the interrelations between students’ ability to create original text, their academic literacy and ability to present academic skills in another cultural context, not a native one (Chuikova, 2018).

In assessing text authenticity, we followed three essential requirements to academic writing.

1. A writer should provide a reader with an original content / idea, which is derived from understanding a primary function of an academic text as a critical evaluation of the given facts and building new knowledge. The indicators that allow to assess original content are specified further:
   – how autonomous a writer is in the choice of a topical issue;
   – how autonomous a writer is in the choice of the sources to base research on;
   – how original the ideas are, i.e. if a writer does not merely report, but rather analyses the evidence from the selected sources;
   – if a writer is able to present a dialogue of different viewpoints in the content that indicates author’s professional outlook;
   – if there is a dialogue of old and new theories or approaches organised as a discussion in a text;
   – if the prospects for practical implementation of the ideas are suggested in a text;
   – if a writer is able to highlight the perspectives for further research on the topic.

In fact, the descriptors of the text originality in-
dicate the author’s competence in the sphere of their research, ability to find a personal niche in this sphere, and ability to present their individual vision on the discussed issues. All the skills that allow to create an original text form the so-called ‘authorial voice’ – ‘individual voice in L2 texts in terms of assertiveness, self-identification, reiteration of the central idea, and writer presence and autonomy of thought’ (Zabihi et al., 2019, p. 333).

2. A writer should follow strict requirements to academic texts, i.e. they should possess academic literacy. Academic literacy that assists in achieving context authenticity is a heterogeneous criterion. The conventions accepted in an academic context and shaping our academic writing competence include student’s autonomy at different stages of text creation: autonomy in brainstorming, outlining, writing, editing, rewriting and presenting a text; structuring skills; style of writing; manner of presenting final results after self-editing (Chuikova, 2019).

Writers possess academic literacy if they are able to identify the topic of a text, select material, formulate a thesis statement, choose suitable and credible arguments, structure a text, edit the text itself, submit the assignment in time, work with editor’s proofs, and reflect on final results. This minimal set of skills is gradually developed in students within the course of academic writing. No one expects a student to be absolutely autonomous in this process. As a result, a coefficient of academic literacy of a beginner writer is lower than that of an experienced researcher who has already got published.

In outlining and further writing, the author requires knowledge and skills of structuring academic texts. Text structure should fit the specific genre requirements. The common requirements to any academic text should also be met (topic statement, framing). Logical arguments should be organised in the traditions of Anglo-American rhetorical style. Understanding the fact that English is the only 100%-writer responsible language adds greatly to skills of structuring ideas in a linear way.

While moving through all the stages of text creation, a writer should not forget the fixed formal requirements for academic style of writing: use of academic vocabulary, professional vocabulary, information density, active grammar forms, syntax structures variability, hedging, avoidance of non-qualified statements.

Language formality does not exclude language competence in the use of grammar and vocabulary which are proofread and corrected before presenting the final draft. Work presentation skills assist in making correct title page, organising in-text citations and references.

3. Cultural literacy is characterised by writer’s ability to adapt to culturally-determined requirements in the academic context while switching from a native language into a foreign one. This ability is persistently developed through cross-cultural analysis of writing conventions, reading and analysing model texts and extracts. The practice of cross-cultural analysis enhances editing skills and informs of written and unwritten rules in writing academic texts.

Possible cultural mistakes are presented in Table 2 and may be classified according to the level of a text where they may be found:

– at the motivation level: task / thesis / genre mismatches;
– at the content level: the author checks if the material is credible and easy to be perceived / understood by potential audience belonging to another culture;
– at the organisation level: the representatives of a contrastive rhetoric distinguish differences in the style people of different cultures use in thinking and presenting their ideas;
– at the linguistic level: our L2 accent is obvious, for instance, through some mismatches in the use of academic words collocations, passive constructions instead of active grammar, complex syntax typical for the Russian language instead of precise syntax in English.

Using the formula to calculate the coefficient of text authenticity (Chuikova, 2018) we may estimate the average level of text authenticity in Master’s students:

\[ C_{ata} = \frac{\text{content authenticity} + \text{academic literacy}}{\text{sociocultural mismatches in written communication}} \]
All the participants are native speakers of Russian and are studying English as an academic major. Out of 28 participants, 14 were the students who entered Moscow City University (Samara Branch) after graduating other higher institutions. They had no previous experience of taking a special course in Academic Writing. In the results interpretation they are indicated as non-academic students. Admittedly, they had some knowledge of writing academic texts, but it was non-systematic and insufficient as it was gained mostly through uncontrolled written practice. Academic Writing course at the post-graduate stage was the first time for non-academic students when they got a professional extensive feedback on their writing competence and guided practice in writing competence development.

In order to measure students’ texts authenticity an analytical scoring was used. The coefficient of academic text authenticity $C_{ala}$ may vary from 1 to 20.

Bachelor’s students are usually assessed within the score from 1.5 to 3.5, Master’s students show the results within the bands from 4 to 11, professional writes may have a score higher than 12 (Table 4).

### Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS OF MASTER’S STUDENTS</th>
<th>PRE-COURSE MEAN (OUT OF 20)</th>
<th>POST-COURSE MEAN (OUT OF 20)</th>
<th>MAX</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students who took preliminary Academic Writing course at Bachelor’s level 2017/2018</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-academic’ students 2017/2018</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students who took preliminary Academic Writing course at Bachelor’s level 2018/2019</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-academic’ students 2018/2019</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Low level of academic literacy that non-academic students had before taking a course did not allow them to reach results compatible with those of students who had had a preliminary Academic Writing course. Still the progress is obvious in both groups of students. Analytical rubrics that were used to assess students’ original content, academic literacy and cultural literacy assisted in estimating which elements of text production were better corrected and adapted by Master’s students. Among the elements that contribute most to the increase of text authenticity are those adding to academic text originality:

- structuring abstracts / articles: Master’s students get new experience experimenting with profession-oriented text genres;
- topicality of the research topic: at this stage students gain a more profound knowledge in their field and, luckily, successfully find their niche for a research;
- original ideas: by this time students start designing model classes, a succession of lessons or a module to teach; practical implementation of a theoretically designed system brings certain results; being new, this experience and its description and presentation in the articles increase the amount of the original material;
- source-based writing: regardless language competency level most students refer to literature review as the type of argumentation; referencing or ‘academic honesty’ (Thompson et al., 2017) pertains greatly to academic text authenticity;
– practical implementation of the ideas: some students may have already tried practicing new ideas in the educational process; in case they are still forming theoretical base for their research, they should set realistic goals and see the potential area for application of their ideas, i.e. their practical value;

– professional vocabulary: reading sources in the research area, students subconsciously learn professional terminology and most typical professional phrases and word collocations;

– active grammar forms, personal statements: it was estimated that students with high skills in academic language display higher results due to their academic language competence; however, these language elements cause a clash in students’ minds as they present straight the opposite culture-marked feature, i.e. collectivism vs individualism.

4. DISCUSSION

Master’s students aspire to reinforce their language skills and prefer to have additional language practice. Unfortunately, half of students perceive Academic Writing course as part of their language education that is aimed at the development of their overall language skills and communicative competence. However, step by step they realise that the course provides them with the specific knowledge and skills which they may further employ in their teaching or science career paths. In recent years the writing programme preparing students for the international communication has moved to teaching students to produce texts of distinctive patterns and of a particular style. Researchers revealed that students gain new knowledge and skills through their writing and editing practice.

An organised and guided peer revision may raise students’ awareness in four areas: (1) awareness of an academic text genre they give their peer feedback on; (2) academic writing skills required at all text creation levels; (3) awareness of external assistance that may serve as a basis for students’ potential growth as academic writers; and (4) an opportunity to become a more reflective and critical academic writer (Yu, 2019).

‘Taking Academic Writing course, a learner receives a unique chance to raise their awareness in professional editing’

The last area covers students’ way in finding their niche and gaining autonomy of thought, which is interpreted as searching for the authorial voice (Zabihi et al., 2019). Taking Academic Writing course, a learner receives a unique chance to raise their awareness in professional editing. To make every peer review section as productive as possible, a writing instructor generally provides students with specifically designed guidelines that teaches them what aspects of the text they should focus on, how they can assess various aspects of writing and what details they should pay attention to in other writers’ works. Further this knowledge may transform into a deeper knowledge of the aspects that students should assess and edit in their own texts before submitting an assignment or presenting it in public.

Practicing two roles of a writer and an expert reader, academic writing students gain an opportunity to continue studies at the Russian and foreign institutions of higher education, to apply for a place of a writing tutor in a writing centre, to design and organise the course of Academic Writing, to participate in the international events in their research careers.

Learning the conventions of intercultural communication, Russian students also adapt some elements of a new style of thinking studied by intercultural rhetoric. The intercultural area in Academic Writing class in Russia is mostly extended by the original content and the author’s original style of writing. Some elements of language use and style are adapted, shaping an individual style in the native culture as well.

Previously, the methods of cross-cultural rhetoric used to orient any culture to the potential audience needs. Further, intercultural rhetoric researchers assumed that ‘a speaker’s public image might not require significant attention when the topic involves collectivistic cultures’ (Bardhan, 2016, p. 4). Nowadays we may start analysing a new
tendency. The incorporation of Anglo-American rhetoric tradition resulted in the fact that scientific journals in Russia have started requiring more precise and more factual data-based writing. The novelty of the work and personal researcher’s contribution is of great demand. Fortunately, taking academic writing course in English helps the author disclose their contribution. The style of writing in most cases becomes more individual.

Finding the authorial voice has always been considered an important task for a writing student. However, finding the individual style in EAP writing classes involves peculiar qualitative characteristics. It requires skilful work on argumentation as the most distinctive feature. Some scholars are doubtful on the possibility and necessity to develop individual writing style in the course of foreign language writing practice (Zabihi et al., 2019, p. 236). To explain a negative perception, it is vital to list other elements of the authorial voice are reflected in the author’s ability to choose individually: topic, niche, arguments, and credible sources. Sometimes students from a different cultural tradition ‘largely resist to what the instructor had taught in class about evidence use’ (Liu & Du, 2018). Thus, difficulties of interiorising in a new sphere of English application (EAP) is coupled with sociocultural mismatches. However, Russian students add considerable individuality to the text as soon as they learn new strategies to develop their voice in writing. No resistance was shown within the course of Academic Writing for Master’s students. The strategy of adapting to a new more straightforward and individualistic style turns to be highly efficient, as an authorial voice is assessed as ‘a significant predictor of text quality’ (Zhao, 2017).

5. CONCLUSION
In general, writing academic texts in English sharpens students’ minds. The practice of writing for academic purposes builds the author’s individual style and teaches them to be original and credible. This implication requires further detailed research, namely: (1) to be certain that while learning to write academic texts students also practice and find their authorial voice, we need to define how we evaluate an authorial voice, what descriptors indicate that it really exists and/or that it gradually develops; (2) to make a credible conclusion that in Russian practice of teaching Anglo-American academic discourse an authorial voice raises as a part of intercultural communication practice, we should describe those particular elements in the structure of an authorial voice that do not normally characterise a native writing culture.

Data analysis provided by Morton and Storch (2019), Zabihi et al. (2019), Zhao (2017) shows that at both secondary and postsecondary levels an authorial voice is assessed by the tutors as a crucial element of an authentic, original text. Whether we need ‘to support or refute the proposition that voice is an important concept to teach in L2 writing classrooms’ (Zhao, 2017) remains a point of discussion. However, subconsciously writing tutors assess students’ voices and to which extent they are clear enough to produce an effect on a reader. There is a strong positive association between the strength of an authorial voice and the quality of the authors’ text, ‘results from Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA) pointed to the association of low and mid-level of writing quality and low voice strength, and the prevalence of high and mid voice strength in learners with high proficiency in writing’ (Zabihi et al., 2019, p. 331).

Among the most vivid descriptors to indicate the quality of the author’s voice or the writer’s presence are: self-identification expressions; intensifiers; selecting and combining the available resources; lexical, syntactic, punctuation features of writing responding to other voices; and autonomy of thought (Zabihi et al., 2019, p. 331).

This paper highlighted that the level of voice strength in L2 argumentative writings among Russian learners of English changes within the course of academic writing practice. Data analysis indicated a significant shift in the voices’ strength at the postgraduate level. While calculating academic text authenticity coefficient, it was estimated that Master’s students got higher scores than Bachelor’s students (Master’s students results within the bands from 4 to 11 compared to 1.5 – 3.5 bands for Bachelors). Mostly the raise of text authenticity is in-
icated through the increase of such text qualities of the Russian students as original ideas, source-based writing, and more active grammar forms through which the authors start expressing personal contribution to the area of their research. These criteria of text authenticity somehow indicate a potential strength of the authorial voice as well as correspond to the descriptors of the author’s voice. Consequently, the qualities of authenticity and individuality are merged in academic texts.

To fit into the modern educational context, to look more authentic, L2 writers need additional training. For this reason, a new system of teaching academic writing has been formed. The system aimed at meeting cultural expectations should be characterised by the revised aims, contents of the Academic Writing course, teaching materials, teaching strategies that involve cross-cultural comparison. Additionally, a new process of assessment should be introduced for students to better understand the needs of their potential readers.

A certain limitation to the research results may be found in the target group. Post-graduate students belong to the group of learners who have formed a strong professional motivation. They know that they should follow conventions to be successful in the chosen career and show little or no resistance to the material taught. They easily adapt numerous culture-specific requirements. However, a specific feature of written intercultural communication in the English academic writing classroom with the Russian students is boosting of individualism and authenticity. They adopt a direct approach in conveying information to readers, manifest their unique voices, and choose more language elements to underline personal contribution (choice of pronouns, active constructions, intensifiers). A new adapted style allows the authors – Master’s students – to learn to reveal their personal contribution to the research. The practice of intercultural communication, in its turn, reveals that finding one’s individual voice meets the potential reader’s high expectations in the academic context.

In conclusion, authenticity coupled with individuality pertains greatly to the quality of academic texts. Accepting these conventions, adopting intercultural manner and style of academic writing, students gain an effective strategy and a key to success in the international communication.

References


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Business cultural training in a globalised economy

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As the economy globalises the concept of cultural training in business needs a rethink. As this paper explains, the key change is that every area of business increasingly involves multinationals, making the cultural analysis of countries as independent entities increasingly irrelevant. Cultural trainers are having to think in different terms in training businesses to improve performance in new markets, overseas branches, multinational teams, joint ventures and international mergers and acquisitions and above all to create trust. This change is presenting the models developed by thinkers like Hofstede, Trompenaars, Lewis and Meyer in a different light, placing emphasis on the concepts they have developed rather than the countries they apply them to. This paper explores how cultural concepts can be applied to business and suggests practical training activities to raise cultural awareness and improve business performance. The author concludes that cultural training is an aspect of management training, not an extension of language training, although understanding something about the language and even speaking it is important in avoiding misunderstandings and communication breakdown.

KEYWORDS: intercultural communication, international business, cultural models, globalisation

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Business Cultural Trainers Certificate

This paper is based on the training programme of the Business Cultural Trainers Certificate (BCTC) taught at International House London, one of the world’s leading language and cultural training private school chains. The BCTC is a three-day intensive programme aimed at language teachers who want to diversify their careers into business training, existing cultural trainers wishing to increase their skills and competences and HR managers seeking to introduce cultural training into their companies. The three-day programme covers cultural programming and research, programme design and marketing and delivery. This paper identifies the key issues faced by delegates and how they can be overcome.

1.2. Why culture matters in international business practices

Twenty years ago, at an international trade fair, Barry Tomalin asked the director of a leading relocation firm when culture was important. The answer was when they had a problem and could not find another solution. Today, the situation is very different. As long ago as 2012 an Economist Intel-
ligence Unit 2012 survey interviewed business managers from 68 countries. The survey revealed that 98% of managers interviewed saw cross-cultural management as their biggest challenge across borders and that 51% cited different cultural traditions as the greatest threat to cross-border relationships and 49% cited different cultural norms (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2012).

In his book entitled *The World is Flat*, New York Times correspondent Thomas Friedman laid out the principle of globalisation with brutal clarity as whatever can be produced more cheaply somewhere else in the world will be (Friedman, 2006). This explains that products we buy in our stores and supermarkets, marketed by nationally and internationally recognised firms are manufactured where labour is cheapest.

There is no question that cultural issues affect every area of international business from multinational teams within a company, overseas offices and branches, international banking and transfer of funds, international supply chain management, international joint ventures, or JVs, and international mergers and acquisitions.

The key areas of international business influenced by different cultural operational practices are capital flows (money, currency transfers, assets transfers), production (manufacturing), supply chain management, jobs (relocation and work migration) and migration due to climate change and war. All these have huge cultural and social implications.

1.3. The influence of ICTs and automation

The influence of cultural differences in ways of working has been accentuated by electronic contact through ICTs (Information and Communication Technologies) through the Internet and social media (Naughton, 2012). This has both increased the contact between markets and brought to the fore differences in the use of language, particularly the English language. The international language of the Internet is recognised to be English (the most used language is Mandarin) but different forms of expression in English can cause problems. Tomalin and Nicks (2014) give the advice to writers using the Internet in English: (1) keep your sentences short, 15 to 25 words maximum; (2) check your communications before you send them (if there are too many ‘and’ and ‘but’, maybe you could change them into separate sentences to make them shorter and clearer); (3) If you are starting a new though or suggestion, begin a new paragraph, it will make it clearer; (4) finally, leave a line space between paragraphs, it will make your communication easier to read and to understand. Tomalin and Nicks (2014) also suggest ways of greeting and signing off emails and online correspondence. What they describe as ‘the new brutal’, beginning sentences with a name, e.g. ‘Barry’ and no sign-off may be efficient in northern Europe but be less well received in Eastern Europe or Asia. It may be better to use ‘Dear’ and also to sign off with ‘Regards’, ‘Best wishes’ or ‘Kind Regards’, depending on the relationship.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Cross-culture or interculture?

Intercultural training has been traditionally based on models developed by linguists, anthropologists and psychologists over the last fifty years or so. Once again these have been based on studies of companies and employee based on the country of origin. The globalising of the world economy has meant that the understanding of cultural relations has changed and that we now need to use a broader perspective and a less restrictive terminology (Livermore, 2011).

It is interesting that the study of international cultures has gone through a number of terminological changes in the last fifty years, reflecting to some degree the changes in attitude to the relationship. Fifty years ago, ‘culture clash’ was not uncommon. Even as late as 1996, in a much broader context, Samuel Huntington referred to the ‘Clash of Civilisations’ as the title of his book predicting future ideological conflicts (Huntington, 1996). As the recognition of the need to formalise strategies of adaptation grew and theories developed to encompass it, ‘Culture Clash’ was replaced by ‘Cross-cultural Communication’. Essentially, this means that I do not change my thinking and beha-
Tomalin and Nicks (2014) give the advice to writers that using language is Mandarin) but different forms of the Internet is recognised to be English (the most international language. The international language for differences in the use of language, particularly on Technologies) through the Internet and social war. All these have huge cultural and social impli-
cations.

2.1. Cross-culture or interculture?

All business culture depends on understanding three things – the three core drivers, as Tomalin and Nicks (2014) describe them:

- business expectations (based to a degree on national attitudes and values);
- business communication styles (including directness and indirectness, presentations, meetings, negotiation and networking styles);
- business management styles (including attitudes to time, how teams are organised and run).

2.2. Culture is a sub category of all management processes

There is a danger that language teachers put cultural differences ahead of the essential factor of business, making a profit. As pointed out above, getting the culture wrong is increasingly recognised as a way of losing money. One of the most famous European/American failures was the merger between the German Daimler Benz automobile company and the US Chrysler automobile company in 1998, the price being a $39 billion stock swap. Eight years later, the merger having nowhere near reached its projected share price value the merger collapsed and was sold to Cerberus Capital management in a $7.4 billion exchange, a loss of $31.6 billion. The principle reason for the failure of the merger between the two national automobile companies? The failure of understanding between the Chrysler (US) and Daimler Benz (German) management cultures. As a joke among the Chrysler workers at the time had it, ‘How do you spell Daimler Chrysler?’ The answer? ‘D-A-I-M-L-E-R. The Chrysler is silent’.

What happens is that cultural misunderstandings often frustrate efficient business process, destroying trust and confidence, leading to low productivity, falling profits, failed assignments, capital losses and failed international Joint ventures and mergers and acquisitions (Lewis & Hammerich, 2016). Teachers need to learn that understanding business culture depends on understanding three things – the three core drivers, as Tomalin and Nicks (2014) describe them:

- business expectations (based to a degree on national attitudes and values);
- business communication styles (including directness and indirectness, presentations, meetings, negotiation and networking styles);
- business management styles (including attitudes to time, how teams are organised and run).

2.3. Countries vs communities – the avoidance of essentialism

According to Zhu (2014), ‘essentialism’ is a term that expresses the view that everyone in a country conforms to a set of countrywide beliefs and behaviours. It enables us to say, ‘The British are like this’ or ‘The Germans are like that’. It is a tremendously convenient way or classifying people’s cultural behaviour but it increasingly untrue, if indeed, it was ever true.

Assessing attitudes and behaviours by national characteristics easily becomes stereotyping. Although a nationality is a useful starting point, use generalisations to describe national characteristics and be aware of the different communities (regional and ethnic) that make up a nationality and use the word communities rather than nationalities when describing them. Finally, use intercultural rather than cross-cultural in all your dealings as it stresses the importance of interchange and interrelationship in dealing with people with different cultural experience from yours.

In training it is especially dangerous, although very easy to do, to classify people by national traits as everyone knows someone who does not conform to type and you can quickly be accused of dealing in stereotypes. This is a training ‘killer’. Stereotypes completely undermines your authority as an intercultural consultant. It is important to counter it by making sure that you substitute the word generalisations. ‘Stereotypes’ pigeonholes people and does not allow flexibility of attitude and behaviour. ‘Generalisation’ simply asserts that most people in a group adhere to a common set of beliefs and behaviours but that there are exceptions. In fact, we are all a mixture of a different range of experiences, which can be presented at five levels (Hurn & Tomalin, 2013):
‘Obviously, a degree of sensitivity to status and willingness to share personal information is important but it is interesting how people are happy to share and do not feel the questions are intrusive’

– national (your national culture);
– regional (your regional culture);
– professional (the influence of the organisations in which you have worked or studied);
– social – (the influence of where you grew up and age and gender);
– personal – (what makes you unique, including travel and other personal experiences you might wish to share).

National experience. I am British and was born in England so I probably have a number of characteristics I share with a number of people born in England.

Regional experience. I was born and brought up in the London area in the South. So, I also have to a degree, regional characteristics. If, however, I had been born and brought up in Devon, in the South West, Birmingham in the Midlands or Leeds in the North East, my regional characteristics might be much stronger.

Professional experience. Most people in executive positions or managerial support roles are affected by at least one of their professional experiences. They adopt as part of their operational style and culture the values and procedures of the organisation that has most influenced them.

Social experience. Our views and behaviours are also influenced by our social environment, our home environment, our education, and our parents. These influences can have profound effects on attitudes and behaviours, which may reinforce people’s attitudes in business.

Personal experience. This describes personal experience which may affect attitudes to different cultural communities and focuses mainly on travel or working / living abroad. It also covers personal interests, family and hobbies as these may be important in promoting good business relationships.

It is natural to start with the national experience. However, the important thing is never to stop there but when time and opportunity allow, to use that as a platform to drill down to more professional and potentially personal experience. This way you get a fuller idea of your counterpart’s background and interests. A good way to practise this is the ‘Get to know Jo’ activity.

Divide your group into pairs or groups of three and get them to ask each other questions. Even with closed groups within a company, where everyone knows each other, this can still be a very efficient and revealing exercise to find out more about your neighbour and build bonds within the group.

1. Ask everyone to stand up.
2. Ask everyone to pair off with someone they do not know very well. If there is an odd number, make yourself as part of the group or have one group of three.
3. Explain the five levels and the five types of question people can ask. Here are the questions.

National. Where are you from?
Regional. What part? What is it like there?
Professional. What did you do before you worked here? How was it different? What’s your main professional influence?
Social. Where were you brought up? What was it like?
Personal. Have you travelled much? Where to? Why to these places?

4. Each pair asks each other questions and discusses for 10-15 minutes.
5. Still standing, bring the group together. Ask the group, ‘Who learned something interesting?’

The answers are often very interesting ranging from, for example: ‘I discovered we were brought up two streets away from each other’, to ‘Jo’s father is Tibetan. He was brought up partly in Dharamsala in India and studied at the University of Delhi’.

Obviously, a degree of sensitivity to status and willingness to share personal information is important but it is interesting how people are happy to share and do not feel the questions are intrusive.
2.4. Concepts not country styles
Although the leading theorists of international business cultures have tended to choose country classification, as a matter of convenience, rather than group classification, their concepts still maintain value as features to examine, in the study of any particular cultural group. If you accept the three key areas of international business culture – expectations, communication styles and management styles (Hurn & Tomalin, 2013) – which are the core divers of intercultural understanding, then you can examine their concepts in your training within these three broad categories.

By expectations, Hurn and Tomalin (2013) are referring to client expectations of the business relationship – do they match yours and if not, how do you need to adapt? This might cover, for example, the difference between task-based management culture and relationship-based management cultures as presented by commentators such as Meyer (2014) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2012). By communication styles they mean the study of typical conversational patterns (such as direct or indirect communication), body language, presentation styles, how meetings are run and negotiations conducted and how business clients typically network and socialise. By management style they mean operational management (attitudes to time, how teams are organised and operate and how the working week is organised). Within this conceptual spectrum all the concepts explained in the models developed by Hofstede et al. (2010), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2012), Lewis (2018), Meyer (2014) and others can be incorporated but distinguished not by country but by organisational or individual management style.

What is also important is the establishment of paradigms rather than scores. Scoring countries out of a hundred on a linear scale has the effect of fixing a social group (in this case a national population) at a particular level. The adoption of paradigms placing communities along a line in relation to two vectors, for example, individual and collective decision-making, allows greater flexibility and better illustrates the relative preferences of one business community to another.

‘What is also important is the establishment of paradigms rather than scores’

2.5. Cultural due diligence
Lewis (2019) emphasises the importance of considering the importance of ‘human capital’ in international business and stresses the value of ‘cultural due diligence’. Due diligence is a business term used in mergers and acquisitions and joint ventures to describe how accountants and business managers assess the financial health and level of compliance with regulations of the organisation being acquired. Lewis (2019) argues that what is also needed is cultural due diligence – an examination of typical communication and management styles of the companies which are joining forces to avoid misunderstandings and failures in productivity leading to declining profits and ultimately failure.

Hurn and Tomalin (2013) break down the key features of cultural due diligence into five areas summarised as ECOLE. ECOLE, meaning ‘school’ in French is simply an acronym combining the first letters of the key concepts:

- **E** Expectations (values and attitudes);
- **C** Communication (language, presentations, meetings, negotiations and networking styles);
- **O** Organisation (time, teams, routines and projects);
- **L** Leadership (hierarchies, decisions, delegation and consultation, gender in management);
- **E** Etiquette (greetings, leave-taking, dress code, gift-giving, hospitality).

The authors also developed a system designed to explore affective relationships called MIRO standing for Motivation, Interest, Respect and Offence. Each component can be explained through the prism of cultural due diligence:

- **M** Motivation (how to motivate teams and colleagues);
- **I** Interest (how to show interest and build good personal relations);
- **R** Respect (how to show respect);
- **O** Offence (how to avoid causing offence).
All these terms present a framework of analysis designed to make it easier to prepare for and use these levers to achieve success in international business relationships by understanding the concepts and applying them to the issues that might arise.

2.6. Cultural relativity

This paper has already established that cultural characteristics vary according to background and experience but also they vary according to community. For example, you may consider me to be direct if you come from a culture where people tend to be more indirect but if you come from one where people are very direct in their opinions and feedback, I may be considered comparatively indirect. This is an example of cultural relativity, where different communities have different views according to their relative customs. This is well expressed by Meyer (2014) of INSEAD in her analysis of how negative feedback is given in different communities (Figure 1).

2.7. Definitions of culture

All definitions of culture are illuminating to an extent, but one of the most valuable, which actually relates to corporate cultures, is known as the ‘View and Do’ definition. Coined by Deal and Kennedy (1982), it goes like this: culture is the way we view and do things round here.

However, it is important to allow participants in cultural training programmes to form their own definitions of culture and this business culture definition activity is a simple, quick and effective way of doing so.

1. Divide the participants into groups of three or four (depending on group size).
2. Write up this sentence opening ‘Business culture is...’
3. Say they must complete the sentence.
4. The groups complete their sentences and read them to the group.
5. The group works together to produce a final definition they can all share.

2.8. Summing up

Although the models developed by thinkers such Hall (1959), Hofstede et al. (2010), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2012), Lewis (2018) and others are still valuable, the diversity of international business and ICTs have made it important to avoid essentialism and take other factors into account. The concepts they have developed can be applied to how individual corporations actually communicate and manage operations so as to minimise misunderstandings leading to errors and delays, which could otherwise have been avoided.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Cultural understanding

The three-day intensive BCTC divides into six sections: cultural understanding, research, resources, course design, marketing, and delivery. This part of the paper summarises each in turn and illustrates key training activities.

Cultural Understanding opening session focuses on the key principles outlined in Cultural Understanding and how it relates to business and language and uses the activities described therein.
3.2. Research
This section covers the theoretical background. It is important to understand the key concepts as applied to understanding culture developed by experts. These include Hall’s (1959) concepts of monochronic and polychronic approaches to tasks and high and low context communication, Hofstede et al.’s (2010) six dimensions, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner’s (2012) seven paradigms, Meyer’s (2014) eight scales of working relationships and the Lewis (2018) model. The value of having command of the theoretical background is that it gives confidence and shows the trainer knows to a degree what s/he is talking about. It does not compensate for experience and the knowledge of organisational communication and management in different communities, which you need to research and get examples of. One of the ways of doing this is through critical incident analysis.

3.2.1. Critical incident analysis
The founder of Critical Incident Analysis, first cited in 1954, was Robert D. Flanagan, a psychologist with the US Air Force. A critical incident is a summary of an intercultural misunderstanding expressed in a description of five or six lines or a short article. It lacks the depth and comprehensiveness of a case study as it focuses on a single incident or discussion but offers a clear focus for discussion and documents first impressions. Here is an example.

‘An English woman was moving house in France and went to a French supermarket to get some empty boxes to store bric a brac ready for the removal van. When she asked for some empty boxes she was surprised and shocked to receive the abrupt answer, ‘No’. Angrily she left the store but a friend advised her to go back and ask for customer relations. She did so and explained her situation in more detail. She received the same reply, ‘No’ but this time an explanation. ‘No, Madame, we don’t have any deliveries today but come tomorrow and you can take as many as you want.’

This may seem trivial but it affected both the woman’s trust and confidence in the supermarket and potentially lost them a regular customer. The analysis procedure recommended by Flanagan involves four stages: Analysis, Confrontation, Reflection, Commitment (to change) (Collins & Pieterse, 2007).

It is important to choose critical incidents relevant to the industry and where possible to the market you are dealing with in your training. One of the key tasks of a cultural trainer is to build a personal library of critical incidents which can be drawn on when needed.

3.2.2. MBI (Map, Bridge, Integrate)
This is an important tool for helping to understand and resolve cultural misunderstandings. Map, Bridge, Integrate (MBI) was developed by Distefano and Maznevski (2000) and goes through a number of stages to help identify and resolve cultural misunderstandings, as follows.

MAP: What are they doing/saying? What do I normally do/say? What’s the difference?

BRIDGE: Why are they doing/saying that? How am I perceived (empathising with their values and perception)?

INTEGRATE: What can I change? What have I learned? What will I do, say and, (above all), think next time?

Applied to our supermarket story above, the English woman learned that by explaining the context she would get a fuller and more useful response than simply making a request.

MBI is a most useful formula, which should be part of any manager’s toolkit in dealing with international situations. If you can understand another’s point of view you have a far better chance of finding a way to come to an agreement and make the most of the interaction.

3.3. Resources
It is hard to cover a whole community in a single programme but it can be useful to compile a profile of key markets to share with delegates. A useful activity taught by a former BCTC Lithuanian alumnus Laimonas Vykauskas is the Lithuania Quiz. It consists of ten statements of which five are true and five represent common misunderstandings about Lithuania (Table 1).
Table 1

The Lithuania Quiz (Mark these ten statements as true or false in the appropriate column)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>TRUE</th>
<th>FALSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Lithuania is a Balkan country.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X Baltic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Its capital is Riga.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X Vilnius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. There is a statue of US pop musician Frank Zappa in the capital.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Lithuania is 5 hours from London by air.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X 2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Lithuania’s population is about 2 million.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Vilnius University is the oldest in Central and Eastern Europe.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Lithuania was the first country in the region to declare independence from the Soviet Union in 1990.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Most Lithuanian business is with Russia.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Lithuanian currency is the Euro.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X Lita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Business in Lithuania is based on written agreements.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X Just like Western Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The traditional gift for Lithuanian hosts is vodka.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X They’re more beer drinkers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As you can see, I have printed the answers in what would otherwise be blank columns. The activity proceeds like this.  
1. The participants do the Lithuania quiz.  
2. In groups they choose a market and make their own quiz. Five statements should be true and five false. The five false statements reflect common misunderstandings about the country described.  
3. Groups exchange quizzes and do them.  
4. They check their answers with the group that compiled the quiz.  
5. Class discussion: what have the groups learned about mistaken impressions and how it influences opinions about different markets?

3.4. Course design

A fundamental error of cultural training is to believe that it is an extension of language training. It isn’t. Cultural training in a business environment is an aspect of management training and should be considered and planned as such. Whereas language training tends to be based on hours, management training tends to be based on half-days or days – about six contact hours plus breaks and lunch. The payment rate tends not to be hourly but daily, so is higher paid than language teaching and the aim is to improve client confidence and performance in dealing with other business organisations or multinational teams. Most important, perhaps is as a language trainer you assess your students but as a cultural trainer your client assesses you.

The basis of course design is not to plan by the hour, although that is possible, but to plan by the day or half day. In an eight-hour day with a six contact hour programme. A typical way of dividing up the day is to divide it into 90-minute sessions so the day might look like this:  
Session 1 (90 minutes) – Break (up to 30 minutes) – Session 2 (90 minutes).  
Session 3 (90 minutes) – Lunch (up to 60 minutes) – Session 4 (90 minutes).

The next question is what to include in each session. Going back to 2.5 Cultural due diligence,
a one-day programme might be divided up as follows (as per general recommendations).

Session 1 (90 minutes): Introduction, Client expectations, values and attitudes.
Session 2 (90 minutes): Communication.
Session 3 (90 minutes): Management organisation and leadership.
Session 4 (90 minutes): Etiquette and adaptation.

If you only have half a day (3-4 hours), then the most important areas are client expectations and communication styles.

### 3.5. Meeting client needs

A key requirement of any training course is to meet client needs. But in intercultural training how does a trainer know what the client’s needs are? In language training we can do a needs analysis, possibly through a language test supported by an oral interview but in business cultural training we need something different. Here are two ideas.

*Need to know*. Need to know refers to what the trainer needs to know about the client in order to design and focus the training programme to meet their requirements.

*Need to know questionnaire*. One way of doing this is through the Need to Know questionnaire, a questionnaire inviting the participants to describe their jobs, their responsibilities and their key challenges. However, this isn’t enough. First people may not complete their questionnaires and return them to you and if they do they may not wish to risk disclosing in public the issues they face.

This is why it is important to start any course with a ‘Need to know’ activity. Here is how it works.

1. Divide the class into groups of four or five. If they are seated ‘cabaret style’ at tables, then each table can form a group.
2. Thank those who have completed questionnaires, especially if on time.
3. Ask each group to exchange and agree on one key issue they would like to have answers to by the end of the workshop.
4. Each group then agrees on and nominates a rapporteur.

‘A key requirement of any training course is to meet client needs. But in intercultural training how does a trainer know what the client’s needs are? In language training we can do a needs analysis, possibly through a language test supported by an oral interview but in business cultural training we need something different’

5. After maximum ten minutes each rapporteur states their table’s agreed ‘need to know’ requirement.
6. Write them on a flipchart or whiteboard.
7. This is your agenda. Refer to it throughout the day to confirm that their ‘need to know’ points have been dealt with.

### 3.6. Marketing

Once again in planning the marketing of cultural training, especially as a freelancer, it is important to think of yourself not as a language trainer but as a management trainer or business consultant. This means pricing according to a daily rate not an hourly rate and finding out how much management trainers earn and pricing your service accordingly based on experience and qualifications.

Of course, the cultural training market is varied but the following five areas of training dominate the market.

1. Cultures of new markets and clients.
2. Multicultural team building and team working (including VDTs – Virtual Distributed Teams).
3. Diversity management.
4. Leadership and interpersonal management skills. The key most important qualities of an international manager.
5. Relocation and efficient management of culture shock.

Obviously and conveniently, depending on client demand elements of all these areas may be included in training.
‘In management training everything must be seen in the context of management expectations, communication and operations management style between and within companies and across markets, which is why cultural due diligence is so important’

3.7. Delivery

Practicality is the key to successful delivery, allowing participants to engage with real life problems, draw the lessons from them and see how to apply them in practice. Using an interactive approach, creating a forum for discussion will give insights into what works and what does not work in the client’s operations and allow the trainer to suggest strategies for improving performance. As a trainer you are not just dispensing knowledge but as a facilitator you are helping them find their own strategies for dealing with issues they face.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The key point to take away from this paper is that cultural training is an aspect of management training, not an extension of language training, although understanding something about the language and even speaking it is important in avoiding misunderstandings and communication breakdown. According to Lewis (2018), asking in a presentation, ‘Do you understand?’ may be seen as patronising in some markets whereas ‘Am I clear?’ may be much more acceptable.

With native English speakers the difference according to stress and intonation can be even more misleading. For instance, ‘Quite good’ with stress on ‘quite’ and rising intonation on ‘good’ signals the speaker has reservations and is not a positive response, whereas ‘Quite good’ with stress on ‘good’ and falling intonation expresses approval. The point is context. In management training everything must be seen in the context of management expectations, communication and operations management style between and within companies and across markets, which is why cultural due diligence is so important.

One final technique of many taught on the BCTC programme is the STAR code (Tomalin & Nicks, 2014). The STAR code is simply what to do when you have a problem. The key is common to all management crises and has six stages. First if you are in trouble or facing a misunderstanding, STOP. Then LOOK and LISTEN to what is happening around you. Also FEEL – is the atmosphere friendly, hostile or just indifferent? Now the most important thing, DON’T ASSUME. When we encounter a communication we’re not used to our tendency is to withdraw behind our own walls and to see things through our own filters. Finally, and most importantly, ASK.

Your perception of difference and your willingness to show interest and learn will receive, most of the time, a positive response.

All this takes place in a couple of seconds but the result can be overwhelmingly positive and avoid what might have been a communications disaster with important and damaging management consequences affecting project success and profits.

References


Penguin.
Enhancing the development of intercultural communicative competence in business and study environments

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In the world of international education and training, as well as international business, foreigners are increasingly coming to work, study and seek professional training at British universities and in company branches and affiliates around the world. Students and employees don’t always find it easy to understand and communicate with their managers, teachers and lecturers, as many make little or no allowance for the language and cultural background of those they are managing, teaching and training. This paper explores the development of intercultural communicative competence in English language and cultural teacher training and management and asks how establishing effective and appropriate behaviour within intercultural communication promotes effective communication in teacher training programmes and in management training. It explores how the concept of intercultural sensitivity is integrated into intercultural communicative competence in training programmes and how it could facilitate the development of overall sensitivity. In doing so it identifies some of the enabling and hindering features that shape the development of intercultural communicative (or communication) competences in English Language and culture in training courses in management or university.

KEYWORDS: culture, communication, language learning, teacher training, cultural awareness, sensitivity

1. INTRODUCTION

Bennett et al. (2003) wrote, ‘The person who learns a language without learning the culture risks becoming a fluent fool and yet the pedagogy for infusing culture into the language curriculum remains elusive and we continue to debate the particulars of this complex learning and teaching task’ (Bennett et al., 2003, p. 237). This research endeavours to explore how and to what extent current language and management training programmes can incorporate intercultural communicative competences (ICC), in addition to linguistic and communicative competence, and subsequently be seen as interculturally and linguistically com-
petent. Many foreign students and managers criticise native speaker teachers and trainers for the speed and lack of clarity in their delivery as well as lacking sensitivity to student and employee cultures.

For the native speaker trainer, lecturer and teacher trainer the need is to develop intercultural communicative competence; behavioural skills and how to use intercultural sensitivity in English language and management training classes.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In recent years, questions regarding intercultural communicative competence have emerged as a result of a globalised and multicultural world. Byram (1997) claims that ‘teaching for linguistic competence cannot be separated from teaching for intercultural communicative competence’ (Byram, 1997, p. 22). Meanwhile, the Council of Europe Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for languages promotes ‘interculturality’ as a fundamental aspect of effective communication in education (CEFR, 2018, p. 25). Intercultural communicative competence is comprised of three dimensions; intercultural awareness (cognitive aspect), intercultural sensitivity (affective aspect), and intercultural effectiveness (the behavioural aspect) (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Chen and Starosta (1996) claim that these are all related yet they have distinct concepts, where intercultural awareness represents the cognitive process a person goes through in his or her own and others’ cultures, intercultural sensitivity represents both the ability of an individual to distinguish between the different behaviours, perceptions, and feelings of a culturally different counterpart and the ability to appreciate and respect them as well.

The current understanding of intercultural communicative competence has been shaped by decades of research by anthropologists, scholars, psychologists and educators, in an effort to improve the quality of communication in the classroom. Or training room. In language teaching terms they define ICC as helping ‘language learners to interact with speakers of other languages on equal terms, and to be aware of their own identities and those of their interlocutors’ (Byram et al., 2002, p. 7). It follows that one of the key aims of teacher and management training should be to encourage intercultural awareness of and sensitivity to the situation of foreign students in the classroom, training room or lecture theatre.

ICC used to be known simply as CC, communicative competence. The concept of communicative competence (CC) can be traced back to Hyms’s (1972) criticism of Chomsky’s (1969) concept of linguistic competence. For Chomsky (1969), linguistics deals with the language knowledge of a speaker-hearer in an ideally homogeneous community, remaining uninfluenced by performance variables. Labelling Chomsky’s assertion reductionist, Hymes (1972) distanced communicative competence from Chomsky’s definition, describing linguistic competence as one of the several components of CC (Estaji & Rahimi, 2018). Hymes (1972) said competence is ‘integral with attitudes, values and motivations concerning language, its features and uses, and integral with competence for, and attitudes toward, the interrelation of language with the other code of communicative conduct’ (Hymes, 1972, p. 278). Thus, competence involves the practical aspect of capability in using linguistic forms appropriately in the social context of the students, rather than concentrating only on the academic content to be taught.

Byram (1998) and Kramsch and Widdowson (1998) confirmed this by defining CC as socio-linguistics and endorsing the effort to facilitate appropriate communication between cultures in order to improve ‘sociopragmatic competence’. In other words, the appropriate use of language should reflect social practice. However, when defining
‘As part of language teaching and learning and management training, socio-linguistic competence is the knowledge of the social-cultural rules of languages. This requires the trainer to understand the position of the participants and to adapt content and delivery accordingly’

communicative competence, Hymes ‘pointed out the lack of consideration for ‘appropriateness’ or the sociocultural significance of an utterance in a given context’ (Lázár et al., 2007, p. 8). Thus, Canale and Swain (1980) extended the concept of CC to include grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence refers to mastering the language. This also helps individuals to recognise cultural aspects of the language and distinguish between messages conveying negativity and inference. When a person is confident and autonomous they are usually able to observe other intentions via verbal and nonverbal communication. Besides, discourse competence is the ability learners have to connect sentences and to form a meaningful whole from a series of utterances. As part of language teaching and learning and management training, socio-linguistic competence is the knowledge of the social and cultural rules of languages. This requires the trainer to understand the position of the participants and to adapt content and delivery accordingly.

The third concept of Canale and Swain’s (1980) strategic competence refers to the stage that a person is able to use strategies to compensate for imperfect knowledge of the target language and to adapt as needed to ensure comprehension. Later,
Van Ek (1986) added two more competences to the list – socio-cultural competence, meaning the ability to function in several cultures, and social competence, meaning familiarity with differences in social customs, and the ability to communicate successfully with others.

Byram (1997) proposed an intercultural communicative competence model encompassing ‘linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competence which embraces the dimensions of attitudes, skills, and knowledge’ (Byram, 1997, p. 34) (Figure 1).

In his model, Byram (1997) sets up some principles and key dimensions in connection with empathy, cultural identity, cultural relativism, critical awareness, and curiosity and gaining knowledge, which are crucial when comparing cultural and language awareness in one’s own and other cultures. Nevertheless, the majority of the population who speak the English language from all over the world cannot reach a stage of critical awareness partly because trainers, teachers and lecturers deliver content to diverse groups using highly sophisticated elements requiring language competence.

Zhu (2018) states that ‘in his model, Byram refined the first three dimensions of competence identified in Van Ek’s model and added in ‘intercultural competence’ which consists of sub-components’ (Zhu, 2018, p. 152) so as to fit with current teaching needs:

– linguistic competence: the ability to apply knowledge of the rules of a standard version of the language to produce and interpret spoken and written language;

– sociolinguistic competence: the ability to give to the language produced by an interlocutor – whether native or not – meanings which are taken for granted by the interlocutor or which are negotiated and made explicit by the interlocutor;

– discourse competence: the ability to use, discover and negotiate strategies for the production and interpretation of monologue or dialogue texts which follow the conversations of culture of an interlocutor or are negotiated as intercultural texts for particular purposes.

Sub-components of Byram’s model include (Byram, 1997, p. 48):

– attitude savoirs être: curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one’s own;

– knowledge savoirs: knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one’s own and in one’s interlocutor’s country, and of the general process of societal and individual interaction;

– skills of interpreting and relating savoir comprendre: ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one’s own culture;

– skills of discovering and interaction savoir comprendre/ faire: ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction;

– critical cultural awareness/political education savoir s’engager: ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction.

Fantini’s (2018) intercultural communicative competence model embraced that of Byram’s but incorporated four dimensions: awareness, attitudes, skills and knowledge (including language proficiency). In commenting on the model, Jackson (2012) wrote that ‘grappling with another language also fosters the development of alternative communication strategies on someone else’s terms, a humbling and challenging process’ (Jackson, 2012, p. 274). Students and trainees struggling with the language and speed of the trainer or lecturer face problems of understanding and may experience a degree of cultural alienation and demotivation as a result. It is the job of the trainer or lecturer to avoid that situation.

3. TRAINERS’ AND LECTURER’S BEHAVIOUR

Sercu and Bandura (2005) devised a model that divides intercultural communicative competence into three main parts: knowledge, skills/behaviour, and attitude/traits. Each part receives specific explanation from the authors’ perspective.
Knowledge: culture-specific and culture-general knowledge; knowledge of self and other; knowledge of interaction (individual and societal); insight regarding the ways in which culture affects language and communication.

Skills/behaviour: ability to interpret and relate; ability to discover and/or interact; ability to acquire new knowledge and to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction; metacognitive strategies to direct own learning.

Attitudes/traits: attitude to relativise self and value others; positive disposition towards learning intercultural competence; general disposition characterized by a critical engagement with the foreign culture under consideration and one’s own.

Sercu and Bandura’s (2005) research recognises ‘two completely opposing groups with regard to their conception of integrating intercultural competence teaching in the classroom, with conflicting perceptions’ (Estaji & Rahimi, 2018, p. 5). Most importantly, Sercu and Bandura (2005) showed there is no clear connection between the teachers’ or trainer’s beliefs in favour of integrating intercultural communicative competence and their actual teaching or training practices. This is the core of the problem facing international students in monolingual training rooms and lecture theatres.

Wiseman and Koester (1993) pointed out that there is general agreement that the two most critical dimensions of competence for behaviour are effectiveness and appropriateness. They defined effectiveness as the ability of participants (lecturers and students) to achieve their goals of delivering content and understanding the delivery and appropriateness as ‘being proper and suitable’ in relation to the culture they are in (Wiseman & Koester, 1993, p. 6).

Heisey and Gong (1998) argued that a key focus should be on actual behaviour and that ‘the relational focus of regarding intercultural communicative competence study, or the concern with appropriateness, eventually results in effectiveness in communication and relationships’ (Heisey & Gong, 1998, p. 166). It is imperative for trainers to be able to have knowledge of effective and appropriate behavioural skills that leads to group harmony for an inclusive environment.

Therefore, in a classroom full of different cultural backgrounds, educators must behave in a manner unaffected by cultural assumptions. According to Scrivener (2012), learners in a classroom often feel rather powerless. Hence, teacher trainers and teachers must be trained to establish and maintain appropriate behavioural skills for a positive classroom climate if they are to overcome the tendency for individuals to feel anxious, self-consciousness and experiencing difficulty in understanding.

The fact remains that language educators ought to consider that each individual has unique characteristics and backgrounds when it comes to adjusting their approach and behaviour towards them. It should not only be categorised as people’s behaviour driven by their culture, because if an individual has lived in different locations and is actively in contact with people from various cultural backgrounds, their attitude and behaviour cannot be categorised under one national culture.

According to Harris (2003), nonverbal behaviour, constitutes ‘facial expressions, raising an eyebrow, head nods, gestures, and silences also provide very important context cues’ (Harris, 2003, p. 50). Some of these expressions may not make sense for some cultures while for others they may have a true meaning that does not need words. At this point it is important to highlight that ‘mutual-facework’ to avoid conflict is ‘prevalent in collectivistic culture’ (Samovar et al., 2012, p. 136). Thus, these elements should be taken into consideration in training educators and helping them create an inclusive neutral environment. Manusov and Patterson (2006) go so far as to suggest that non-verbal communication is a major influence on the development of affect in the training room and that therefore it should be ‘a major focus of future instructional and nonverbal communication research’ (Manusov & Patterson, 2006, p. 87).

4. SENSITIVITY

Furthermore, since the beginning of the 21st century, the English language has played a prominent role in the development of language and ma-
nagement training programmes and teaching policies, particularly as the methods used when teaching English have influenced all foreign language classrooms (Bourne & Reid, 2005). Consequently, the English language has become the world’s operating system (Anholt, 2009). With this in mind, sensitivity in the classroom, particularly for non-native English speakers, needs to be a key factor in training programmes for teacher development. Chen and Starosta (2000) identify intercultural sensitivity as the affective dimension of ICC, which is ‘conceptually distinct from intercultural competence’ (Chen & Starosta, 2000, p. 3). According to Nuñez et al. (2007), ‘you are interculturally sensitive if you are able to look at different cultures from their cultural frame-of-reference, rather than from yours. You have cultural empathy. Not only in your thoughts, but you are really able to adjust your behaviour, because you want to. Although you know your limits, you are able to move between multiple frames-of-reference, without losing your identity, with great cultural flexibility and respect’ (Nuñez et al., 2007, p. 69).

According to Chen and Starosta (2000), intercultural sensitivity is one of the indispensable features for communication in diverse environments and entails five abilities and skills: interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness. These abilities are part of the dimensions of intercultural sensitivity. Substantially, this study advanced the proposition that individuals ‘with high intercultural sensitivity tend to be more attentive, more able to perceive socio-interpersonal relationships in order to adjust their behaviours, to show high self-esteem and self-monitoring, more empathic, and more effective in intercultural interaction’ (Chen & Starosta, 2000, p. 26). This research also had two findings regarding sensitivity when communicating with others: communication traits (ethnocentrism and intercultural communication apprehension) which are primarily help to comprehend individuals’ motivation and attitudes in the process of interactions.

Chen and Starosta’s (2000) inspiration for their research was to examine the possible effects of intercultural sensitivity on the concepts of intercultural sensitivity that has possible impact on ‘ethnocentrism’ that makes people bond tightly with their group members and feel ‘proud of their own heritages by subjectively using their cultural standards as criteria for interpretations and judgments in intercultural communication’ (Chen & Starosta, 2000, p. 27). Nevertheless, ‘for a culture to survive, a certain degree of ethnocentrism from its members is necessary; however, when ethnocentrism grows to a certain level, it will become a barrier for communication among people from different cultures’ (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997, p. 387). Furthermore, ethnocentrism can cause individuals to use their own identity and group ‘as the centre of viewing things, which tends to develop prejudice by judging other groups as inferior to their own’ (Chen, 2010, p. 2). At this point, it is crucial for trainers to be conscious of this danger and create a mutual balance to show sensitivity. Thus, a review by Chen (2010) indicated that ‘the study investigated the impact of intercultural sensitivity on ethnocentrism and intercultural communication apprehension. Both hypotheses were supported. The results showed that people with a higher degree of intercultural sensitivity were less ethnocentric and apprehensive in intercultural interaction. The results reinforced the importance of intercultural sensitivity as a necessary element for people to be competent in intercultural communication, in which using one’s cultural standards as criteria for interpretations and judgments and communication anxiety are not encouraged’ (Chen, 2010, p. 6).

Chen’s opinion is relevant as emotion occurs naturally when a person is in a new environment. This is understood by one’s cognitive, affective and behaviour aspects. Chen explains is that there are two points that create confusion and which need to be clarified. The first one is, even though intercultural sensitivity is referred to its cognitive, effective and behavioural aspects regarding the intercultural situation - it mainly deals with effectiveness. Her second point is that emotion is concerned with ‘intercultural awareness (cognitive), which is the foundation of intercultural sensitivity
‘It emphasises that individuals ought to have an aspiration to ‘motivate themselves to understand, appreciate, and accept differences among cultures, and to produce a positive outcome from intercultural interactions’.

(affective) which, in turn, will lead to intercultural competence (behavioural). In other words, the three are closely related but separate concepts. Thus, intercultural sensitivity can be conceptualised as an individual’s ability to develop a positive emotion towards understanding and appreciating cultural differences that promotes an appropriate and effective behaviour in intercultural communication’ (Chen, 1997, p. 5). Therefore, Chen concludes that intercultural sensitivity is a dynamic concept. It emphasises that individuals ought to have an aspiration to ‘motivate themselves to understand, appreciate, and accept differences among cultures, and produce a positive outcome from intercultural interactions’ (Chen, 1997, p. 6).

5. DISCUSSION: LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL TRAINING

Lange and Paige (2003) state that the relationship between Bennett’s DMIS and language training compromises much that can be of benefit to language educators, in particular, due to ‘its developmental nature and because of the applicability of its central principles to both culture learning and language learning’ (Lange & Paige, 2003, p. 252). The model advocates that the core of gaining cultural knowledge is not the acquisition of content, but rather the ability to shift cultural perspectives. Lange and Paige (2003) signpost some advantages of DMIS model for language teaching and training, for instance the concept of enhancing the cultural learning in DMIS model is not the acquisition by the learner of discrete facts, but the development of an intercultural mind—a mindset capable of understanding from within and from without both one’s own culture and other cultures. Consequently, cultural learning should comprise communicative competence and ‘proficiency-related theories of language learning’ (Lange & Paige, 2003, p. 252). The model guides educators on how to adapt cultural-learning into their traditional framework, which very likely provides individuals with the necessary intercultural skills, since ‘cultural learning must begin with cultural self-awareness, a notion compatible with views regarding the interrelatedness of first-language and second-language learning’ (Lange & Paige, 2003, p. 252).

Deardorff (2006) developed a process model of intercultural competence that focused on the purpose of assessment of possible intercultural misunderstandings. Starting with the attitudes that the individual should have (respect, openness and curiosity and a sense of discovery) he then stressed the need for knowledge (awareness of one’s own culture, awareness of another’s culture and sociolinguistic awareness) supported by skills (listening and observation and analysis and interpretation and the ability to relate to the other person or situation you are facing). Deardorff then went on to identify two types of outcome, internal and external (Deardorff & Arasaratnam-Smith, 2017). The internal outcome was the development of empathy, adaptability and flexibility. The external outcome he defined as the adoption of effective and appropriate communication and behaviour to resolve any misunderstanding (Figure 2).

Deardorff’s model has itself been criticised as a list of character traits and skills rather than a process of resolution of intercultural misunderstanding. However, it does focus on positive outcomes both internally, for the person perceived to have created the misunderstanding and externally for the person or group who have failed to understand or misunderstood the message conveyed.

This is important in international education, and particularly in higher education, as a trainer or lecturer lacking sociolinguistic or cultural awareness can speak too fast, use idioms without explanation or make cultural references that are perceived as wrong or even insulting by the students and employees. This is why the development of intercultural sensitivity and language sensitivity is vital to the successful teaching of international groups...
and as important and in some respects even more important than the intellectual content. If you can’t understand what the teacher is saying or means there is no way you can successfully absorb and understand the content, let alone analyse it. In this respect, the model remains valid.

International students joining a class to develop their business skills in a British or US university also experience social unease. They feel out of place, get lonely, and fail to attend lectures or complete the necessary assignments because quite simply, they get depressed. Overseas assignees in business go through the same process. This process is known as culture shock and has been discussed by Storti (1991) who described culture shock as being separated from friends and family and everyday experiences. Culture shock in business and also in academic studies manifests in depression, demotivation, lower productivity and in some cases illness and, in extreme cases, even suicide. It is therefore something to understand and watch out for. An empathetic teacher or trainer would be able to recognise the signs and act positively to refer the student to HR (Human Resources), the student liaison officer or even the university pastor and to make allowances within the limits of administrative procedures to support students and expats suffering from culture shock. But the most important thing is to understand the process and this is where Bennett’s (1986) DMIS model comes in.

Described as the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity, Bennett’s model has five stages divided into two parts. The two parts are ethnocentric (mainly concerned with oneself) and ethnorelative (mainly concerned with your relations with others). In each area there are three stages of development (Figure 3).

The six stages can be interpreted as follows. First, the three stages of ethnocentrism.

**Denial.** This can take two forms: denial of your own environment (this place is wonderful; my country is awful); and denial of your new environment (this place is awful; wish I was back home).
Defence. This involves reverting to one’s own culture or community. For managers or workers or students relocating this is often expressed by living in ‘gated communities’ and only associating with people from your or similar communities and failing to adapt to the environment you are in.

Minimisation. This takes the form of insisting that everyone is the same, to the extent that we all are, and rejecting ideas of cultural difference.

The three stages of ethnocentrism can be described as follows.

Acceptance. This refers to the recognition and acceptance of intercultural differences. This is a positive step because it recognises differences and precedes progression to Step 5, adaptation.

Adaptation. This is a gradual process whereby the business assignee or foreign student begins the process of adaptation to the host environment. It takes place over a number of months or even years and may involve a reversion to the culture shock experienced in the first few months of living and working in a new environment. However, as Marx (1999) points out, culture shock experiences affect foreign business people and students throughout their stay at both professional and social levels but the frequency and impact lessen as the stay lengthens until you achieve Bennett’s final stage in his DMIS model, integration.

Integration. This final stage marks the point where you feel part of the host community at both the sociolinguistic and intercultural levels. You may still experience problems and misunderstandings but these are more likely to be at the level that locals experience them. Effectively, and hopefully legally, you become part of the host community at both the sociolinguistic and intercultural levels. You may still experience problems and misunderstandings but these are more likely to be at the level that locals experience them. Effectively, and hopefully legally, you become part of the host community at both the sociolinguistic and intercultural levels.

Acceptance. My cultural experience is the only one that is real and valid. There is little to no thought of ‘other’.

Defence. ‘We’ are superior and ‘they’ are inferior. One feels threatened and is highly critical. What is strange may be labelled as stupid.

Minimisation. Other cultures are trivialised or romanticised. One tends to deny differences and only seek similarities.

Acceptance. I accept but may not agree with other cultures. I am curious and respectful.

Adaptation. I ‘see’ the world through different eyes and make intentional changes in my own behaviour and values.

Integration. I easily move in and out of different cultural worldviews.

The models discussed in this section make it clear that business people and their families relocating to other countries and students seeking to develop their careers by studying at universities abroad expose themselves to both language and cultural challenges. They also suggest the characteristics that both managers and lecturers need to develop to overcome issues that may arise and ease the process of adaptation which relocates and students abroad are likely to go through in the process of adaptation to living in the new host country. The issues raised in the discussion highlight the importance of business mentors, student liaison officers and religious pastors in helping employees and students integrate their new work and study environments successfully.
6. CONCLUSION

This paper has attempted to outline the main concepts of intercultural communicative competence in training programmes to enhance language educators, trainers and lecturers’ intercultural competence in their classrooms, lecture halls and training rooms to develop their language learners’ skills by fully integrating a cultural approach to language and recognising the differences in language levels and ability to understand English spoken at speed and using strong idiomatic language by native speaker trainers and lecturers. Bennett et al. (2003) argue that educators nowadays should be competent on ‘how to place culture at the core of language teaching by systematically introducing intercultural competence into the classroom’ (Bennett et al., 2003, p. 237).

ICC training should ‘involve awareness of different values, attitudes and behaviours of others’ as well as skills to deal with them in a non-judgmental way’ (Barany, 2016 p. 267). This will help teacher trainers and teachers to enhance their ability to interact effectively with people of cultures other than one’s own which is a vital attribute for educators when developing their own understanding and sensitivity. Zhu (2011) states that intercultural empathy helps individuals ‘to be aware of the barriers that may hinder a student’s development’ (Zhu, 2011, p. 117). However, she also points out the dangers of stereotyping and prejudice, over reliance on one’s own culture or human universals, lack of awareness of students’ problems in relating to the content or skills being taught due to language limitations or cultural differences and the assumption that everyone should adopt one’s (the trainer or lecturer’s) own cultural practice. Finally, ‘when people engage in an intercultural dialogue or intercultural trade, they are inevitably facing the challenge from communication barriers such as cultural stereotypes and prejudice, identity conflict, language deficiency, and lack of interaction skills. Only through the acquisition of ICC can these problems be solved in the process of global interaction’ (Dai & Chen, 2014, p. 1). By exploring the ICC models, as well as behaviour and sensitivity and the issues presented by limitations in language proficiency, content delivery can be improved and student motivation can be increased.

References


Successful international communication

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A key concern of international businesses of today is how they can manage communication across borders, especially when using English as a lingua franca. With the massive development of international business with international supply chains, multinational teams, virtual distributed teams, international joint ventures and mergers and acquisitions access to English allows entry to the world’s Executive Club. This paper explores what successful communication in international organisations involves and offers strategies that business English and management trainers can use to improve communication in multinational teams and with clients and partners. The principles and good practice suggestions included in this paper will be helpful to teachers and trainers working with business schools and companies helping students and managers to work with international staff in their own country or abroad, providing practical tools and advice that can be put into practice in training and at work.

KEYWORDS: Business English, international business, ELF, teamwork, building international relationships, leadership, conflict management

1. INTRODUCTION

As Crystal (2012) wrote in 2012, an estimated 375 million people speak English as their first language but non-native users of English speak it as a second or foreign language. Within the ‘non-native’ users there are many different varieties of English spoken in addition to the most commonly recognised varieties, British and American English. Increasingly, in a global economy people are using the English language to communicate using English as a lingua franca, or ELF (Seidlhofer, 2004). Even the terms ‘native speaker’ and ‘non-native speaker’ can be called into question. We are all users of different varieties of English, even within our own countries according to regional accent, grammatical usage and vocabulary and idioms. So, what is the best route to successful international communication in English?

2. BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS VIA ELF

2.1. Strategies for using ELF successfully

ELF is the use of the English language to communicate between people of different mother tongues. It is different from the varieties of ‘simplified English’, such as Nerriere’s (2004) ‘Globish’, which reduces core vocabulary to 1500 words to
allow basic business conversation, or Ogden's (1930) ‘Basic English’, which has an 850-word core vocabulary list. ELF involves not just attention to language used but also to how we exchange information and opinions. I have listed 10 strategies people can employ to help them be fully comprehensible when using ELF (Chong, 2018). These are particularly important for native speakers and expert English users communicating internationally in English.

Using ELF in a group with a mixed level of proficiency in English demands a certain degree of adaptation. Below are some strategies that can be used (Chong, 2018).

Speak clearly. This means being clear in your mind about what you want to say before you open your mouth and speaking clearly and not mumbling. Also important is not trailing off at the end of a sentence, thinking your interlocutor knows what you mean. They often don’t but are too polite to say so.

Slow down. You may not notice how fast you speak. Your speed may increase when you are excited or nervous and you may mumble or talk giving your interlocutor no time to think or respond. It is better to slow down, stay slowed down, enunciate clearly and maybe record your voice so you can hear how fast you speak.

Avoid over-complicated language. Try to avoid colloquialisms and slang or, if you do use them, try and explain in a less complicated way.

Avoid too many cultural references. These can be confusing and take time to explain. This takes away from the point of the conversation. Some people might understand the cultural references but others don’t and may feel excluded as a result.

Be careful with jokes. The British sense of humour is notoriously ironic and can be seen by many as rude and sarcastic. If you do tell a joke make sure it doesn’t come across as being offensive, and that it doesn’t depend too much on understanding a play on words or a cultural reference.

Active listening. One of the most important skills in any dialogue, active listening involves listening not just to the words used but also the feelings expressed in saying them. Active listening is

‘Using ELF in a group with a mixed level of proficiency in English demands a certain degree of adaptation’

about empathy; taking time to listen, asking people for their opinions, not interrupting and trying to involve everyone in the group. Your ability to listen actively can be an immense boost to the self-confidence of the person you are talking to.

Asking for clarification. It is perfectly reasonable to ask for clarification if you haven’t understood something but the way you ask may cause the person you are asking to lose face by suggesting they weren’t clear enough. Better to take the responsibility on yourself by asking, ‘Can I check I’ve understood?’ and then presenting what you understood they said. It’s more polite and gets better results.

Paraphrasing and summarising. It’s important to be explicit and make your point clear, without causing offence. Give reasons and examples to support your point also matters and be prepared to find different ways of expressing your point to make sure it is clear.

Learn to accommodate different communication styles. If people have a different communication style to yours it is easy to get the wrong impression about them. It is important not to judge people on how they speak and to think how you can adapt and maybe tailor your own language communication style to suit them better.

Respect. Finally, it’s all about empathy and respect. It’s important to recognise that even if people can speak English correctly they may have a different style of communication. Avoid criticising and correcting others’ use of English, show kindness and encouragement and above all be respectful of other’s feelings. Speaking a language not your mother tongue can be a challenge and should be respected.

2.2. Building relationships across cultures

Spencer-Oatey (2008) defines culture as ‘a fuzzy set of basic assumptions and values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures and baha-
‘The ICE-BREAK model is simply an acronym and it describes eight steps one can take to efficiently build an initial relationship’

vioual conventions that are shared by a group of people, and that influence (but do not determine) each member’s behaviour and his/her interpretations of the meaning of other people’s behaviour’ (Spencer-Oatey, 2008, p. 1-8). Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) describe intercultural interaction competence as the ability to communicate and behave effectively with people from other cultural groups and the ability to handle the psychological demands that arise from such interactions (Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2009).

2.3. The ICE-BREAK model

One of the concepts trainers and teachers can use show how to break the ice when meeting someone from another country is to use the ICE-BREAK model (Chong, 2018). The ICE-BREAK model is simply an acronym and it describes eight steps one can take to efficiently build an initial relationship.

I Introduce. Introduce yourself to the other person. This may benefit from a bit of prior research into how people from other cultures introduce themselves, whether they are casual or formal and how they present and receive business cards.

C Comment on a mutual area of commonality. This might be the weather, the event you are attending or the environment you are both in. Small talk is light and casual conversation and may be shorter or longer depending partly on cultural norms.

E Encourage. Find ways of inviting your interlocutor into the conversation. Asking their opinion after you’ve made an initial comment is often an excellent way of doing this.

B Balance questions and comments. It’s important to preserve balance between asking too many questions or stating too many opinions, which may put your conversational partner off.

R Reveal something about yourself. When your conversational partner makes an observation, it is good if you can relate that to your own experience. For example, ‘I see what you mean. I had that experience once. I was …’. By responding in this way, you let them know your feelings, beliefs and attitudes and build trust by showing who you really are.

E Express curiosity and interest. This means commenting positively on what you hear and can encompass a number of responses such as emotion (‘Really? That’s amazing!’), curiosity, (‘What happened next?’), feelings, (‘How did you feel about that?’), solidarity (‘I would be really upset’), and appreciation (‘Congratulations. You did really well’).

A Ask open-ended questions. It is best to avoid ‘Yes/No’ questions such as ‘Are you working for…’ and to ask open questions beginning with phrases such as ‘Tell me …’ as in ‘Tell me about your organisation’.

K Keep your answers short and simple. Remembering the acronym KISS is a very good way ensuring you don’t bore or overwhelm your conversational partner.

ICE-BREAK is an excellent way to ensure you make a good impression on people you meet at a conference or networking event. It is also useful to reflect afterwards on a meeting, go through the ICE-BREAK stages and decide which ones you did well and which ones you can improve on.

3. TEAMWORKING AND ELF

3.1. Recognising communication styles

One of the key characteristics of our global economy is the diversity of teams. Any team, whatever the nationality or mix of nationalities, contains different types of character but in multi-national teams or virtually distributed teams it can be even more notable.

One of the issues faced by team members and in particular by team leaders is how to identify the key characteristics and find ways to manage them to optimise communication and cooperation. Below are 14 styles of communication. Each style compares two opposites. Used often in communi-
cation training sessions to promote reflection and self-awareness, trainees are asked to look at the 14 styles and work out which ones fit them most appropriately and where they feel most comfortable (Chong, 2018).

1. Complex / Simple
2. Competitive / Cooperative
3. Concise answers / Expansive answers
4. Direct / Indirect
5. Distanced / Close
6. Emotional / Factual
7. Expressive / Serious and contained
8. Fast-paced / Slow-paced
9. Focused on detail / On the big picture
10. Passive / Assertive
11. Past-oriented / Present/future-oriented
12. Relationship-oriented / Task-oriented
13. Silent listener / Task-oriented
14. Structured / Active listener

Of course, each of us is different, influenced by the cultures of the communities we belong to, our upbringing, our life experience, and our education. Nevertheless, if we can identify our own communication style and compare it with others we deal with we can learn to work with them and overcome the prejudice that might arise from having to work with colleagues or clients whose styles we may not initially be at ease with.

### 3.2. The DISC model

A framework that can help our understanding of different communication styles is the DISC model of personality types. This was developed in the 1920s by Marston (1928) and then turned into an instrument for assessing communication styles of potential employees by Merenda and Clarke (1965). It divides communication styles into four basic traits as (Figure 1).

![The DISC model](image)

The four capital letters in the quadrant stand for different personality types.

**D** Dominant – a driver of communication, results-oriented, to the point and decisive.

**I** Influence – inspirational, people oriented, outgoing and demonstrative.

**S** Steady – supportive, sincere, dependable.

**C** Conscientious – cautious, competent, valuing accuracy and expertise.

We are a mixture of personality traits but many individuals tend to prefer one style over others and this can influence how they communicate. Dominant personalities tend to drive communication quickly towards a particular goal or result. Influencers tend to be more expansive in their communication style, enjoying working with people. Steady personalities are slower and methodical in their communication style while conscientious persona-
lities tend to focus on evidence and to be relatively slow-paced, fact-led communicators (Chong, 2018).

Below is a description of some effective ways of working with the different communication styles.

**Communicating with the Dominant style:**
- show admiration;
- get to the point quickly;
- let them take control of the conversation;
- be structured and systematic;
- avoid deviation from the topic;
- demonstrate competence.

**Communicating with the Influencing style:**
- praise and recognise achievement;
- be relaxed and sociable;
- value small talk;
- smile;
- show emotions;
- turn what you want to say into a story;
- avoid too much detail.

**Communicating with the Steady style:**
- show interest;
- ask for help or support;
- express support;
- show appreciation;
- ensure clarity;
- create a safe, warm atmosphere;
- allow time to adjust to changes;
- avoid confrontation.

**Communicating with the Conscientious style:**
- allow thinking time and listen;
- provide facts and details;
- establish your credibility;
- don’t pretend to be an expert if you are not;
- be structured and systematic;
- use established routines and frameworks to present new ideas;
- don’t press for action.

### 3.3. Face and time

All managers and team members have to deal with issues of time and we know that some team members are strict time keepers and others are more relaxed. Even more important is the issue of ‘face’, often defined as personal dignity. Gaining, giving and losing face is important in all cultures but particularly so in China, Japan and Korea and other parts of Asia.

As a team leader it is important to support international team members and there a number of strategies you can usefully employ to ‘give face’ to teammates (Chong, 2018):
- ensure all team members have a chance to speak if they wish;
- ensure team members feel they have been heard (comment in person or via email);
- voice appreciation and encouragement but be careful about singling people out;
- be sensitive when giving feedback, check if it should be public or private;
- be sensitive about refusing invitations, tasks;
- focus disagreement on the proposal, never on the person making the proposal;
- avoid shouting, personal attacks or emotional disagreements in front of others;
- don’t neglect the minority, leave anyone out;
- be aware of geographical locations skills and cultural backgrounds of the team;
- be aware of different levels of proficiency in English and avoid making people feel incompetent or embarrassed by their difficulty in expressing themselves.

### 3.4. Trust

Ultimately a successful team depends on trust between team members and team leaders. Trust means we can rely on people. Lack of trust creates fear, suspicion and leads to team and project breakdown. A key element in creating trust is transparency. However, there is always the danger of the ‘illusion of transparency’ as psychologists describe it; in other words, the assumption that because I know why I am doing something everyone else shares my knowledge. This is often not the case, especially in international teams. The list below suggests some strategies for building team trust and confidence:
- get to know each team member, both personally and professionally;
- find out their interests, their skills and communication styles;
4. LEADERSHIP

4.1. High and low power distance managers
Leadership communication is a key issue in international management. As a manager you are expected to organise the team, give instructions, motivate the team and give feedback, both positive and developmental. Most importantly your job is to get things done. How do managers do it?

McGregor (1967) distinguished between two broad categories of manager, who he described as X and Y. X managers tend to be more autocratic and directive whereas Y managers tend to be more consultative and participative. McGregor’s (1967) analysis broadly coincides with Hofstede et al.’s (2010) high-power distance and low-power distance cultures and is further developed in Lewis’s (2018) When Cultures Collide.

4.2. Points to note in a new work environment
When starting in a new international work environment it is useful to check how decisions are made and communicated, how hierarchies and team relations operate and how managers approach and complete tasks. Below are some of the questions you can ask to obtain clarity on each topic (Chong, 2018).

‘Meetings are one of the central rituals of any organisation, and how meetings are run and managed is often a key criterion of organisational competence’

Decision making. Who usually makes decisions? The manager, the manager with the employees or the employees? Who does the manager consult with before taking decisions? How are they consulted? Face-to-face, meetings, virtual communication? Are decisions taken according to a consensus? If so how is the consensus reached? Are decisions reversible/changeable?

Hierarchies and relationships. How many levels of decision-making hierarchy are there in the organisation? Is the manager’s door ‘open’ to team members? How visible are managers on the ‘shop floor’? Do managers work alongside their staff or separate from them? Do managers spend time with their team after working hours? Is it acceptable for employees to bypass their team leader and contact higher executives directly?

Tasks. Is the manager expected to provide clear direction for the team? Are instructions specific? Is there space for improvisation and creativity? How involved are the managers in daily operations?

4.3. Managing meetings
Meetings are one of the central rituals of any organisation, national or international, and how meetings are run and managed is often a key criterion of efficiency and organisational competence. Meetings procedure is influenced by national, regional and company culture but some key actions can be taken to motivate multi-national employees by promoting inclusivity and encouraging their contribution. The list below offers some suggestions:

– allow time for participants to prepare before the meeting; circulate the agenda or explain the topic so they have time to think about it;
– some employees may want a group pre-meeting to brainstorm ideas and work out a common approach;
In order to give effective feedback most organisations suggest the Hamburger approach, also known as the feedback sandwich, where the bun or the bread suggests positive feedback and the ‘meat’ in the middle suggests points for improvement and development.

- in a meeting, divide participants into smaller groups to avoid putting individuals on the spot;
- consider an opinion box to which employees can contribute before the meeting; the cards are then collected, read out and discussed but contributors benefit from anonymity;
- encourage a co-operative atmosphere; there’s no such thing as a stupid idea;
- appeal to the goals of the group.

4.4. Feedback

An all-important part of management and leadership is giving constructive feedback. Dweck (2008) distinguishes between a growth mindset (believing that any ability can be developed by putting in time and effort) and a fixed mindset (believing that you’re either good or aren’t good at something and that your qualities are fixed and cannot change). In order to give effective feedback most organisations suggest the Hamburger approach, also known as the feedback sandwich, where the bun or the bread suggests positive feedback and the ‘meat’ in the middle suggests points for improvement and development. Some managers can be very strict, almost bullying even, in giving negative feedback and some forget the ‘bun’ altogether and just focus on the ‘burger’ (negative criticism). This too is influenced by national and regional cultural background as well as personal style.

If you want to avoid the ‘bun’ and also avoid causing offence many managers recommend the SBI tool, standing for Situation, Behaviour and Impact. Developed by the Centre for Creative Leadership, it focuses on facts and observation not emotion and judgement. The SBI tool has four steps as described below.

- **Situation.** Define the situation, the setting and the context.
- **Behaviour.** Describe the behaviour observed (without emotion).
- **Impact.** Outline the impact of the behaviour.
- **Next steps.** Reflect on the feedback and offer suggestions for improvement.

Some of the development questions you can ask include the following:

- What happened?
- Why might this be a problem?
- How can we stop it happening again?
- How can you solve it if it happens again?
- What do you think you can improve on?
- How do you think you can develop this?
- How can I help you improve on this?
- What support might you need in the future?

In conclusion, the key to successful feedback is not to focus on the past but ‘feed forward’ into the future (Goldsmith, 2012).

5. PERSUASION & CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

5.1. Push and pull model

Negotiation is at the root of successful business and therefore another key issue in international communication. What are the different styles you are likely to encounter and what is the best way to deal with them?

The ‘push’ style focuses on presenting your point of view and giving reasons and examples to persuade your interlocutor you are right. You ‘push’ the other person to accept your position. The ‘pull’ style aims at reaching a common agreed position with the interlocutor by asking what they want and agreeing together on a way forward. Tar-danico (2011) identified five styles of persuasion.

- **Asserting,** i.e. firmly insisting you are right in the face of opposition.
- **Convincing,** i.e. using data, evidence and reasoning to get others to agree.
- **Negotiating,** i.e. discussing terms and conditions and making compromises to reach agreement.
- **Bridging,** i.e. using interpersonal skills to create strong bonds and collaboration.
5.2. Holistic and analytical styles of thinking

Another factor in persuasion and influencing is the style of thinking, in particular the need to set the context before you say what you want or wish to achieve. The need to set the context first is typical of much Asian communication while the west tends to be more analytical, particularly the so-called Anglo-Saxon countries (Bertalanffy, 1968).

This way of thinking has been illustrated in the analysis of portraits taken by westerners and easterners. Analysing Facebook photos taken by Americans and comparing them with photos taken Taiwanese, Singaporeans and people from Hong Kong, Huang and Park noted that

The American photos focused on faces with details of smiles and expressions whereas the East Asian photos focused more on background environment than on the faces (Huang & Park, 2013).

Masuda and Nisbett (2001) in an experiment describing a short video clip found that Japanese participants tended to focus on the background of what they saw while Americans tended to focus on objects in the foreground. Holistic thinking tends to see the connections and interdependencies between the environment, the circumstances, the people, their relationships and the tasks, all of which impact upon one another. Analytical thinking tends to focus on the individual parts, analysing each item separately from its environment.

5.3. Deductive and inductive reasoning

Meyer (2014) distinguishes between two types of reasoning which she describes as principles-first (deductive reasoning) and applications-first (inductive reasoning). She argues that Anglo-Saxon countries tend more to practical applications based on inductive reasoning (examine the facts and then work out the principle) whereas continental Europe tends more towards deductive reasoning (identify the theory and then put it into practice). This

often causes problems in international negotiations, where deductive reasoning (principles first) conflicts with inductive reasoning (applications first).

5.4. Causes of conflict

With cultural differences in negotiation and communication it is not surprising that conflict can arise. Bell (2002) identified eight prevalent sources of conflict most commonly encountered in the interaction of negotiating parties: resources, styles, perceptions, goals, pressures, roles, personal values, government and official policies.

5.5. Dealing with conflict

Thomas and Kilmann (1974) posited two dimensions of conflict as assertiveness and cooperativeness and identified five modes of conflict management:

– competing: asserting your point of view and being unwilling to compromise;
– accommodating: sacrificing your own point of view to keep the peace;
– compromising: finding the middle way;
– avoiding: withdrawing to avoid conflict;
– collaborating: negotiating to find a win-win solution for both parties.

The TKI instrument as it is known is one of the most popular instruments used in analysing methods of conflict resolution and cultural researchers have aimed at identifying particular instruments commonly used by particular cultural groups, notably Asia, the US and Canada and Australia (Ting-Toomey, 1988; Lee & Rogan, 1991; Brew & Cairns, 2004).

It is difficult to generalise, however, as individual personalities and the context of the conflict may differ. Nevertheless, a number of cultural issues may arise, for example:

– team vs individual (the US is seen as more individualistic whereas Asia is seen as more collectivist);
– power distance (much of Asia is seen as hierarchical whereas the US, Canada and Australia place great stress on equality and delegation of responsibility);
– task orientation vs relationships (the US, Canada and Australia are seen as task oriented whereas Asia is perceived as much more relationship-oriented);

– long-term and short-term orientation (Asia, especially China, tends to think more long-term solutions, whereas much of the West thinks in terms of short and mid-term solutions);

– apologies and the use of silence (In Asia apology is seen as a way of expressing humility and accepting shame when things go wrong whereas in other parts of the world it might be seen as a sign of weakness; silence is an important negotiation tool in East Asia and is seen as a way of showing respect; in other countries it might be seen as disapproval or detachment from the issue under discussion).

However, as said above, it is important to take individual and professional culture into account when considering these issues.

5.6. Communicating in a conflict situation

Finally, what can you do to resolve conflicts when they arise? There are a number of things to watch out for when in a conflict situation, which, if handled correctly, will help you resolve the problem.

Avoid negativity. Remember the Hamburger area. Always think positive first.

Avoid over-generalising. Saying, ‘You always do this’ or ‘This is always happening’ just makes the situation worse.

Avoid presenting feelings as facts. If you feel something say how you feel, don’t accuse your partners in communication.

Avoid applying past examples to the present.

Avoid emotional words and adjectives.

Avoid personal criticism, focus on the problem.

Avoid feeling defensive and retaliating.

Avoid interrupting. Listen.

Listen to what is said. Acknowledge others’ feelings in order to resolve the situation as quickly and efficiently as possible.

Think forward. Don’t get stuck in the past.

Using these strategies will help you resolve conflict issues much more successfully.

‘In 2004 the Council of Europe initiated the INCA Project, INCA standing for Intercultural Awareness Assessment, directed by Professor Byram of Durham University in the UK, that identified six qualities of a competent international manager and assessed them at three levels: basic competence, intermediate competence and full competence’

5.7. A.D.A.P.T

The key to working internationally and with multi-national teams is to develop your adaptation skills. In 2004 the Council of Europe initiated a programme to define the qualities of a good international manager. It was called the INCA Project, INCA standing for Intercultural Awareness Assessment and it was directed by Professor Michael Byram of Durham University in the UK. The INCA project identified six qualities of a competent international manager and assessed them at three levels: basic competence, intermediate competence and full competence (Intercultural Competence Assessment, 2004). The six qualities are:

– tolerance of ambiguity (patience);

– behavioural flexibility (adaptability);

– communicative awareness (interpersonal skills);

– knowledge discovery (interest in people);

– respect for otherness (inclusivity);

– empathy towards other cultures and languages (empathy).

In his ground-breaking work on emotional intelligence, Harvard psychologist Goleman (1995) identified ten key skills, some of which were also recognised by Byram. They are:

– self-awareness and the ability to reflect;

– curiosity: finding out about ‘the other’;

– mindfulness and perceptiveness;

– open-mindedness and non-judgementalism;

– patience and tolerance of ambiguity;

– emotional strength;

– interpersonal skills;
– core communication skills;
– flexibility and accountability’
– sense of identity and objectives.

How can we simplify these concepts to create usable strategies that trainers and international executives can use? The key issues are recognising differences in culture and encouraging reflection and actually adapting behaviour.

The DIE model, taught by Milton and Bennett in their workshops at the University of Minnesota in the 1970s consists of three steps (Bennett et al., 1977). They are:

D Describe. Describe what is happening and what the differences are from your own behaviour.
I Interpret. Examine the possible reasons for that behaviour.
E Evaluate. Examine your own feelings about what is going on.

Following the author’s own research into good practice in training this paper proposes an alternative model which both encourages reflection on the intercultural difficulty encountered and offers an action plan for an efficient and thought-through response. It uses the acronym, A.D.A.P.T. The letters stand for:

A Awareness: be aware of how you feel.
D Don’t judge: don’t jump to conclusions.
A Analyse: examine the reasons for the difference in opinions or conclusions.
P Persuade yourself: explore how to adapt.
T Try: adapt your behaviour.

Tomalin and Nicks (2014) used the 80/20 principle to suggest that a 20% adaptation of behaviour on your part can achieve an 80% positive response from the other side. In other words, small incremental changes in your behaviour can achieve major improvements in business relations.

6. CONCLUSION

This paper has explored management theory and good practice in working successfully with employees from different countries and cultural backgrounds. In my research I have found numerous examples of management problems and both good and bad practice which we do not have space to deal with here but are included in my book Successful International Communication (Chong, 2018). The principles and good practice suggestions included in this paper will be helpful to teachers and trainers working with business schools and companies helping students and managers to work with international staff in their own country or abroad, providing practical tools and advice that can be efficiently put into practice in training and at work.

There is no question, as the world becomes more international, not less, that understanding and applying the principles of culture and communication, teamworking, management and leadership and persuasion and conflict management will be more and more part of our working lives and our training.

References


The role of toponymic periphrasis in developing professional competence in learning Spanish

by Olga S. Chesnokova, Marija Radović and Alexey V. Akhrenov

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The article investigates the toponymical periphrasis, or toponymical metaphors of two Spanish speaking countries: Peru and Panama, and determines various aspects of their static and dynamic. The authors examine and systematise toponymical periphrases of Peru and Panama through the prism of the linguistic picture of the world consisting in linguistic-cultural analysis for the reconstruction and typology of stable associations of contemporary Peruvians and Panamanians reflected in the toponymy of their homelands. Approximately ninety place names of Peru and Panama and their periphrasis cited in this article were selected, due to their lingua-cultural, geographical, associative, and commemorative significance for Peruvian and Panamanian people. The historical, linguistic and onomastic approaches, proposed in this research, reveal different mechanisms of metaphorical naming and renaming. The authors evaluate the role of toponymical periphrases in forming professional competences of Russian university students studying Spanish and conclude that knowing toponymical metaphors enriches the professional competences of students in their lingvocreative manifestations and becomes an effective tool in teaching Spanish at Bachelor and Masters levels, contributing to students’ intellectual activities and forming aesthetic values, proper to modern teaching approach.

KEYWORDS: theoretical onomastics, Spanish language, toponymy, metaphor, Peru, Panama

1. INTRODUCTION

The interest in Latin American toponymy and its lingvocreative form is evident during classes in Spanish, Latin American civilisations, linguistic contacts, investigations in toponymy and translation courses. Perceived in contemporary Romance philology as ‘multinational’ (Malkiel, 2019; Chesnokova & Sanchez, 2017; Geeslin, 2018; Pountain, 2016) or, in other terminology, ‘pluricentric’ (Muhr, 2012), the Spanish language offers a set of parameters of divergence and convergence that allows us to consider metaphorical
place names of Spanish speaking countries as a model of the perception of the universe by speakers of different varieties of the Spanish language. Knowing the meaning of the toponymical metaphors of traditional place names and appreciating their linguocreative manifestations and aesthetic values enriches professional competence and becomes an effective tool in teaching Spanish at Bachelor and Masters levels, contributing to students’ intellectual and creative activities according to a modern teaching approach. In this article the authors look at two very different Spanish speaking countries, Peru and Panama, evaluate the toponymic associations of well-known cities and demonstrates their role in building professional competence in Spanish for specific purposes.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS
 This study was conducted on the basis of native speakers’ reviews, Spanish dictionaries, diverse types of texts and discourse and Internet sources. The main methods used were etymological, onomastic, historical and semiotic analyses, which offer a three-dimensional interpretation concerning semantic, syntactic and pragmatic aspects, the three primary dimensions of any sign, place names included.

Cultural and onomastic analysis provides the basis for the methodology used in this article. Such analysis combines the achievements of geography, history, onomastics, and traditional studies in dialectology, which can be aided by the semiotic approach, paying particular attention to the national toponymical lexicon and national creativity, as well as cultural idiosyncrasy.

3. STUDY AND RESULTS
 3.1. Peru’s toponomy & toponymic periphrasis
 The Republic of Peru is a country with centuries long indigenous (quechua and aymara) cultural heritage and the third largest country in South America after Brazil and Argentina. Until the middle of the XVI century, the territory of modern Peru was the centre of the Inca Empire, which created a highly developed civilisation in the conditions of a harsh alpine climate with a unique system of nodal writing called ‘quipu’ (an ancient Inca device using thread knotted in different ways to record information) (Escobar, 2016).

This study aims to explore the metaphorical aspect of Peru’s toponomy through the prism of the its picture of the world as presented by linguocultural analysis and the classification of toponymic periphrasis to reflect Peruvian associations reflected in the toponomy of their homeland.

The research corpus was composed of 70 periphrastic toponymic denominations for the largest (with a population of over 100,000) Peruvian settlements.

The names of large cities in Peru generally refer to a fixed area, reflecting the Peruvians’ perception of the terrain and landscape, as well as the facts of the historical heritage associated with a particular locality. The linguistic creativity of the Peruvian people and the verbal expression of their love for the motherland can be traced in the associations that arose in the collective consciousness of the Peruvians in relation to the large cities of the country, which are reflected in toponymic periphrasis.

The analysis of linguistic material and a survey of 30 native speakers of the Peruvian national version of the Spanish language have shown that structures with such lexemes as ciudad (city), tierra (land) turn out to be the most semiotically significant and regularly reproduced examples of periphrasis, along with capital (capital), sede (centre, headquarters), cuna (cradle), joya (jewel, treasure), perla (pearl) and others.

The analysis of the linguistic material and a survey of informants revealed periphrastic constructions as something far from unique to Peruvians. In all likelihood, due to similar climatic conditions, mentality and peculiarities of the aesthetic perception of reality by Latin Americans, there are similar or identical examples of periphrasis in the toponomy of Latin America that relate to different cities both within Peru and other South American countries, in particular, Ecuador, Venezuela, Colombia and Portuguese-speaking Brazil.

As for homogeneous examples of periphrasis, it is noted that, for example, La Perla del Pacífico
(The Pearl of the Pacific) relates to Callao (Peru) and the capital of the country, Lima, as well as to the cities of Guayaquil, in Ecuador and Valparaiso, in Chile.

It is no coincidence that many Ecuadorian or Peruvian restaurants all over the world are often named La Perla del Pacifico (the Pearl of the Pacific). The frequency of this periphrasis is illustrated in media discourse, i.e. in the digital archive of the Peruvian newspaper El Comercio.

Luego, de acuerdo a la Municipalidad del Callao, los inspectores llegaron a la avenida Sáenz Peña para inspeccionar la panadería La Perla del Pacifico, la misma que también fue clausurada por falta de condiciones higiénicas en la preparación de pan y pasteles. (According to the Municipality of Callao, the inspectors then arrived at Saenz Peña Avenue to inspect The Pearl of the Pacific bakery, which was also closed due to the lack of hygienic conditions in the preparation of bread and cakes) (El Comercio, 2018).

Sus apuntes sobre la capital salieron en revistas de su país y se compilaron en ‘Recuerdos de la América Española’, libro imprescindible por su gêno literario. El maestro Raúl Porras Barrenechea decía que fue ‘uno de los creadores de la leyenda de Lima como ‘la perla del Pacifico’ y como centro de la cortesania y cultura americana del sur’. (His notes on the capital appeared in magazines in his country and were compiled in ‘Memories of Spanish America’, an essential book in its genre. The teacher, Raúl Porras Barrenechea, said that he was one of the creators of the legend of Lima as ‘the Pearl of the Pacific’ and as the centre of Cortesian culture in South American culture) (El Comercio, 2014).

In terms of comparison, examples referring to Valparaiso (Chile) and Guayaquil (Ecuador) are also relevant:

Los emigrantes que llegaban de Europa para poblar el país convertían a Valparaíso, llamada ‘La Perla del Pacifico’, en la ciudad más cosmopolita de Chile. (The emigrants who came from Europe to populate the country made Valparaíso, called ‘the Pearl of the Pacific’, the most cosmopolitan city in Chile) (El Diario, 2011).

‘The names of large cities in Peru generally refer to a fixed area, reflecting the Peruvians’ perception of the terrain and landscape, as well as the facts of the historical heritage associated with a particular locality’

Guayaquil, la denominada Perla del Pacifico, celebra hoy 476 años de fundación española. (Guayaquil, the so-called Pearl of the Pacific, celebrates today 476 years since its foundation by the Spaniards) (El Diario, 2011).

In the case of the White City (La Ciudad Blanca), it is as a description of Ibarra in Ecuador, as well as Arequipa in Peru.

In Ecuador the city of Tena is known as The Capital of Orchids, while in Peru the same periphrasis is used to describe Moyobamba. Colombians refer to Medellín and Bogota as The City of Eternal Spring (Ciudad de la Eterna Primavera) and The Athens of South America (Atenas Sudamericana), respectively, while the Peruvians in Trujillo also consider their city eternally spring-like. The inhabitants of Cuenca, Ecuador, are proud of living in The Athens of Ecuador. Among the periphrasis of Peruvian toponyms, several associations with another ancient European city – Rome – have been observed. Moreover, Arequipa is famous as The Peruvian Rome or The Rome of America, due to the profound catholic sentiments and the traditions of the population, as Pope Pius XII affirmed in 1940.

It is worth mentioning that the association with A Very Noble and Loyal City is common to several Peruvian toponyms, like Chachapoyas, Huaraz, Arequipa and Ayacucho.

When it comes to comparison with other European cities, the city of Ayacucho is referred to as La Sevilla Peruana (The Peruvian Seville), referring to a number of cathedrals and churches there:

Visita a nuestra ciudad colonial, cuna de artesanos, la ‘Sevilla Peruana’. Conoce la belleza del Convento Santa Teresa y la Basílica Catedral. Visitemos varios talleres artesanales: De Tallado de
Piedras de Huamanga, de Bordados, de Retablos, donde conocerás el arte en las manos de nuestros artesanos locales. El Mirador de Acuchimay es un punto de la ciudad que no puedes dejar de visitar. (Visit our colonial city, cradle of craftsmen, the ‘Peruvian Seville’. Enjoy the beauty of the Santa Teresa Convent and the Cathedral. We will visit several craft workshops with artists carving Huamanga stone, doing embroidery and creating altarpieces, where you will get to know the art from the very hands of our local craftsmen. The Mirador de Acuchimay is a ‘must see’ visit) (Turismoi, 2020).

Favourite cities are personified in the collective creative conscience of the Peruvians and they are described as possessing great human qualities and dignity. Interestingly, such examples are also characteristic of the linguistic creativity of Venezuelans.

LOYALTY AND DEVOTION: muy noble y leal (very noble and loyal) – Maracaibo, Venezuela; muy noble y leal – Chachapoyas, Perú; muy noble y leal – Arequipa, Perú; muy noble y leal ciudad (a very noble and loyal city) – Arequipa, Perú; la muy noble y generosa ciudad (the very noble and generous city) – Huaraz, Perú.

CORDIALITY AND HOSPITALITY: ciudad cordial de Venezuela (the city of Venezuelan cordiality) – Puerto Cabello, Venezuela; capital de la hospitalidad (the capital of hospitality) – Huacho, Perú.

FRIENDLINESS: embajada de la amistad (the embassy of friendship) – Caicara del Orinoco, Venezuela; capital de la amistad internacional (the capital of international friendship) – Huaraz, Perú; ciudad de la amistad (the city of friendship) – Chilcayo, Perú.

3.2. Panama’s toponomy and toponymic periphrasis

Panama, officially The Republic of Panama, is a country located in south-eastern Central America. It is bordered by the Caribbean Sea in the north and the Pacific Ocean in the south, Colombia to the east and Costa Rica to the west. Located on the isthmus of the same name, a strip that connects South America with Central America, its mountainous territory is interrupted only by the Panama Canal basin, the interoceanic road that joins the Atlantic Ocean with the Pacific. Its location as a transit country between the Atlantic and the Pacific, most recently via the Panama Canal, made it an early meeting point for cultures from all over the world. Its key geographical feature is the canal, which facilitates communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans and significantly influences world trade. Its current population is 4,567,000 people.

The research corpus included 50 periphrastic toponymic denominations of various settlements in Panama. Panamanians call their country el país de las mariposas (the country of the butterflies), because in spite of the fact that there are several theories about the meaning of the word, Panama, the most common term and one taught for decades in schools, means ‘abundance of fish and butterflies’ (Dressler, 2019). Panama has between 9,000 and 16,000 species of butterflies, and moths, equivalent to 10% of the global population. Besides, Panama has more species per square metre than countries such as Colombia, Ecuador or Peru, who, although they have more types of butterflies, have a land area 10 times bigger than Panama. Panama’s biodiversity is compact, while the silver-blue Morpho butterfly is considered to be a national symbol (Conniff & Bigler, 2019).

The rapid industrial development of the country, in particular the construction of skyscrapers, led to the use periphrasis referring to the capital of the country as el nuevo Dubái de América Latina (the new Dubai of Latin America). The use of this paraphrase is illustrated in media discourse, i.e. in the digital archive of the Panamanian newspaper Crítica.

En la actualidad, Panamá es conocido como ‘El Dubái de América’, gracias a que es una ciudad que está creciendo de manera masiva. Este destino está lleno de contrastes, en él podrás encontrar desde calles populares, hasta los restaurantes más sofisticados, de hoteles de diseño a manicuras justo en medio de la calle. Sin duda, un espectáculo sublime para la vista. Panamá es uno de los princi

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‘The rapid industrial development of the country, in particular the construction of skyscrapers, led to the use periphrasis referring to the capital of the country as el nuevo Dubái de América Latina (the new Dubai of Latin America)’

pales ejes de Centroamérica, debido a sus colosos de aluminio, sin embargo, además de contar con grandes ejemplares arquitectónicos, esta ciudad se ha convertido en una joya por descubrir, gracias a su palpitante y restaurado casco viejo. (Currently, Panama is known as ‘The Dubai of America’, because it is a city that is growing massively. This destination is full of contrasts, from popular streets, to the most sophisticated restaurants, boutique hotels and manicurists right in the middle of the street. Without a doubt, a sublime sight to behold. Panama is one of the main axes of Central America, due to its aluminium colossi. However, in addition to having great architectural structures, this city has become a jewel to discover, thanks to its throbbing restored old town) (Crítica, 2015).

The language used illustrates how structures including such lexical units as ciudad (city), tierra (land), cuna (cradle), joya (jewel), sitio (site, place) turned out to be the most frequently used by Panamanian Spanish native speakers and regularly reproduced by the Panama mass media. Let’s look at random examples from media discourse.

The province of Veraguas, located in the centre-west of the country and characterised by being the only one in the Republic to a coastline on both the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean, was frequently described as tierra de dos mares (land of two seas). It has about 60 km of coastline on the Caribbean Seaboard and more than 350 km of coastline on the Pacific, not counting the large number of islands that belong to it, including the largest in the country, Coiba and Cébaco.

The city of Chitré is known as la ciudad que crece sola (the city that grows by itself) and la ciudad donde nadie es forastero (the city where no one is a stranger) because its inhabitants are very hardworking and enterprising. Chitré is full of people who provide solutions to all the problems.

The city of Boquete and by extension the entire province of Chiriquí are known as the small Panamanian Switzerland. We can find examples of periphrasis such as Chiriquí la pequeña Suiza Panameña (Chiriquí, the little Panamanian Switzerland), Boquete, Nuestra Pequeña Suiza (Boquete, Our Little Switzerland), Boquete: la Suiza de Centroamérica (Boquete: the Switzerland of Central America). Boquete is the greenest, most natural, quietest area of Panama, the most important city surrounded by mountains in the province of Chiriquí. Many people come to this area in search of rest, pure air and mild temperatures. There are also those who visit it for all the opportunities it offers to lovers of active tourism. Many citizens of the United States upon retirement move to live in Boquete. In Panamanian media discourse we have found the following examples of the use of this kind of periphrasis.

Boquete ha sido objeto de un gran desarrollo en la última década y ‘desafortunadamente’ no ha tenido el orden debido, puesto que no contó con un plan de uso de suelos que contemple las áreas comerciales, residenciales y turísticas, y su vinculación posterior, advierte el funcionario. Son el pasado, el presente y el futuro de nuestra pequeña Suiza, menos fría que la original, pero seguramente más cálida. (Boquete has undergone great development in the last decade but ‘unfortunately’ has not had proper organisation, since it did not have a land use plan that considers the commercial, residential and tourist areas, and their subsequent linkage, warned the official. They are the past, the present and the future of our little Switzerland, less cold than the original, but surely warmer) (Díaz, 2015).

El Valle de Antón is known for its fresh and spring-like weather throughout the year. It is characterised as a picturesque and hardworking town, located in a fertile valley of 18.3 km, and rising to 600 m above sea level, with a climate of around 18°C. This makes it a visitor attraction throughout the year and that is why it is known as el sitio de la eterna primavera (the place of eternal spring).
Las Perlas, a historic natural paradise that opens its doors to tourists, who have wonderful settings at their disposal that make it a special place, is known as la gema turística de Panamá (the tourist gem of Panama). The unique history of La Peregrina, the gem discovered in the sixteenth century in the Pearl archipelago that today constitutes one of the tourist jewels of Panama, is as unique as the journey through some paradise islands.

The city of La Villa de Los Santos, located in the southwest of Panama in the province of Santos, is metaphorically associated by the Panamanians with cuna de la libertad panameña (the cradle of freedom of the country), because the struggle for the independence of Panama from Spain began there. There the Panamanian people rose with sticks, machetes and a few arcabuces (guns) under the direction of Don Segundo de Villlarreal in search of freedom and better days for future Panamanian generations. The patriotic and libertarian deeds which took place there in 1821 constitute, at the level of Panama’s national history, the first independence movement (known as the Santeño movement) generated by the spontaneous combustion of people hungry for freedom and equality, who had been subject to subjection and degrading treatment by Colonial Spain. The independence movement had planned to declare independence on November 28th, but on that day they were forced to bring forward their declaration before another declaration of independence given in the Villa de Los Santos, starting a process whose initial trigger was the Santeño movement, later reproduced in the capital and in the other towns of the country. Simón Bolívar called this settlement La Heroica Villa de Los Santos (The Heroic Villa of Los Santos).

Colon, the second most important city after Panama City, located on the Atlantic coast of Panama, is famous for its gastronomy and coconut cultivation. The city is traditionally called a tacita de oro (the golden cup) because in the collective consciousness of the Panamanians it is associated with plentiful gourmet food, metonymically indicated by the word taza (cup). Colon as a province is known as tierra de campeones (land of champions) and tierra de gente alegre, luchadora y talentosa (land of happy, fighting and talented people). In mass media one can find numerous examples of its use.

Colón es tierra de campeones. La provincia atlántica ha aportado un enorme legado al boxeo de nuestro país. Hoy, Lo Mejor del Boxeo le rinde homenaje. La provincia de Colón es el segundo punto de nuestra república en producción de campeones mundiales de boxeo, solo superada por la capital del país. Esta tierra ha visto nacer a figuras deslumbrantes que consagraron su esfuerzo haciéndose campeones. (Colon is land of champions. The Atlantic province has contributed an enormous legacy to the boxing of our country. Today, The Best of Boxing pays tribute to them. The province of Colon is second in our republic in the production of world boxing champions, only surpassed by the capital of the country. This land has seen the birth of dazzling figures who have devoted their efforts to becoming champions) (LMB, 2016).

Colón, tierra de gente alegre, luchadora y talentosa. Si hay algo que tiene la provincial de Colón es que su gente siempre se destaca en todas las áreas a nivel nacional e internacional. Han llenado de orgullo al pueblo panameño y en especial a ellos. Glorias como Irving Saladino, Alonso Edwards, Jermaine Cumberbatch, Hugo Stocker, las modelos Rosshy, Hillary, el diseñador Jean Quijano entre otros, son ejemplos de que en la Costa Atlántica hay talento, gente laboriosa y es tierra de campeones y reinas. (Colon, land of happy, fighting and talented people. If there is something the provincial capital of Colon has it is that its people always stand out in all areas at national and international level. They have filled the Panamanian people with pride. Glories, such as Irving Saladino, Alonso Edwards, Jermaine Cumberbatch, Hugo Stocker, the models, Rosshy and Hillary, and the designer, Jean Quijano, among others, are examples of the talent on the Atlantic Coast, hardworking people and a land of champions and queens) (Trujillo, 2016).

La Chorrera, the tenth province of Panamá, situated next to the province of Panama, is called
tierra del bollo y del chicheme (the land of bollo and chicheme). Articles describing this geographic location provide a lot of examples.

Hablar de La Chorrera seguro nos hace recordar la décima provincia o tal vez el conocido Chorro de La Chorrera, pero algo que salta a la mente de todos es el famoso apoyo de la tierra del bollo y del chicheme. Esta receta hecha de maíz y leche, más la receta secreta que le da el sabor único chorrerano, es el imán que atrae a cientos de personas, al punto que la reconocida refresquería ‘El Chorro’, ha empezado a vender el producto las 24 horas. Chorreranos o no, cuentan que cada vez que van al interior del país, esa es la parada obligada y algunos dicen que es hasta un ‘almuerzo’ y ‘la mejor comida de Panamá’. Pero todo no queda allí, pues preparan al fiel acompañante del chicheme, el bollo. (Talking about La Chorrera reminds us of the tenth province and also the well-known Chorro de La Chorrera, but something that comes to everyone’s mind is the famous support of the land of the bollo (bun) and the chicheme (filling). This recipe, made from corn and milk, plus the secret recipe that gives it the unique chorrerano flavour, is the magnet that attracts hundreds of people, to the point that the producer of the renowned refreshment, ‘El Chorro’ soda, is selling it 24 hours a day. Chorreranos or not, people say that every time they go to the interior of the country, it is an obligatory stop and some say it is even a ‘lunch’ and ‘the best food in Panama’. But this isn’t all because they also prepare the faithful companion of the chicheme, the bollo) (Cejas, 2014).

The District of La Pintada in the Province of Coclé is called una del Sombrero Pinta’o (Cradle of the Painted Hat). Though it is not a very developed place it has tourist potential and there is a wide variety of handicrafts, among the best known and representative, the painted hat made with typical natural materials from the area.

Coiba Island where Coiba National Park is located, which is a nature reserve located in the homonymous archipelago belonging to the Montijo and Soná districts of the Veraguas province, is known as la joya salvaje del Pacífico panameño (the wild jewel of the Panamanian Pacific).
Las Tablas, where Panamanians traditionally meet during the four days of Carnival, is called cuna del folclor, belleza y splendor (cradle of folklore, beauty and splendour). Independence Day is also widely celebrated there when men, women, boys and girls wear typical Panamanian national dress, as a tribute to the homeland.

The Anton region is known as tierra del manjar blanco y el Torito Guapo (the land of the white delicacy and the Handsome Torito (calf). There every year the traditional National Festival of the Handsome Bull of Antón is celebrated, a folk activity that was created in 1969 to highlight the work and leisure activities of the farms of the area. The white delicacy (a product made of sweetened milk) is also produced there.

4. DISCUSSION

Both Peru and Panama belong to so-called ‘emotional cultures’ (Trompenaars, 2013). The overall results of the analysis of Toponymic Periphrasis relating to these two Spanish-speaking countries demonstrate their differences, due to the particular history and modern situation of Peru and Panama. The rapid industrial development of Panama, as well as the construction of skyscrapers, led to the emergence of a stable paraphrase for its capital as The New Dubai of Latin America. The capital of Peru is known by the paraphrase The Pearl of the Pacific, alluding rather to the beauty of the capital than to its place and role in business communication. It is quite notable that the paraphrase, The Pearl of the Pacific, is applied also to the Peruvian city of Callao, Ecuadorian Guayaquil and the Chilean Valparaiso, a fact that shows toponymical homonymy among different varieties of the pluricentric Spanish language (Clyne, 1992) and shows similar mechanisms of metaphorical re-naming.

For toponymical metaphors of both countries the lexemes ciudad (city), tierra (land) turned out to be the most semiotically significant and regularly reproduced periphrases, as well as capital (capital) and cuna (cradle).

The comparison with famous cities is culture bound and different in the countries analysed. According to our material, the Peruvians have preferred Rome and Seville, while the Panamanians preferred Dubai and Switzerland, reflecting different collective assumptions and beliefs, to a degree.

From the teachers’ and students’ perspective Peruvians, as well as Panamanians tend to personify their favourite famous place names, Peruvians tending to stress their virtues and the Panamanians, their actions. Peru and Panama’s toponymic periphrasis can be used as a set of special creative exercises which can be integrated in Spanish language classes, such as commentaries on toponymic periphrasis, deciphering it from media discourse. The results obtained can help promote the multidimensional application of toponymy study in developing professional competence.

5. CONCLUSION

The toponymic linguistic creativity of the Peruvians and Panamanians forms part of the Latin American linguistic continuum, which is observed in a certain coincidence of the motivation of the periphrases, such as Ciudad de la Eterna Primavera (A City of Eternal Spring), which create inter-variant toponymic homonyms. Toponymic linguistic creativity studies develop creative professional competence, which have a long-term perspective as they help build creative skills in communication with representatives of different Spanish speaking countries in general. These competences provide benefits in personal business relations by effective interpretation of linguistic and cultural idiosyncrasies. Getting more acquainted with the cultural and linguistic heritage of a nation also means blurring the barriers that are often palpable in intercultural communication on different levels. These are the skills needed in successful business communication, as well as in successful interpreting of mass media texts. Managing toponymical metaphors enriches the professional competence of university courses and by helping students in their linguo-creative understanding becomes an effective tool in teaching Spanish at Bachelor’s and Master’s levels, contributing to students’ intellectual activities and forming aesthetic values appropriate to the modern teaching approach.
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Review

Let’s talk: How English conversation works (a review)

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What really goes on in a conversation and how do we express it linguistically in English? That’s the subject of Let’s Talk – a study of conversation by the linguist and author, David Crystal. As one of the world’s leading experts on the English language and a noted broadcaster, lecturer and writer, David Crystal wears his immense learning lightly. His scholarship is muted but effective, and his style is, well, conversational.

Let’s Talk, subtitled How English Conversation Works, explores the underlying conventions of conversation in eighteen chapters, covering greetings, starting conversations, turn-taking, interrupting, expressing opinions, telephone and online conversations, dealing with topical subjects and cultural misunderstandings, as well as looking at emerging ‘rules’ of conversation and a final discussion on how conversation is changing. There is a cornucopia of examples, many taken from Crystal’s work on The Survey of English Usage and published in Advanced Conversational English in 1973. The book itself is out of print but the recordings on which it was based are available on http://davidcrystal.com as well as many more recent recordings taken from current corpora including YouTube clips. Founded by Lord Randolph Quirk, then Quain Professor of English at University College, University of London in 1962, The Survey of English Usage was a key development in understanding how English was actually used as opposed to traditional grammatical rules and led to the magisterial A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik, published in 1985.

Crystal begins by emphasising the importance of greetings as a brief verbal handshake to initiate a conversation. He goes into the variations of what Jonathan Swift, the author of Gulliver’s Travels, called ‘the ball of discourse’ but stresses why Hello became a standard greeting, especially in telephonic and online communication. Apparently, Hello, a fairly recent term in the English language in the 19th century, introduced as a greeting in the 1850s, became established as the basic introduction to a telephone conversation by 1878. By 1883, female telephone operators were routinely referred to as hello girls. However, as Crystal points out, one third of young people on their mobile phones today prefer phrases such as Heh, Yo or Whassup (What’s up), or more commonly, Hi.

As he explains early in the book the actual word ‘conversation’ didn’t appear in English until
the 15th century, when it meant ‘being in a place or among people’. Conversation as a verbal concept only emerged in the 16th century but conversations existed in early middle ages literature, from the 12th to the 15th century in works such as Beowulf and Malory’s Le Morte d’Arthur. They were called dialogues.

A lover and connoisseur of conversation was Dr Samuel Johnson (1709-1784), author of the famous Dictionary of the English Language, published in 1755. It was he, writing in The Idler, a magazine, who said that when two Englishmen meet, their first talk is of the weather. Many foreigners and native speakers still believe that to be true today. To have a conversation, Dr Johnson said, there must be four things: knowledge, materials (something to talk about), imagination and presence of mind. His biographer, James Boswell, reported him as saying after a dinner at a friend’s house that there was talk but no conversation. Nothing was discussed, he said.

For the teacher or advanced student there are masses of insights in the book and examples of how language is used to manage conversation. One of many fascinating areas is how to change the subject. Phrases such as, That reminds me..., Speaking of which maybe we should..., By the way..., Come to think of it... and, to return to a subject when the conversation has gone off track, Going back to what we were saying...

I was fascinated by Crystal’s discussion of ‘uptalk’ as a way of bonding and involving the listener in a conversation. ‘Uptalk’ is the use of a rising intonation at the end of a sentence, frequently used in question tags but also in statements, inviting the listener to get involved and agree or disagree.

‘I was fascinated by Crystal’s discussion of ‘uptalk’ as a way of bonding and involving the listener in a conversation. ‘Uptalk’ is the use of a rising intonation at the end of a sentence, frequently used in question tags but also in statements, inviting the listener to get involved and agree or disagree’ is common in Wales and in Ireland and accounts for the musical lilt in many Irish and Welsh accents.

A key influence on modern conversation has been the expansion of online communication. How has that affected the way we converse and the language we use? The use of the Internet encourages anonymity and also short messages and responses often moderated by acronyms such as LOL (Lots of laughs) or OMG (Oh, my God!) to express surprise or shock and the use of emojis and emoticons to express a whole range of emotions. Another is the prevalence of slang, especially by younger users, as in OMG, I was like, wow!, which means I was really impressed. Another device is the use of the hashtag. According to Crystal, hashtags were introduced via Twitter in 2007 so that users could find all the tweets relating to a particular topic. Another feature of conversation on social media is that messages tend to get broken up so that one message may begin a thought but a subsequent message may complete it.

Information and Communication Technologies have deeply affected how we talk to each other as computer and Internet vocabulary have become part of our conversation. Some people will happily end a meeting by saying I have to log off now and no computer is near them. You’ll often hear, Have you got the bandwidth to deal with this? meaning Have you got the knowledge and understanding required? When you are explaining a situation, someone might ask you to backspace a minute meaning, Could you go back and explain it again?
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Crystal cites Gretchen McCulloch, author of Because Internet (2019) as pointing out the significance of dots (…) in a text message to mean something left unsaid, maybe negative. One of the problems of keeping up with conversational language usage is differences in generation. Crystal cites McCulloch as saying, ‘The dots (in a text or written conversation) must be indicating something left unsaid. From a peer, something left unsaid might indicate flirtation but from an older relative, that would be weird’.

Does this use of computer language in general conversation, making exchanges shorter and using Internet symbols and jargon, mean that conversation is dying? Crystal believes not. Texting and WhatsApp may be a different way of engaging in conversation but it is nevertheless a conversation. However, it is important in teaching English language and communication for teachers to expose students to the language and style of online English conversation, the equivalent of which students and many teachers will already be familiar with in their own language.

As David Crystal says, ‘that is a task still facing schools, where there may be little or no instruction about the properties of electronic communication in all its forms’.

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NOTE: Readers of this review may also look at David Crystal’s Language and the Internet published by Cambridge University Press in 2006.
This is a book about pronunciation. However, it’s not just about how to pronounce words or use stress and intonation but a social and biological investigation into how pronunciation affects our lives from within the womb before birth and throughout our lives.

It has seven chapters covering how speech actually works, the differences in English accents and why they exist in the UK, how different roles can lead to changes in voice and accent, the role of forensic speech analysis in criminal investigations, the use of the voice in transgender speech and synthesised voices and the differences in English accents used around the world. For teachers and trainers, it is a fascinating insight into how we speak differently and why and is valuable as a fascinating background text for teachers of pronunciation and teachers of English.

Jane Setter is professor of phonetics at Reading University in the UK and a regular media commentator on matters of pronunciation and how to understand social differences in accent, stress and intonation. She begins by explaining how we pick up accents in our native tongue. Apparently, it’s in the womb! The unborn child picks up the voice rhythms and cadences in her mother’s womb and when s/he is born can reproduce them as they begin to talk, obviously limited by the ability of voice muscles to pronounce words precisely. So, as science shows, language is literally inborn.

Setter focuses on the variety of English known as Received Pronunciation or RP or, as it now often called, General British (GB). She draws attention to the issue of ‘accentism’ or ‘accent prejudice’. In Britain we still to a degree associate accent with the class structure. Regional accents such as Scouse (Liverpool) and Yorkshire (Yorkshire) or Brummie (Birmingham) are sometimes looked down on by GB speakers who may consider them to be ‘lower class’ accents. This phenomenon is described as ‘linguicism’, being prejudiced against someone because of their use of language, particularly accent. She notes that, socially, GB (general British), also called modified RP, and the Edinburgh accent are the most highly regarded but that other regional accents are frequently disparaged. As she points out, regional accents are still a marker of regional and social background.

Original work by Jane Setter published by Oxford University Press 2019

Reviewed by Maurice Cassidy

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Your voice speaks volumes: It’s not what you say but how you say it (a review)

Original work by Jane Setter, reviewed by Maurice Cassidy

and at times it is possible to locate people very precisely by their accent. In that respect, she says, accent is tribal.

Many people from politicians to TV presenters have taken elocution lessons to improve their accent and to alter the quality of their voice. Margaret Thatcher, Conservative Prime Minister from 1979-1990 took voice lessons to lower her voice and make herself sound more controlled and confident. Voice pitch is measured in Hertz (Hz). Men tend to have a voice pitch between 150 and 200 Hz while women tend to have a higher voice pitch on average in the 200-250 Hz range. By learning to lower your voice pitch you can sound less shrill and more authoritative. That’s what Margaret Thatcher did. Setter recommends Peter Roach’s *English Phonetics and Phonology* and Alan Cruttenden’s *Intonation* as valuable follow-up references and introduces two further peculiarities of English speech patterns. One is uptalk (rising intonation at the end of a statement) and the other is vocal fry. Vocal fry is quite a deep pitch level at about 20-50 Hz and is very deep and rather slow and creaky, often associated with the ‘upper class’ received pronunciation English accent.

As Setter writes, social class is so ingrained in British society it is difficult to dislodge and it is reflected in the popular view of British English accents, although with more regional accents used by presenters, actors and broadcasters, not to mention popstars (remember the Beatles Liverpool accent?) it is much less extreme than it used to be.

Speaking of popstars, Setter devotes a lot of space to accents used by British singers trying to sound American. Two of the key differences are the pronunciation of the vowels in words like *lot* and *bath*. The General British English speaker would use *lot* and *bath* with lips rounded whereas Standard American English speakers would pronounce them with lips unrounded, giving us the flat vowels like ‘laht’ rather than with a ‘trap’ vowel sound. Interestingly, Setter notes, popstars often sound quite different when they go back to their natural accents when speaking. Your professional voice, she says, might sound quite different to your natural voice.

‘Two really interesting aspects of voice and accent are the way in which voice analysis can be used to identify and apprehend criminals and the impact of synthesised speech, as used by Professor Stephen Hawking, the leading theoretical physicist and cosmologist who suffered from paralysis as a result of motor neurone disease and could only communicate through a speech generating device worked by a hand-held switch and eventually by a cheek muscle’

Two really interesting aspects of voice and accent are the way in which voice analysis can be used to identify and apprehend criminals and the impact of synthesised speech, as used by Professor Stephen Hawking, the leading theoretical physicist and cosmologist who suffered from paralysis as a result of motor neurone disease and could only communicate through a speech generating device worked by a hand-held switch and eventually by a cheek muscle.

Professor Setter also works in forensic speech comparison, using auditory and acoustic speech analysis to identify and apprehend criminals. She goes into detail about how the system works and the lengths the authorities go to ensure fairness and avoid the risk of ‘stereotype bias’. Voice clues include personal and regional accent, use of fillers such as ‘um’ and ‘ah’, forms of address and particular keywords and phrases and even background noise as well as detailed comparison of phonetic features of speech.

One of the most interesting parts of the book is the development of synthesised speech. Originally invented as far back as the late 1700s, Hungarian inventor Wolfgang von Kempelen’s ‘Speaking Machine’ used bellows for the lungs, rubber tubes for the mouth and nose and the reed from a woodwind instrument such as a clarinet for the reproduction of the voice (the vocal folds or voice box).
'This is a fascinating book combining personal experience, British and international culture and society and above all scientific understanding of spoken language, how it works and how it is perceived around the world.'

Apparently, utterances could be understood by listeners but they were monotone. Modern development can reproduce reasonably accurately the voice of a person who has lost their voice although, depending on the TTS (text to speech) synthesiser which is used, speech produced may appear to be slower or more stilted. One of the fascinating features of *Your Voice Speaks Volumes* is that you can actually scan examples of speech and also voice synthesisers using your mobile phone. Setter also provides links to YouTube to help readers access the information.

The final chapter looks at English around the world, once again from the point of view of how the way people speak and their pronunciation leads to differences in social awareness. Setter distinguishes between ‘Old Varieties of English’ (the English spoken by immigrants from the British Isles) used, for example, in the USA, Canada, and Australia and ‘New Varieties of English’ or as L2 (English as a second language) spoken in India and Singapore (New Varieties) and India and Malaysia (L2). The other variety, EFL (English as a Foreign Language), is spoken in Russia, among other countries. Setter goes on to make the point that the existence of ‘Old’, ‘New’ ‘L2’ and ‘EFL’ varieties of English gives rise to attitudinal differences and even prejudice between speakers, particularly on the part of some speakers of ‘Old’ varieties who assume an unjustified superiority. Accents are influenced by the mother tongue or variety of English used in different regions and are simply different, not better or worse, although there may be misunderstandings, particularly due to differences in intonation. She praises the work of Jennifer Jenkins on English as a Lingua Franca (*Global Englishes: A Resource Book for Students*). Originally used to describe L1 users communicating with L2 users of English, English as a Lingua Franca now encompasses anyone using English for communication wherever they come from. As she says, English is viewed as a truly global language, developing in a way to suit the communicative purposes of anyone who is using it. This is a fascinating book combining personal experience, British and international culture and society and above all scientific understanding of spoken language, how it works and how it is perceived around the world.

‘Whether we like it or not,’ Setter sums up, ‘we are judged on the way we speak: on our accent, our voice quality, our pitch, our ability to enunciate clearly. There is certainly no language of which this is truer than English – certainly in present times, with its position as a global language’.
News & Events

ICC News

by Robert Williams
ICC Board Member

Schedule Changes

Due to the corona virus restricting travel and gatherings, the ICC annual May conference in Belgrade has been postponed, like most other international conferences in Europe. The new proposed date is in October. We will advise all our members in good time. The conference programme will remain the same.

In the meantime, we are receiving applications for membership which we are processing online, notably from Egypt, Cyprus and Trinidad. All applications have to be agreed by the ICC board and audited by quality control advisers. But we look forward to welcoming the directors of the new organisations to our conference in October.

ICC and the Council of Europe

ICC have renewed our Memorandum of Understanding with the European Council of Modern Languages (ECML), Council of Europe, and Ellinor Haase, ICC chair, attended the 25th anniversary of ECML’s foundation, commemorating also the Council of Europe’s 70th anniversary.

Ellinor presented the ICC’s network and Language for Work projects. The conference allowed delegates to reflect on the important contribution made by the Centre in the field of language education and showcased the results of the current programme and launch the next programme for 2020-2023.

Key themes are inspiring innovation in language education, managing changing contexts and evolving competences.

The ECML presented its draft anniversary declaration, Quality Language Education for a Democratic and Socially Cohesive Europe: Nine ECML Cornerstones. The aim of the declaration is to raise awareness of the political importance of language education and the need for a sustained support for its professionalisation across Europe.

ECML Palingui Project

ICC is proud to be associated with the new ECML Palingui Project which looks at the different linguistic journey young children take in their language acquisition process. As a result of increasing linguistic and cultural diversity in Europe young children are growing up in an environment of multiple languages and cultures with different practices and customs and different ways of speaking, reading and writing.

The Palingui project aims to evaluate the process of daily language learning and ensure it is recognised and valued. It also wants to support children’s understanding of their own language learning and describe their next steps.

Project CATAPULT

Rob Williams, former chair of ICC, current board member and member of the CATAPULT project team, brought members up to date on the progress of the project. The aim is to create a MOOC to help upskill LSP (Languages or Special Purposes) teaching. In doing so the CATAPULT team conducted a survey to gauge current provision and created a common competence framework for teachers. The framework aimed to provide a description of competences to be acquired to be an effective LSP teacher but also a basis for materials development and training. The final situational report and the LSP Teacher Competence Framework can be accessed at catapult-project.eu.
EUROLTA News

by Myriam Fischer Callus
EUROLTA Coordinator

New EUROLTA Centre in Cyprus
EUROLTA is about to have its first training centre in Cyprus. Ifigenia Georgiadou, joint leader of the ICC EUROLTA team with Myriam Fischer Callus, has prepared a proposal to train teachers from the School of Modern Greek at the University of Cyprus, who will form the basis of the new EUROLTA centre.

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

‘The quality of teaching is reflected in learners’ success. This is why we attach great importance to furthering teachers’ qualifications and supporting these courses financially. Our wide range of 20 languages at VHS Hanau shows that our success proves us right,’ said the Mayor.

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

Myriam Fischer Callus, ICC EUROLTA Project Manager, explained: ‘The ICC has made it its business to promote and improve the quality of teaching of foreign languages. This is why EUROLTA was created in the first place. The ICC is particularly happy to accredit VHS Hanau and hopes that EUROLTA will grow beyond its borders’.

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

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

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

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

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

For more information please contact Ifigenia Georgiadou at ifigenia@hcc.edu.gr. Details are also available online at hcc.edu.gr/en/are-you-a-professor-2/teacher-certification-eurolta.
RUDN University News
by Elena Malyuga
Editor-in-Chief TLC

TLC Indexed in DOAJ
Training, Language and Culture is proud to announce that it has been accepted into the Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ) and is now officially part of the platform committed to helping the scientific and publishing communities in their endeavour to disseminate quality Open Access research.

DOAJ offers an array of benefits to both publishers and readers. The Directory’s statistics show over 900,000 page views and 300,000 unique visitors a month from all over the world. Many aggregators, databases, libraries, and search portals collect free metadata from DOAJ and include it in their products. Examples are Scopus, EBSCO and Serial Solutions. Over 95% of the DOAJ Publisher community said that DOAJ is important for increasing their journal’s visibility and getting the seal of scholars’ approval.

Besides, the Directory is often cited as a source of quality open access journals in research and scholarly publishing circles.

TLC Editorial Board and team members truly appreciate being included into the Directory of Open Access Journals and are always committed to keeping up the work for the benefit of our readers and the scientific community.

QS WUR by Subject 2020
QS Rating Agency has introduced the QS WUR by Subject 2020 Rating that lists the best universities in the world by selected subjects.

In 2020, RUDN University was included in 5 subject and 2 industry ratings of the global QS rating, has shown rapid growth in Linguistics and Modern Languages (rising by 50 and 100 positions over the year, respectively), and for the first time entered the list to compete in the domains of Mathematics, Economics and Econometrics, and Chemistry. In industry rankings, RUDN University improved its positions in Arts and Humanities and entered the Top 500 list in Social Sciences and Management.

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

‘It is a great honour and a responsibility to receive this order. RUDN University has been training Colombian students from its very foundation. Since then, 663 Colombians have become university graduates.

Today, 71 Colombian citizens are studying for undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate degrees at RUDN University. We are happy to maintain cooperation between our countries and train highly qualified specialists for the benefit of the future’, said Vladimir Filippov.

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

RUDN University is Recognised for Its Strong Social Media Presence
Experts of the Russian Social and Media Research Centre rated social media presence of the 21 universities participating in the 5-100 program-me based on the Engagement Rate (ER) index.

The rating assesses social media communications and university-user networking performance. The highest ER is provided by native posts, i.e. real stories from real people, such as an interview with a post-graduate student from Italy Antonella Selvittella who studies foreign language teaching methodology and dreams of coming up with new approaches to learning Italian.

RUDN University Facebook user coverage exceeds 12 mln people.