TRAINING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

'Language is the dress of thought'

– Dr Samuel Johnson

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TRAINING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

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Training, Language and Culture (TLC) is a peer-reviewed journal that aims to promote and disseminate research spanning the spectrum of language and linguistics, education and culture studies with a special focus on professional communication and professional discourse. Editorial Board of Training, Language and Culture invites research-based articles, reviews and editorials covering issues of relevance for the scientific and professional communities. TLC covers the following topics of scholarly interest: theoretical and practical perspectives in language and linguistics; culture studies; interpersonal and intercultural professional communication; language and culture teaching and training, including techniques and technology, testing and assessment. The journal is committed to encouraging responsible publication practices honouring the generally accepted ethical principles. This journal adheres to the policies promoted by the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), publishes manuscripts following the double-blind peer review procedure, and licenses published material under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (CC BY 4.0).

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Reflections on TLC

by David Crystal
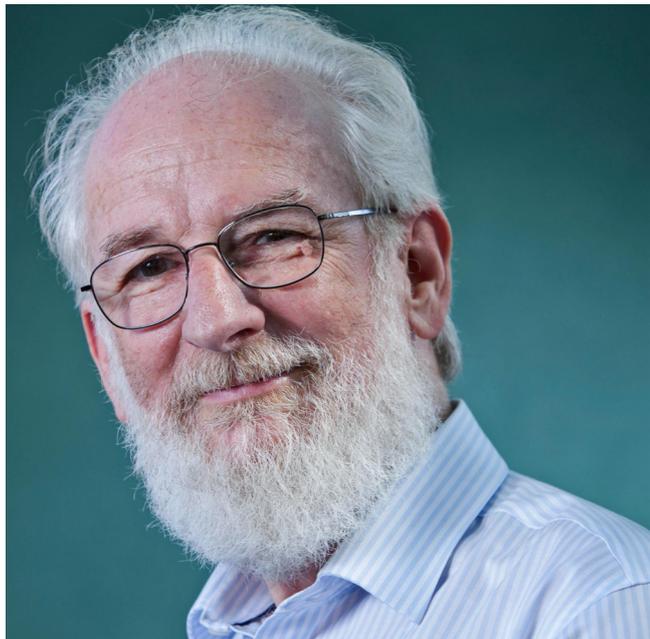
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The acronym of this timely new journal brings to my mind all kinds of topical associations, several culture-specific in character. When I was working in clinical linguistics, TLC meant 'total lung capacity'. When I encountered it in a sandwich bar in New York, it meant 'tomato, lettuce and cheese'. For Indiana Jones buffs it could only mean *The Last Crusade*, and for Harry Potter nerds – *The Leaky Cauldron*. In everyday speech, it means 'tender loving care': 'I need a bit of TLC', someone might say. Translate that into French, Swahili, Chinese…

Acronyms, and abbreviations in general, are one of the most noticeable indications of the way language and culture interact, and one of the most opaque areas of encounter in second language learning. Some, such as BBC and CNN, are so common that it would never cross the mind of a native speaker that they might not be obvious to someone new to the language. But in every language I have tried to learn, I have been brought up short by everyday abbreviations dropped into a conversation without a second thought. Culture-specific language is like that. It is adventitious, unsystematic, unpredictable. And that makes it difficult to teach.

Cultural awareness is a tricky area because there is so much of it within a culture. How much? That is one of the questions TLC will surely investigate. When I was engaged in a multilingual online advertising project, a decade ago, the keywords that formed part of the online search, taken from a college-size English dictionary (about 100,000 in all), had to be translated into a dozen different languages. In most cases, the translators found a one-for-one correspondence, but there was always a significant number where there was no straightforward equivalent because of cultural contrasts. The closer the language relationship, it seemed, the fewer the differences, but even with languages as closely related historically as English and German, there were hundreds. In the case of English and Chinese there were thousands.

It is a tricky area to explore objectively, for there are cultural sensitivities to be respected, in such areas as gender, politics, and religion, and the history of this field is littered with unpremeditated offence. On more than one occasion, a dictionary has been banned in a particular part of the world

because its cultural definitions caused upset – *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture* is one I recall, and Peter Gilliver reports another in his new book, *The Making of the Oxford English Dictionary*. In the case of English, the problem is amplified by global diversity. Each 'new English' has its individual cultural history. When a language is adopted by a community, it is immediately adapted to meet the communicative needs of its culture, and hundreds of new words and expressions soon arise, along with pragmatic variations in such areas as politeness, topic choices, and forms of address. It is a fascinating and neglected area of study, where the issues are only going to increase as time goes by, especially on the Internet, where not even anonymity manages to hide the expression of cultural mindsets.

There needs to be a rapprochement between linguistic, media, and cultural studies, and this new journal is the place where this can happen. From now on 'I need TLC' will have a different meaning.

Editor's Foreword

by Elena Malyuga

Editor-in-Chief TLC

On behalf of the editorial team, we extend a very warm welcome to this inaugural issue of *Training Language and Culture*. The Journal is published through the collaborative efforts of the International Certificate Conference – The International Language Association and Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University). Peoples' Friendship University of Russia is located in Moscow and is ranked first among Russian higher educational institutions in terms of internationalisation, as recorded by the Reuters Agency. International cooperation is an integral part of the university's activity, and a key instrument in ensuring high-quality education complying with international standards. As of today, 30 percent of the total number of international students studying in Russia are RUDN University students coming from 140

countries. In total, the university is currently Alma Mater to about 27,000 students representing over 450 of the world's nations. Today, university graduates are successfully building their careers in 190 countries.

TLC is a joint initiative of ICC and the Department of Foreign Languages of the Faculty of Economics of RUDN University and ICC. The department focuses on a number of topical research issues, such as LSP (Language for Specific Purposes), specialised translation, applied languages and professional communication. In order to promote research in these areas of study, our department hosts a number of international conferences, such as the International applied research conference *Topical Issues of Linguistics and Teaching Methods in Business and Professional Communication*. The conference is a collaboration between the department and Cambridge English Language Assessment, the British Council, Cambridge University Press, the US, Italian and Chinese Embassies in Moscow, Cervantes Institute, the Goethe Cultural Centre, the German Academic Exchange Service, CampusFrance, and the Pearson Longman, Macmillan and Heinemann publishing houses. Thus, TLC is a further step towards the promotion of research in the field of related topics and another opportunity to strengthen the university's international ties.

TLC is a peer-reviewed online journal which aims to promote and disseminate research spanning the spectrum of modern language, communication and culture studies. The articles presented in TLC

provide a wide and diverse range of perspectives and challenging critical reflections on language and cultural training, as well as cultural awareness and international communication. We welcome contributions from teachers and academic researchers able to offer an in-depth analysis of issues associated with language and linguistics, as well as the use of technology and media in language and cultural training. The Journal also aims to take an insightful look at the challenges connected with testing and assessment of language and cultural awareness.

TLC is an internationally refereed publication providing online access to all those involved in the research, teaching and learning of linguistics, communication and culture. This is a wide-ranging field examining how languages are structured, how meanings and ideas are formed and encoded, how they are communicated and represented, and how these and other aspects of language functioning are taught within various disciplines. These processes are dynamic in nature, as languages and cultures are evolving and changing in the context of various global phenomena and events. TLC intends to represent this dynamism and provide a platform for publication of studies in the field of language and culture training. We welcome articles that are research-based and address how linguistics and culture are taught in various contexts.

The TLC Editorial Board is composed of prominent international scholars. This highly experienced editorial team will ensure that all papers are

thoroughly and fairly peer-reviewed.

There are a number of reasons underlying the need for research journals such as TLC.

Firstly, globalisation processes have not only overtaken the socio-political sphere, but have also heavily influenced scientific and cultural activity. Representatives of different spheres of activity in various countries need to engage in a reciprocal constructive dialogue for the purposes of scientific and professional enrichment and be aware of trends in the scientific and cultural development of the peoples around the globe. TLC aims to create a forum for this.

Secondly, the authority of professional associations and educational and academic institutions, as well as the prestige of experts operating in particular fields, is largely recognised by their scientific achievements. Today, high professional standing is not something one acquires only by securing a specific scope of expertise and obtaining practical skills. It is not just about overcoming practical challenges, but is rather about being able to understand and evaluate a range of related issues, clarify problematic questions and seek answers. TLC aims to offer a new publication outlet to help researchers disseminate their work.

Finally, the key objective of linguists is to study language and culture as an instrument of interaction between individuals and nations, a treasury of people's cultural legacies, a cognition tool of the human race. We hope that this journal

will open a new platform for the fruitful interaction between practical and theoretical researchers, help establish an environment of creative exploration for us to find ways to improve communication practices deployed by people of different professions and nationalities and stimulate young specialists' research activity.

Training Language and Culture welcomes research into all languages and cultures. If your research attempts a critical appraisal of language and culture assessment procedures, offers an alternative perspective on the use of technology in language training, examines well-established or non-conventional language theories, aims at promoting linguistic research, seeks to develop new ideas or challenge existing approaches to language and cultural studies, we would certainly like to publish your work.

TLC Editorial Board is looking forward to future cooperation.

Introduction to Issue 1(1)

by Barry Tomalin

Co-Editor TLC

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

The ICC as the International Language Association is pleased to collaborate with RUDN University in initiating this peer-reviewed journal with the aim of providing links between training and teaching, languages culture and technology.

We are grateful for the sponsorship and co-operation of our Russian partners in People's Friendship University of Russia.

Although TLC only publishes articles written in English, the journal is for all languages. The reason is that, for the time being at least, English remains the world's lingua franca with up to two billion users worldwide.

TLC is a peer-reviewed journal. Each article is reviewed by two experts – including members of our Editorial Board – before approval for publication.

As Professor Crystal, one of the world's leading linguists, explains in his *Reflections on TLC*, the journal aims to create a rapprochement between linguistics, media and cultural studies and, to add two more ingredients, language and cultural assessment and teaching and training technology. We intend to offer articles and ideas that can provide additional stimuli for the classroom and, of course, insights from the classroom that can be of value in the corporate training room.

In this issue, we are honoured to feature an article by Professor Crystal on the need for an online cultural dictionary. His investigation of culture and its importance in a global economy is something to be strongly welcomed.

The second article is by world Scopus recognised author Elena Malyuga of Peoples' Friendship University of Russia on the role of professional jargon in international business and how to improve understanding in international business meetings and negotiations, an important aspect of successful communication.

Technology is represented by Michael Carrier, author and editor of *Digital Language Learning*. His article on the role of Automatic Speech Recognition and its relationship to language learning is an essential contribution to a fast-developing field.

Antonina Kharkovsyaya and Elena Ponomarenko highlight the importance of minitexts, short conversations and articles to encapsulate language exchange, offering a useful source for linguistic discourse and cultural analysis.

Using his experience in a French University, Phillip Wade describes models of assessment that can be applied to courses in language and proposes an evaluation model that course leaders and programme evaluators can use to determine the value of courses for both the teaching

institution and its students.

Finally, Olga Aleksandrova et al. investigate recent trends and branches in linguistic theory and practice and their application to the study of grammar, vocabulary and in the new world of online communication.

The journal concludes with reviews of David Crystal's *Gift of the Gab* and Engelbert Thaler's *Teaching English Literature* and *Shorties* followed by News from ICC, EUROLTA and RUDN University.

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

My priority for the next 50 years: An online cultural dictionary

by David Crystal

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One of the consequences of the global spread of English has been a notable increase in the culture-specific content of everyday conversation among fluent L2 speakers. Despite excellent competence in grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, communicative breakdowns often occur when speakers of different English varieties fail to grasp the meaning of an utterance that one of them has taken for granted. This paper illustrates the kind of culture-specific items encountered, discusses the problems in current approaches, describes a fruitful taxonomy, and suggests how it might be implemented. Using the Internet, the lexical-cultural identities of emerging English around the world could be captured, collated, and presented as a teaching resource.

KEYWORDS: *English, language, communication, Internet, culture, identity*

Increasingly, over the past ten years, I've come to take the view that a cultural perspective is intrinsic to the future of language teaching and learning, especially in the case of English, as it becomes increasingly global. Once upon a time, I saw this perspective as a marginal or advanced feature of a curriculum – as I think most courses did – something that learners would 'add on' after achieving a certain level of competence. Not anymore. A cultural perspective needs to be there from day one. Here's an illustration, from one of the most elementary of conversations.

I'd just returned from several months in the Netherlands, and although it wasn't my first visit, it was the first time I'd experienced Dutch as a daily routine. At one point I had my first complete Dutch conversation in a local baker's shop. I had fallen in love with appleflaps – a gorgeous concoction of apple in a slightly sugared, triangular casing made of puff pastry – and I wanted my daily fix. The conversation was very simple:

Me: Een appelflap. (One appleflap)
Shop lady (laughing)**:** Zeer goed... Een euro vijftig. (One euro fifty)
Me: Dank je wel. (Thank you very much)
Shop lady: Alsjeblieft. (Please)

This conversation, basic as it is, is full of cultural content. It is firstly, an informal exchange, as shown by the choice of *'Dank je wel'* (vs more

formal *'Dank u wel'*) and *'Alsjeblieft'* (vs more formal *'Alstublieft'*). But it is not just informal, there is also a pragmatic difference. In normal English I wouldn't say *'Thank you very much'* for the first exchange in a trivial shop purchase. I would say simply *'Thank you'* – and leave a *'very much'* for a moment when I felt the server had done something special. But in Dutch, *'Dank u wel'* is the routine expression of thanks.

Then there's the distribution of *'please'*. You will have noticed that I didn't use it, following my observation that Dutch people usually don't when they are asking for something over the counter. On the other hand, when the lady gave me the appleflap, it was she who said *'please'*, where clearly the word was functioning more like a *'thank you'* – *'thank you for your custom'* or *'here you are'*. Immigrant waiters in English restaurants who say *'please'* as they give you something are clearly unconsciously transferring their first-language habits into their new setting.

I have a grandson in Amsterdam who is growing up bilingually. One of his biggest challenges is sorting out the politeness differences between the two languages/ cultures. We keep haranguing him to say *'please'* and *'thank you'* as much as possible – this is, after all, the British way, instilled by parents into English children's brains from around the age of three. *'Can I have a biscuit?'* asks the child. *'I haven't heard that little word yet'*, says the parent. *'Can I have a biscuit, please'* repeats the child.

But this is not the Dutch way, so when my grandson forgets, he is constantly sounding abrupt to our ears. Nor, for that matter, is it the way in several other languages. One of the common traps for a British tourist is to keep saying *'s'il vous plaît'* in French or *'por favor'* in Spanish, in contexts where a native speaker would never use them. The British speaker often sounds too insistent, as a consequence:

'Una cerveza, por favor' – *'A beer, if you please!'*

And we are not yet finished with the culture of my tiny Dutch exchange.

Why did the lady laugh, when I asked for an appleflap? It was because she recognised me as a foreigner, but one who had learned to appreciate what is a quintessentially Dutch food. Her laugh basically said *'you're becoming one of us now'*. Indeed, on another occasion, someone asked me how my Dutch was coming on, and I said I'd got all the vocabulary I needed, namely *'appelflap'*. She nodded in agreement, but then pointed out that if I wanted to be really fluent in the language I needed the plural form, *'appleflappen'*.

I have had dozens of experiences like this, as I expect most of you have. And when one starts to

'Immigrant waiters in English restaurants who say 'please' as they give you something are clearly unconsciously transferring their first-language habits into their new setting'

collect examples for a 'dictionary of language and culture', as I have done in workshops in several countries, it's amazing how many instances of cultural identity a class can generate in half an hour. This is the first step, it seems to me, to build up a sense of what makes our own culture unique. We are then in a better position to predict the likely differences with other cultures. It is best done in a group where there is at least one person involved from a different cultural background. Left to themselves, native speakers usually have a poor intuition about what their cultural linguistic distinctiveness is.

The Internet can help enormously in this respect. No longer is it necessary for learners to be physically present in another culture before they can learn something about it. If I want to experience a language, or a different variety of English from my own, all I have to do is go online. Thanks to Skype and other such options, interaction is now practicable. Hitherto, most of this experience has been with written language, but with the increasing audio-isation of the

Internet, the development of a more sophisticated cultural awareness is going to become a more practicable outcome. A little while ago I saw a group of primary school children in a classroom talking to a group of French children in their classroom via the Internet, and learning about favourite things to eat and what to call them. This is linguaculture in practice.

My view has evolved mainly as a reaction to the way English has become a global language. There are two ways of looking at this phenomenon. One is to focus on the importance of international intelligibility, expressed through the variety we call Standard English or some notion of English as a lingua franca. The other is to focus on the regional features which differentiate one part of the English-speaking world from another. And it is this second perspective which is becoming more noticeable as English 'settles down' within a country. We now happily talk about British, American, Australian, South African, Indian, Singaporean, and other 'Englishes'. Much of the distinctiveness is in the area of lexicology, and it is this domain which most closely reflects culture. Dictionaries have been compiled of distinctive local lexicons, and some of them contain many thousands of words. Culture, in this context, is simply everything that makes a community (or country) unique, different from other communities.

I have written about this in several papers over the

past few years, but the point deserves repetition. When a country adopts a language as a local alternative means of communication, it immediately starts adapting it, to meet the communicative needs of the region. Words for local plants and animals, food and drink, customs and practices, politics and religion, sports and games, and many other facets of everyday life soon accumulate a local word stock which is unknown outside the country and its environs. And the reason I say this perspective is intrinsic to language learning is because it is virtually impossible for people to engage with speakers of other languages in everyday conversation without cultural issues needing to be taken into account.

When a group of people in a country (such as students, teachers, or businessmen) talk to me in English about everyday affairs, the subject matter of their conversation inevitably incorporates aspects of their local environment. They talk about the local shops, streets, suburbs, bus routes, institutions, businesses, television programmes, newspapers, political parties, minority groups, and a great deal more. They make jokes, quote proverbs, bring up childhood linguistic memories (such as nursery rhymes), and recall lyrics of popular songs. All this local knowledge is taken for granted, and when we encounter it – such as in newspapers – we need to have it explained. Conventional dictionaries don't help, because they will not include such localisms, especially if the

expressions refer to local people, places, institutions, and suchlike. And casual cultural references that authors bring in to course books only help to a limited extent.

Every English speaking location in the world has usages which make the English used there distinctive, expressive of local identity, and a means of creating solidarity. From this point of view, notions such as 'Dutch English' or 'Chinese English' take on a fresh relevance, going well beyond traditional conceptions of English spoken with a Dutch or Chinese accent, or English displaying interference from Dutch or Chinese. Dutch English I define as the kind of English I need to know about when I go to the Netherlands, otherwise I will be unable to converse efficiently with Dutch speakers in English. It would be extremely useful to have a glossary of the English equivalents of Dutch cultural references, but this seems to be a neglected area for any language. And the same point applies the other way round, Dutch people need a glossary of English cultural references. Few such texts exist.

It takes a while for the speakers to realise that there is a problem, and often a problem of cultural misunderstanding is never recognised. People readily sense when someone's linguistic knowledge is imperfect, and may go out of their way to accommodate to a foreigner by speaking more slowly or by simplifying sentences. But they

are not so good at cultural accommodation. There is too ready an assumption that foreigners will know what they are talking about. People always tend to underestimate the cultural knowledge of their non-native listeners and readers, whatever the language and whatever the setting. Because the words and phrases are so familiar and routine, people are usually unaware that they are using something which foreigners will not understand.

They take things for granted. And that's why I think a cultural perspective needs to be treated more systematically in language teaching. It's not that it's been overlooked; it simply hasn't been treated as systematically – within a language-teaching programme – as it needs to be.

My impression is that teachers are keen to teach culture-specific items, once they are aware of the extent to which they exist. A teacher workshop I sometimes do will illustrate this point. After explaining the issue, we take 30 minutes to begin collecting data for a culture dictionary, using no more sources than the intuitions of the participants. It only takes a few minutes before they have listed dozens of items – names and nicknames of political parties and politicians, what particular suburbs in the city are famous for, favourite television programmes, personalities, and so on. I (or other British people in the room) provide equivalences in the UK, and if there are participants from other parts of the English-

'People always tend to underestimate the cultural knowledge of their non-native listeners and readers, whatever the language and whatever the setting'

speaking world, they make their contributions. What emerges from this is that some of the cultural linguistic observations are easily generalisable. The 'please' phenomenon, for example, turns up in several other language settings; it is not restricted to Dutch. And the discussion soon turns to the general question of how politeness is handled in language, which is a universal. I suspect that all the cultural points identified can be explored in a general way, though some are easier to investigate than others. Simply to say *'We do X'* is to invite the response *'Do we do X too?' And if not, what do we do instead?'* Everywhere has politics, traffic, suburbs, and leisure activities, and so on.

I mentioned 'casual cultural references' above. What I meant by that is the sort of thing we encounter in a textbook. Chapter 15 teaches 'Questions and answers', shall we say, and the author uses as a dialogue a visit to Oxford Street in London. The focus is on the grammatical point being taught, and the vocabulary of shopping. So why Oxford Street? This would be an ideal opportunity to introduce a cultural perspective.

This is a special street. Why? If someone were to say, in December, *'I am keeping well away from Oxford Street'* or *'Aren't the lights splendid this year'*, what does the speaker mean? The hidden topics are all to do with crowds of shoppers and the specially erected overhead Christmas decorations. The point is fairly obvious, perhaps, but what cultural equivalents would I encounter if I were to find myself talking in English about festival shopping to people in Amsterdam, or Delhi, or Beijing? And where could I look these things up?

It is the random nature of the cultural focus that I think we need to avoid. Chapter 15 introduces the reader to Oxford Street. But Chapter 16 might be about a visit to the zoo, or visiting the dentist, or anything. Would there be anywhere in the course that completes the cultural picture, with respect to shopping? Whatever kind of shopping we encounter in Oxford Street, that is not the whole story, as far as shopping in London is concerned. Where in the course is the reader introduced to street markets, to 'downmarket' streets, to streets more 'upmarket' than Oxford Street, to barrow-boys, and so on? The list is not infinite. With a bit of thought, it would be possible to assess the semantic field of shopping and come up with a series of topics suitable for presentation to learners that would constitute one element in what we might call a cultural syllabus. Such a syllabus would be the equivalent, in pedagogical terms, of the kind of universal taxonomy that we see in

library classifications (such as Dewey), content hierarchies on the Internet, and other places where the aim is to obtain a broad view of human knowledge. Several useful taxonomies already exist. The challenge is to adapt them to meet language learner needs.

Localities form only one small part of a knowledge taxonomy. I am not thinking here of speech acts such as 'requesting', which were well handled when people began to talk about communicative language teaching years ago. No, any principled cultural syllabus needs to take on board the whole 'universe of discourse' – that is, anything that can be talked about in a culture.

Here is an example of a taxonomy, to show what I mean. It's the one I developed for an enterprise called the Global Data Model, devised in the 1990s as a means of classifying the Internet, and which was eventually adopted and adapted by various companies as a system for dealing specifically with online advertising.

This had ten top-level categories:

1. Universe, space and space exploration.
2. Earth science structure and surface of the Earth.
3. Environment land care and management.
4. Natural history plants and animals.
5. Human body physical and psychological make-up of the human being, including medical care.

6. Mind knowledge, beliefs, science, technology, arts, and communication.

7. Society social organisation, including politics, economics, military science, and law.

8. Recreation and leisure activities (including hobbies, sports, and games).

9. Human geography, world geography, travel, and geography of countries.

10. Human history, world history, archaeology, and history of countries.

Of course, at this level, they don't mean very much but as we break them down we see the power of the classification. For example, arts sub classifies into the various artistic domains, as in the case of music (the codes show the hierarchy):

MI ART MUSI	Music
MI ART MUSI CMPS	Musical composition
MI ART MUSI CMPS CLSSC	Classical music composition
MI ART MUSI CMPS CLSSC NSTRT	Instrumental music composition
MI ART MUSI CMPS CLSSC PRMSC	Opera composition
MI ART MUSI CMPS CMPSM	Popular music composition
MI ART MUSI MSPR	Technical production of music
MI ART MUSI PSNT	Presentation of music
MI ART MUSI PSNT CLSCL	Classical music presentation
MI ART MUSI PSNT CLSCL NSTRM	Instrumental music presentation
MI ART MUSI PSNT CLSCL VCLMS	Vocal music presentation
MI ART MUSI PSNT MDRN	Modern music presentation
MI ART MUSI PSNT MDRN FKCTW	Folk music
MI ART MUSI PSNT MDRN JZZMS	Jazz
MI ART MUSI PSNT MDRN MDFTR	Media music
MI ART MUSI PSNT MDRN MSCLC	Musicals
MI ART MUSI PSNT MDRN PPLRM	Popular music presentation
MI ART MUSI PSNT RLGSP	Religious music
MI ART MUSI RCRDM	Recording of music
MI ART MUSI STDY	Musicology
MI ART MUSI STDY TXTSM	Visual representation of music

It's at this level that we can begin to see specific points of cultural contrast – different types of instrument, famous folk singers, well known concert halls and events.

Each of these subcategories can be of potential cultural significance for language teaching, in the sense that there will be points of difference that learners need to take on board. Here are some musical examples from British English conversations:

I managed to get a ticket for the last night of the Proms.

Not the sort of thing I'd expect to hear on Radio 3. Radio 1, more like.

(of a new club) *It's like a London equivalent of the Cavern.*

(of a visit to Edinburgh) *Bagpipes everywhere!*

The everyday task, put simply, is to explain what on earth the speaker means. The intercultural task is to find what equivalents there would be in other languages. Is there an iconic summer music festival in your country; music-specific radio channels; famous popular music clubs; national instruments? The research task is to identify, classify, and present these differences, exploring the taxonomy in a systematic way. Only then can

teachers make selections in terms of relevance, and begin the task of grading them in terms of teaching difficulty. From a semantic point of view, some topics will be lexically more difficult than others. From a grammatical point of view, some will involve more complex constructions than others. Some topics will be inappropriate for young learners. And so on. And there will of course be cultural sensitivities – some topics simply cannot be talked about comfortably at all, for religious, political, or other reasons.

It's a large task, but not an infinite one. There are only so many subcategories that need to be considered. There are around 1500 categories in my taxonomy, which was designed with advertising chiefly in mind. For ELT, it would be necessary to add some extra subcategories, extra levels of detail, but the overall total would probably not be much above 2000.

I've looked at the language teaching courses I have on my shelves, which suggest that course books are more impressionistic in their coverage than taxonomically systematic – in other words, based on the author's intuition about the situations most likely to be often encountered by learners. I don't recall seeing a structural approach. Let me explain what I mean by that with an analogy.

In relation to vocabulary, for a long time people taught individual words and idioms. But after

structural semantics arrived, it was clear that this wasn't enough. Far better was to teach vocabulary in terms of the words that cluster in semantic fields and the sense relations that they display, such as antonyms. So, we would not teach 'happy' in lesson X and 'sad' in lesson Y, but the two together. This kind of teaching is of course often done instinctively, but the message of the structural semantic approach was: 'do this systematically', and not just for 'opposites' but for lexical sets of all kinds.

I think the same approach is needed for the kind of thing we're talking about. To be 'culturally anchored', we need to look at the structure of the cultural relationships that lie behind a particular example of functional-situational discourse. This is what a cultural syllabus would reflect. To return to my earlier example, the semantic field of shopping involves an array of vocabulary which is organised into lexical sets, such as how much things cost, types of shops, city locations, and so on. Course books typically choose just one set of options from this field – such as 'A visit to Oxford Street' – and present the vocabulary needed. A more systematic approach would relate an Oxford Street experience to other kinds of shopping experiences, where a different kind of vocabulary would be required. Only in this way can we begin to make sense of real-world sentences such as: *'You're more likely to find what you're looking for in Bond Street… or Portobello Road…'* I don't know how

this would best be done (I am no materials writer), but I do see signs of writers moving in the direction of a more structured approach. The chapter headings in the *Global Intermediate English Language Teaching Coursebook* (Clandfield & Benne, 2011) provide an illustration of antonymy: 'Hot and Cold', 'Love and Hate', 'Friends and Strangers', 'Lost and Found', and so on. And several of the topics that are dealt with in these scenarios involve cultural as well as semantic considerations.

I still see many signs, as I travel around, of people 'dropping their cultural background' and accommodating (in the sociolinguistic sense) to the interpersonal (and thus, intercultural) needs of an international speech situation. In contexts where the participants are experienced professionals, this 'neutral' discourse is fluent and sophisticated, even though the cultural neutrality sometimes slips, so that someone unaware of a speaker's cultural background will temporarily be at a loss. The more informal and everyday the speech situation, the more people allow cultural knowledge to creep in (usually without realising it).

I'm not thinking especially of the 'longer stay in a country' kind of situation. The sort of thing I encounter more often is in short encounter situations – the international conference or business meeting, or in casual everyday

conversations. During the formal meetings, when people are sitting around a table and discussing an agenda, often with supportive written documentation, formal Standard English is the norm, and mutual intelligibility is generally achieved. But when the meeting has a break for coffee or a meal, then a totally different linguistic encounter emerges. That is where speakers, more relaxed, begin to introduce a colloquial mode of expression that they would never have used in the formal meeting, and this is characterised by the use of idioms and the kind of cultural assumption that I have been talking about. This is usually harmless, in relation to the goals of the meeting. The problem comes when returning to the formal meeting where people inadvertently introduce these features into the dialogue.

I remember one such occasion when a member of the British contingent, imagining that a degree of informality would help matters along, made a culture specific pun (to do with cricket) which the other British participants immediately recognised, laughed, and reacted to (in the way we often do with language play, taking up the pun and trying to outpun the other person). But the non-British people around the table didn't recognise the allusion, didn't laugh, and thus felt excluded. This is a frequent situation. I have often found myself in the same position as I visit other countries and find myself in a conversation where all the locals are 'enjoying the joke', or becoming enthusiastic

or annoyed about a topic, and I have no idea at all what is going on.

The problem exists in many kinds of everyday circumstances – in advertising slogans, newspaper headlines and references to local politics or sport. Here are two examples of the last two categories.

A few years ago I encountered the following sentence in a South African English language newspaper:

'It is interesting to recall that some verkrampte Nationalists, who pose now as super Afrikaners, were once bittereinder bloedsappe.'

I had to replace the unfamiliar words by glosses, using a dictionary of South African English, to get an intelligible sentence:

'It is interesting to recall that some bigoted Nationalists, who pose now as super Afrikaners, were once die-hard members of the United Party.'

I now understood the semantics of the sentence, but I still didn't really understand it, for I didn't yet know anything about its pragmatic or cultural application. At a pragmatic level, just how forceful are such words as *verkrampte* and *bittereinder*? I had no idea if these were emotionally neutral or extremely rude. If I met such a person and called him a bittereinder bloedsappe, would he be

delighted or angry? Can the words be used for both men and women? I had no sense of the pragmatic force of these words. Nor did I have a cultural sense, because I did not know what the United Party was, in its politics, then or now. Where is it on the political spectrum? How does it relate to the names of other political parties? Here, the encounter with the English of a community other than your own doesn't automatically mean understanding, rather, it shows us just how much we do not understand.

Here is a sporting example, again from Dutch. A couple of years ago I was lecturing in Leiden. The country was in the grip of exceptionally cold weather. The canals were frozen and people were skating on them. The previous time the canals had frozen over like this was 1997. So it wasn't surprising that after the lecture the dinner conversation (four Dutch colleagues, myself and my wife with a conversation entirely in English) at some point turned to the ice-skating. Which bits of the ice were safe? Which weren't? Under the bridges was dangerous, for it was warmer there. Our knowledge of ice-skating was increasing by the minute. It was a lively and jocular chat, and the exceptional weather formed a major part of it. Then one of them said something that I didn't quite catch, and the four Dutch people suddenly became very downcast and there was a short silence. It was as if someone had mentioned a death in the family.

I had no idea how to react. Somebody commented about it being such a shame, about the – I now know how to spell it – Elfstedentocht. One of the four noticed my confused face. 'The 11-cities tour was cancelled', he explained, adding 'because of the ice'. Ah, so that was it, I thought. Some sort of cultural tourist event taking in 11 cities had been called off because the roads were too dangerous. I could understand that, as the roads were so slippery that I had to buy some special boots a few days earlier to keep myself upright. But why were my colleagues so upset about it? 'Were you going on it?'

I asked. They all laughed. I had evidently made a joke, but I had no idea why. 'Not at our age!' one of them said. I could not understand that answer, and didn't like to ask if it was a tour just for youngsters. I got even more confused when someone said that it was the south of the country that was the problem because the ice was too thin. But why was thin ice a problem? That would mean the travelling would be getting back to normal. I was rapidly losing track of this conversation as the four Dutch debated the rights and wrongs of the cancellation. It might still be held...? No, it was impossible. It would all depend on the weather... And eventually the talk moved on to something else.

What I'd missed, of course, was the simplest of facts – and cultural linguistic differences often

reduce to very simple points – which I discovered when I later looked up Elfstedentocht on the Internet. It firstly referred to a race, not a tour (tocht in Dutch has quite a wide range of uses) and moreover an ice race, along the canals between the eleven cities. It is an intensive experience, only for the fittest and youngest – hence the irony of my remark. But the semantics of the word was only a part of it. The cultural significance of the word I had still to learn. I discovered it on the website of the Global Post.

It's hard to overestimate the grip that the Elfstedentocht has on the Dutch psyche. For sports fans in the Netherlands the epic 200-kilometer (125 mile) skating race is like the World Series, Super Bowl and Stanley Cup combined. Its mythical status is enhanced by the fact that it can only be held in exceptional winters when the canals are covered by 15 cm (6 inches) of ice along the length of the course.

If the Elfstendentocht, or '11 cities tour', goes ahead, organisers expect up to two million spectators – one in eight of the Dutch population – could line the route. The race has only been held 15 times since the first in 1909, and winners become instant national heroes. The legendary 1963 contest was held in a raging blizzard. Just 136 finished out of 10,000 starters.

'It's hard to overestimate the grip that the

Elfstedentocht has on the Dutch psyche.' A stronger cultural affirmation is difficult to imagine. The fact that it was an ice race was so obvious to the Dutch people at the table that they took it completely for granted, disregarding the fact that for me, coming from Wales, the significance of the thickness of ice on canals would totally escape me.

Here is another example, from a different language. During a visit to a film festival in a small town in the Czech Republic, I had a conversation about coincidences, and P was telling me about Q, who had just got a job in P's office:

P: Myself and Q both live in ZZ Street. And what's even more of a coincidence is that he lives in 355 and I live in 356.
Me: So you can wave to each other, then!
P (puzzled)**:** No.
Me (confused, thinking that they perhaps had an argument)**:** I mean, you could keep an eye on each other's house, if one of you was away.
P (even more puzzled)**:** Not very easily.
I can't see his house from where I live. It's the other end of the street.
Me: But I thought you were neighbours.
P: Not really.
Me: Ah.

I didn't know what to say next, and we moved on to some other subject.

'The cultural significance of the word I had still to learn'

The next day I made enquiries, and discovered what had gone wrong. It transpired that P's system of house numbering operates on a totally different basis to what I was used to in the UK. In Britain, houses are numbered sequentially in a street, usually with odd numbers down one side and even numbers down the other. So 355 and 356 would probably be opposite each other or maybe even next to each other (for some streets have linear numbering). But where I was in the Czech Republic, the houses were numbered using a 'conscription numbering' system that dates back to the 18th century, on the basis of when they were built and registered. House number 356 was built (or registered) immediately after house number 355. So it was not necessarily the case that 355 and 356 would be opposite or adjacent to each other. That is why P thought it such a coincidence.

I don't know how widespread this principle of house numbering is. Nor do I know how many other systems of house numbering there are, in the countries of the world. I am regularly confused by addresses in the USA such as 23000 Mulholland Highway. But as English comes to be increasingly used in countries with hugely different cultural histories, I do know that this kind of cultural communicative misunderstanding is going to become increasingly frequent, unless we anticipate the growing problem and solve it.

Any approach to language learning, sooner or later, has to cope with this kind of thing. And at some point these approaches have to find ways of overcoming these cultural barriers. There will always be a modicum of personal and idiosyncratic cultural difference, of course. Even within a language, people do not always understand each other! Those who have written books on the gender divide (e.g. Gray, 1992) illustrate this perfectly. So a cultural awareness approach will never eliminate all problems of interpersonal communication. But I think it will reduce the kinds of problem that arise out of cultural difference to manageable proportions.

Thanks to the evolution of the Semantic Web, we now know that certain aspects of underlying knowledge can be incorporated into an automated system. The Semantic Web aims to capture the kind of knowledge we have about the world and our place in it. It has already begun to formalise some of our intuitions, and the signs are promising. You've probably experienced it. For example, in a dialogue about travelling from A to B, a system can ask us whether we have any preferences or constraints, any difficult days to travel, any dietary problems, and so on. It can anticipate difficulties that an individual user may not have thought about. Because there are so

many variables, it can outperform a human adviser. But everything depends on someone first having worked out what the relevant options are. And, as we all know, if we have used them, these systems still don't anticipate all the individual differences, so that we often find ourselves – after answering all the questions in an online dialogue – still having to approach a human being to sort out our problem. But it is early days.

The options in a travelling scenario are relatively easy to identify. They are far more difficult to identify in the case of intercultural relationships. But analysis of the kinds of discourse which illustrate different ways of thinking suggests that even here we are not talking about a very large number of variables. Just as discourse analysts have shown that all the stories that can be told reduce to a small number of basic 'plots', so I suspect some of the kinds of interpersonal difficulty illustrated in cases of intercultural misunderstanding will be capable of sufficient formalisation to be able to be incorporated into software.

The time is right to use the Internet to develop a Cultural Web, in which the growing number of lexical-cultural identities of 'New Englishes' around the world would be captured, collated, and presented as a teaching resource. A taxonomy of the kind I illustrated earlier is a starting point. To take my opening example: appleflaps are a symbol of an intimate Dutch encounter, so this would be listed in the relevant taxonomy category (the Bakery section under Nutrition under Human Beings). That would then act as a prompt for other users of the taxonomy, from different countries, to add their own local examples. It is an ongoing task, as culture never stands still, and keeping pace with areas of rapid cultural change (such as politics) is a challenge. It has to be a Wiki-like approach. But it is not an infinite task. There are fewer than 200 countries in the UN, and only a couple of thousand categories, not all of which are at the same level of cultural significance. It won't take for ever. All we need is for some organisation (or organisations) to take a lead, and to have some lexicographically minded people in charge of development who are not scared of Big Data.

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Communicative strategies and tactics of speech manipulation in intercultural business discourse

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The study considers the communicative strategies and tactics of linguistic manipulation used by the representatives of professional communities speaking two national varieties of English, British and American, to identify the content and functional-pragmatic characteristics of communicative strategies used in the framework of intercultural business communication in general, and in the framework of two specific genres in particular, presentations and business interviews. The authors also provide general analysis of some gender aspects of speech behaviour in intercultural business communication. The study is conducted along the lingua-pragmatic and socio-cultural lines of research with evaluation of data backed by quantitative analysis. Research material is represented by business discourse texts used by American and British male and female respondents. The authors make inferences about the manipulative nature of communication, single out some of its key features, and present an outline of gender-based differences encountered in professional discourse. The study ultimately holds that gender-based parameters of communication can be described as flexible, which is essentially due to the extensive scope of contextual settings to be considered.

KEYWORDS: *communicative strategy, communicative tactics, linguistic manipulation, intercultural business discourse, gender, business interview, presentations*

1. INTRODUCTION

Business activity is considered one of the most significant spheres of social life. Communication in the business sphere is aimed at strengthening international relations, thus becoming an important social and cultural factor. Efficient communication affects a variety of business tasks and solutions and is based on direct interpersonal interaction. Scholars currently pay special attention to professional communication.

Communication problems in oral intercultural business discourse are associated with differences between and within cultures as well as the use of language by non-native speakers. Communicative and sociocultural incompetence indicates difficulties that have to do with the informative and social functions of intercultural business discourse as well as its national and cultural specificity (Chaney & Martin, 2014). In the context of modern economic and social conditions, the

communicative competence of today's international business specialists has to break new ground.

The article considers lingua-pragmatic features of communicative strategies and tactics of linguistic manipulation, explores communicative strategies implemented by the representatives of professional communities speaking two national varieties of English: British and American. The aim of the paper is to identify the content and functional-pragmatic characteristics of implementation of communicative strategies used in the framework of intercultural business communication in general, and in the framework of two specific genres in particular, presentations and business interviews. The authors also intend to provide general analysis of some gender aspects of speech behaviour typical of men and women participating in intercultural business communication.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study was conducted within the scope of lingua-pragmatic and socio-cultural lines of research, further supplemented by gender analysis of the findings obtained. Evaluation and analysis of data was backed by quantitative methods of research that allowed for graphic representation of the information gathered. Research material consists of business discourse texts produced by American and British male and female respondents.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The key factors facilitating feasibility and efficiency of speech manipulation are the linguistic and extra-linguistic factors.

The linguistic factor is a variable reflection of reality, which is manifested in the vocabulary used and based on the verbal manipulation of consciousness: quasi-synonymy, deliberate ambiguity and implicitness of the plane of content (placing the semantic component intended by the addressor into the framework of the utterance).

The extra-linguistic factor covers the social context with its semiotic, psychological, ethno-cultural, social, cognitive, and other features of social and business interaction.

The semiotic factor describes the variations in linguistic expression used to convey awareness of objects and phenomena and their social significance. It also expresses attitudes and how the choice of language and expression is adjusted by communicating entities as a consequence.

The ethno-cultural factor describes expressions containing implicit cultural understandings which may not be obvious to communicators from a different social and cultural background.
The social factor is about choosing and selectively imparting information according to the communication environment (e.g. presentations,

meetings or networking). It takes into account the ratio of negative and positive comments, such as in statements made from a position of authority, including criticism, praise and positive or negative assessment. It also incorporates an understanding of stereotypes and the myths of what constitutes mass consciousness and understanding.

The cognitive factor is about how information is processed. It covers situations in which inertness of perception leads to errors in assessing the evidence and making assumptions based on false causal links lead to an inadequate representation of reality. Speech activity is a way of acquiring knowledge and understanding the world.

Straightforward linguistic capability is the tip of the iceberg above the waterline. Below lies image visualisation, as well as logical inferences, speech planning, etc.

The psychological factor is about emotional speech manipulation of the recipient. This may occur through persuasion (logical arguments), reliance on consciousness and the mind or on instillation (emotional arguments) appealing to emotions and bringing the recipient into the right psychological state as intended by the speaker (Kasper & Kellerman, 2014).

Manipulation of the recipient's consciousness is only plausible if there is a subject and an object of

'The cognitive factor is about how information is processed. It covers situations in which inertness of perception leads to errors in assessing the evidence and making assumptions based on false causal links lead to an inadequate representation of reality'

manipulation. That being said, it can be defined as *'action directed at someone or something in order to achieve or instil something'* (Adair, 2003).

The issue of awareness of speech actions is a common subject of scholarly research, whereby intentional and incidental types of manipulation are differentiated. Intentional speech manipulation can be realised through (1) the legitimate authority enjoyed by people of higher status; (2) manipulation (i.e. masked power); (3) persuasion, argumentative reasoning; and (4) strength (physical or psychological) (Akopova, 2013).

Targeted persuasion is one of the communicative methods used to manipulate the recipient's consciousness by tuning into to his or her personal critical judgment (Malyuga & Ponomarenko, 2015; Ponomarenko & Malyuga, 2012). It is based on the selection and logical ordering of facts and inferences according to the general functional aim

of the manipulator. Intercultural business discourse incorporates all kinds of intentional speech manipulation, as studies of techniques of manipulation have shown.

Speech manipulation refers to the communicative application of linguistic expressions, where the native speaker's model of the world is supplemented by new knowledge, while the pre-existing information is being modified, i.e. in this case we are dealing with the onthologisation or simplification of knowledge. The phenomenon of speech manipulation can be viewed as a complex type of speech activity comprising subject, unit, method, tool, product, and result of implementation (see Figure 1).

SUBJECT	UNIT	METHOD	TOOL	PRODUCT	RESULT
structure of recipient's knowledge modified by the speaker in accordance with his or her intentions	strategy of speech manipulation	speech	language	recipient's knowledge complying with the speaker's intentions	changing the recipient's behaviour as intended by the speaker
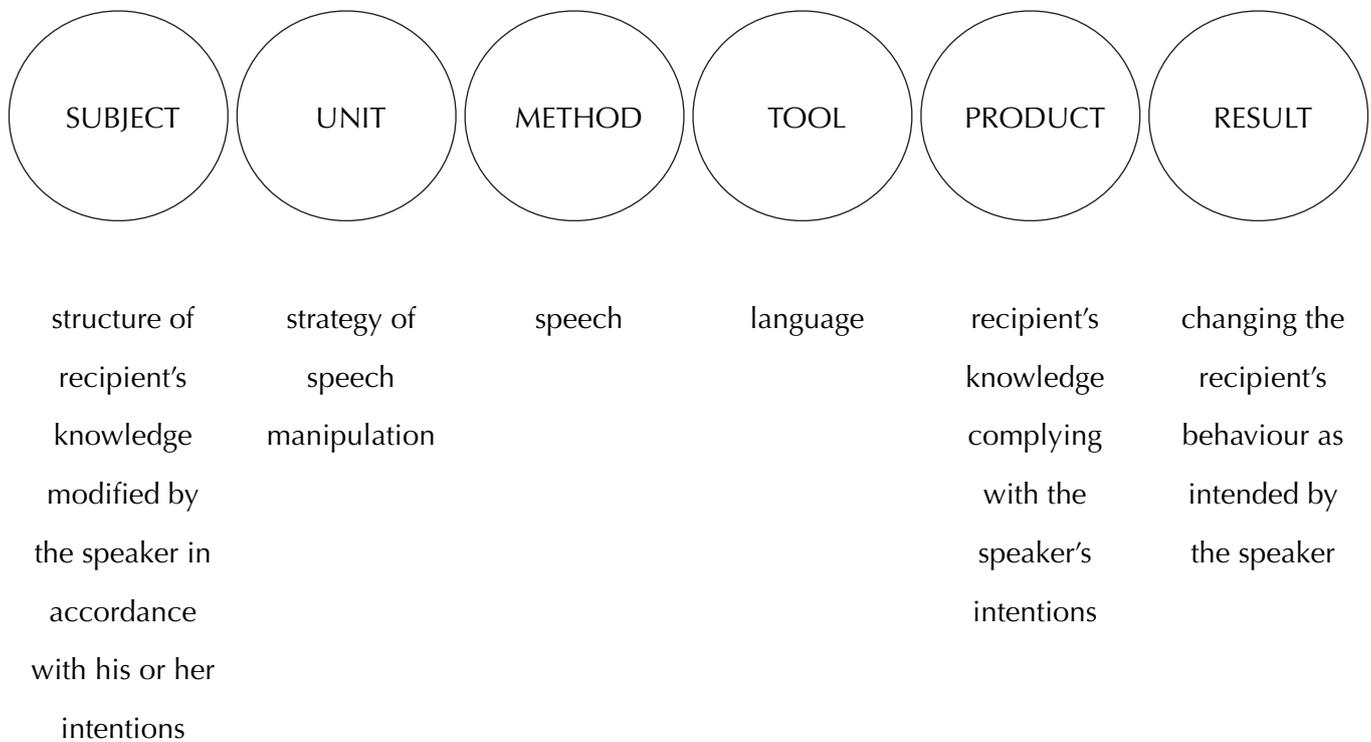
Figure 1. Speech manipulation components

Whenever speech manipulation yields no immediate result (i.e. the speaker fails to change the recipient's behaviour as consistent with his or her intentions), such speech manipulation is considered unfulfilled.

Speech manipulation is accomplished through communicative strategies and tactics. Strategies of speech behaviour cover the entire scope of mechanisms underlying the content of intercultural business communication, where the

key objective is to achieve specific long-term results. Speech strategies imply planning the process of communication depending on the specific communicative setting and personal characteristics of communicating entities, as well as implementing the devised plan. In other words, a speech strategy is basically a complex of speech actions aimed at achieving communicative goals (Littlemore, 2003).

From the functional perspective, all strategies are divided into basic and supplementary. Basic strategies are those considered most significant at a given stage of communicative interaction in terms of the hierarchy of motives and goals. Supplementary strategies, on the other hand, facilitate efficient organisation of dialogic interaction and help exert appropriate influence on the recipient.

According to Mannan (2013), a communicative strategy comprises the following structural components:

- choosing the general speech intention such as an intention to make a statement, ask a question, make a request, propose a suggestion, etc.;
- selecting semantic components of the utterance, as well as the extralinguistic setting, corresponding to the modifying communicative meanings;
- defining the scope of the information

accounting for one theme (topic), one rheme, (explanatory/context information), etc.;
- correlating bits of information referring to the state of consciousness of communicating entities and the empathy factor;
- defining the sequence of communication components (for example, if the speaker is deeply impressed by what is happening, he or she might begin the sentence with the rheme, thus moving the theme to the end position);
- adjusting the communicative structure of the sentence thus setting a specific communicative mode (dialogue, narration, verbalisation of a written text), style (epic, colloquial) and genre.

While a speech strategy is referred to as a set of speech actions aimed at addressing the speaker's general communicative task, a speech tactic should be viewed as one or more actions facilitating implementation of the corresponding strategy. A strategic plan determines the choice of means and techniques of its implementation, and so speech strategies and tactics are correlated through the opposition of 'class' vs 'type' (Ya-Ni, 2007).

Roebuck (2012) suggests that a communicative tactic can be described as a set of practical moves

within the real process of speech interaction, i.e. a communicative tactic, as opposed to a communicative strategy, is primarily correlated with the communicative goal, rather than communicative intentions (Roebuck, 2012).

Each tactic is designed to express a specific communicative intention of the speaker. Each specific communicative tactic is implemented to modify interaction parameters as intended by the speaker, change assessments, and reshape the entire speech situation.

A communicative tactic is a set of speech actions performed by communicating entities in varying sequences in order to implement or not implement a communicative strategy as consistent with certain rules or in defiance thereof. While communicative strategies essentially outline the general trajectory of dialogue dynamics, communicative tactics reveal the way the corresponding strategy is implemented at each state of the development of a given communicative situation.

Since we believe that intercultural business discourse presents a complex communicative phenomenon comprising both the text and a set of extralinguistic factors such as knowledge of the world, opinions, beliefs and goals pursued by communicating entities, the strategies deployed by communicating entities in the framework of

business discourse are therefore focused on its different aspects.

Strategies deployed in the framework of business communication can be (a) discursive strategies outlining the structure and sequence of communicative interactions; (b) rhetoric strategies realised explicitly and implicitly in order to influence the recipient; or (c) compensatory strategies used to fix various possible linguistic errors and communicative failures (Guffey & Loewy, 2012).

Discursive strategies govern the organisation and the course of intercultural business communication. These are the strategies that mark the beginning, course and closure of the interaction, predetermine its development, regulate speech actions of communicating entities expressing the speaker's expectations with respect to recipient's behaviour by referring him or her to pre-existing knowledge formed based on the peculiarities of social and professional background to facilitate appropriate perception of the information provided. At the level of linguistic representations, discursive strategies are actualised through the signals of text structuring. The most common signals are those indicating the beginning and the end of the text, role shifts, feedback, and participants' involvement (Yew, 2014).

Implementation of rhetoric strategies primarily

'Communicative goals may be achieved through a number of means, and rhetoric strategies are about the choice that helps people fulfil their objectives'

implies affecting the recipient's psychological state, his or her ability to assess the situation, elaborate solutions, and choose the most efficient strategies. Communicative goals may be achieved through a number of means, and rhetoric strategies are about the choice that helps people fulfil their objectives. Pursuing their objectives, communicating entities often appear to encounter obstacles, and overcoming these obstacles will require certain 'resources' and techniques.

This is why when engaging in a conversation the speaker does not only establish a goal, but also decides how rigidly or softly, directly or flexibly, etc. he or she is going to proceed, i.e. the speaker outlines a specific strategy to be deployed to achieve a specific goal (Washington, 2013).

In business communication, there are two key modes of manipulation to be singled out – cooperation and competition – and they both deploy a specific set of strategies and tactics. Business disputes are often defined as tools facilitating vibrant interaction of knowledgeable people, and the style of interaction is generally described through the binary macrostrategies of authority and subordination. Authoritarian rhetoric strategies (dominance, force) are associated with a higher social and professional status of the speaker and are explicitly realised in speech acts of coercion such as orders, demands, commands, and indignation. Implicit representation is reflected in pressuring of the business partner: humiliation, rejection of authority, threats, etc. (Flatley et al., 2012).

Studies suggest that all types of strategies can be generally reduced to three universal and most exhaustive classes, which are presentations, manipulation, and conventions (Tomalin, 2012). They all differ in terms of the level of openness, symmetry, and methods of communicative operation: presentations imply passive communication, manipulation involves active communication, and conventions are associated with interactive communication. According to English (1995), the basic tools deployed with these strategies are messages and dialogues.

Interestingly enough, this issue of what communicative strategies and tactics actually stand for remains a subject of heated debate. Strategy as a notion is analysed in the domains of military science, economics, political science, psychology, and linguistics. Considered in the framework of any of these, the strategic approach appears to be based on the general knowledge and

cognitive models of the society and the individual (Adolphsen, 2014).

In this study, a communicative strategy is viewed as a part of communicative behaviour or communicative interaction, in which variable verbal and non-verbal means are used to achieve a specific communicative goal while taking into account the communicative setting and personal characteristics of communicating entities involved in the process.

The key function fulfilled by communicative tactics is implementing the corresponding communicative strategy, which means that they are all correlated with specific communicative intentions. Tactics that help achieve similar goals are integrated into groups. Thus, one can define a strategy that is constituted by a specific set of tactics, which, in their turn, are made up of communicative moves viewed as tools deployed to implement a specific speech tactic (Wilson, 2001).

Literature review giving insight into the use of communicative strategies and tactics in various types of discourse has indicated that their unified classification remains a matter of dispute, since people's communicative behaviour is driven by a variety of factors. Thus, for example, Issers (2002) distinguishes 'general' and 'specific' strategies, and yet the latter appear to be virtually impossible to

'In business communication, there are two key modes of manipulation to be singled out – cooperation and competition – and they both deploy a specific set of strategies and tactics'

classify due to the diversity and variability of communicative situations.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS

While the study does not intend to classify communicative strategies and tactics, we have to admit that we couldn't use available classifications due to the specific nature of the subject under discussion. We analysed texts produced by the representatives of professional communities in the sphere of business and managed to identify the most common communicative strategies, as well as the tactics used to realise them. Relying on the assumption that communicative strategies are correlated with the pragmatic principles of cooperative interaction (Grice, 1975), they appear to lack the conventional component and rarely remain within the boundaries of regulations governing polite and cooperative interaction. Thus, the study singles out two key groups of strategies – those hindering cooperative communication and those facilitating it, contributing to non-confrontational mode of interaction. Each strategy incorporates a number of tactics (Table 1).

Table 1

List of strategies hindering and facilitating cooperative interaction

STRATEGIES	TACTICS
Strategies hindering cooperative interaction	
Evasion	Changing the subject / Forwarding / Avoiding the answer
Open negative response	Objection / Indignation / Denial / Referring to inability to fulfil a request / Unmotivated refusal
Downgrading the recipient's status	Accusation / Judgement / Denunciation / Reproach / Ridicule / Contempt
Communicative confrontation	Disagreement / Unwillingness to sustain a conversation / Distancing
Strategies facilitating cooperative interaction	
Solidarity	Request to share a judgement / Demonstrating willingness to cooperate / Reassurance / Intimate interaction / Requesting emotional support
Scaling up the recipient's status	Expressing interest in the content of the conversation / Praise / Compliment
Establishing positive interaction mode	Expressing positive emotional state / Positive assertion / Emotional support

Using digital technologies, we can reveal and support factual trends in business communication (Malyuga, 2016; Malyuga et al., 2016), for instance in terms of strategy and tactic gender characteristics. The findings can be summed up as follows (Figures 2 and 3):
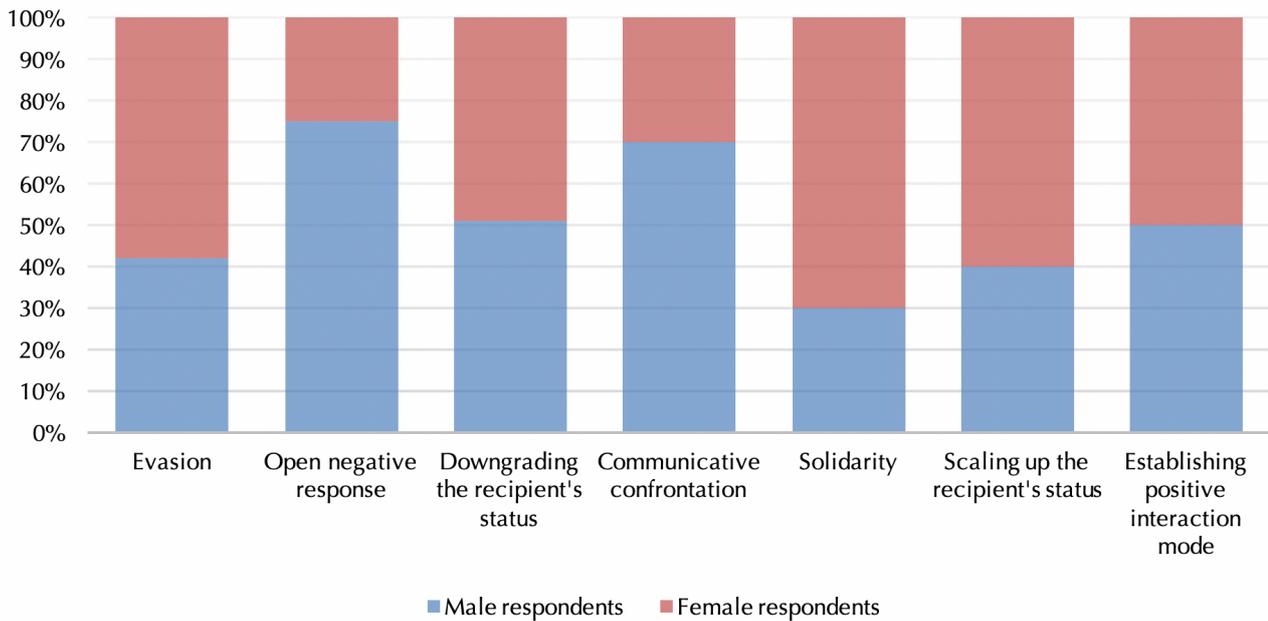
Figure 2. Quantitative analysis of gender aspects of communicative strategies and tactics represented in British business discourse
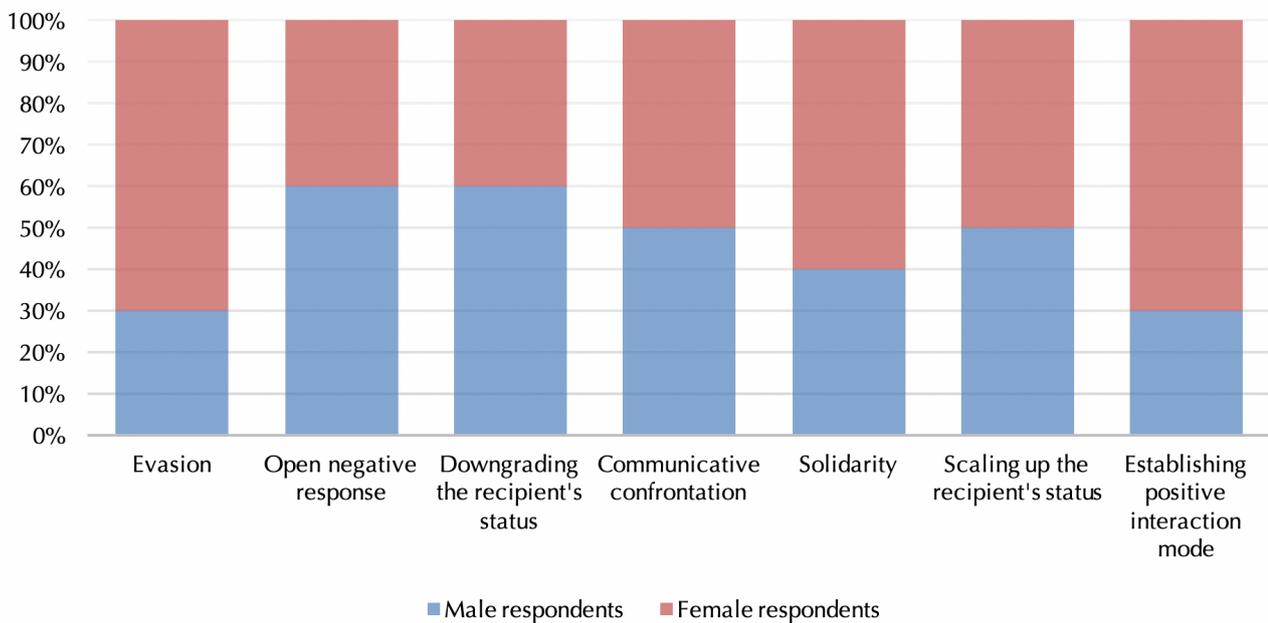

Figure 3. Quantitative analysis of gender aspects of communicative strategies and tactics represented in American business discourse

The evasion strategy is realised through the tactics of forwarding, changing the subject and avoiding the answer. If the speaker goes with this communicative strategy, the aim is obviously to give a negative answer while avoiding direct confrontation. The strategy of downgrading the recipient's status is used by male and female respondents in equal measure in order to accuse the recipient, prove them wrong, and discredit their point of view. These particular goals are achieved through the tactics of accusation, judgement, denunciation, reproach, ridicule, and contempt. The strategy of communicative confrontation is implemented through the strategies on disagreement, unwillingness to sustain a conversation, and distancing.

The other group of strategies under analysis is made up by the communicative strategies deployed in order to facilitate interaction based on the principles of politeness and cooperation. These include, for example, the strategy that involves scaling up the recipient's status, which goal is achieved through the tactics of praise, compliment (most commonly used by male respondents), and expressing interest in the content of the conversation. In order to establish positive interaction mode, both sexes can resort to the tactics of positive assertion, emotional support, and expressing positive emotional state.

Thus, communicative strategies and tactics of speech manipulation deployed in the framework of intercultural business discourse are primarily associated with the speaker's objectives, his or her intention to regulate the recipient's behaviour, i.e. the speaker encourages the recipient to commence, modify, or terminate an action, thus affecting the recipient's decision-making process and transforming the recipient's worldview (DeVito, 2012).

5. DISCUSSION

A separate matter of discussion in the case of our research involves identifying the peculiarities of speech behaviour in view of specific communicative strategies and tactics being used in the framework of various genres of intercultural business communication. In order to narrow down the scope of the study, this article deals with the features of intercultural business communication typically inherent in its two specific genres, which are presentations and business interviews. Presentation strategies can be referred to as a means of production of the communicative space, as well as a means of its representation in the framework of communication. The main presentation strategies are as follows:

- adequate and active embodiment of the communicative space in the structure of the communicative environment irrespective of the objectives calling for the extension or structural modification of the latter;

- semantic modification of the communicative space entailing transformed the structure of the communicative environment (yet not always prompting its extension);
- expanding and detailing the structure of the communicative environment against the backdrop of unchanged (as a rule) communicative space – expanding informative involvement (Kroehnert, 2010).

The content of any presentation incorporates two different types of communication and, therefore, two types of knowledge that can be represented in the course of intercultural business communication. The first type refers to communication taking place within the transformational space, where knowledge acts as a form of interaction and unification. The second type refers to communication viewed as interaction, where knowledge is perceived in its fundamental sense, a continuum of comprehension. In the practice of social transformation, conventional strategies of communication rely on the first type of knowledge and are characterised by such means of structuring as projects and strategies. Manipulative strategies of communication, on the other hand, rely on the second type of knowledge and are characterised by such means of structuring as ideology, propaganda and advertising. And only through this is it possible to further master the first type.

Presentation strategies also rely on these types of knowledge in varying ways. Interaction within the continuum of comprehension (knowledge type II) is achieved through presentation of the holistic worldview, implementation of the strategies of knowledge presentation and delivery. Perceiving discourse in the framework of such presentation strategy, it would be logical to ask, *'What is being said?'* In the transformational space (knowledge type I), unification of knowledge is achieved through the strategy of information transfer. In this case, a logical question would be, *'Who tells whom, what kind of reaction follows, and what kind of feedback is expected?'* (Tomalin, 2012). Thus, presentation refers to organising the cultural continuum within both the communicative space and the communicative environment.

Turning to the issues associated with the implementation of communicative strategies and tactics in the framework of the genre of business interviews, we should first dwell on some of its key features and characteristics.

To a casual observer, the difference between interviews and everyday speech might seem insignificant, practically non-existent. Yet, there are actually a number of measurable distinctions between the two genres to be considered. The main characteristics of interviews are their conciseness and brevity. The interviewer's task is to perform a communicative act that would only

comprise relevant questions, and do it in a relatively short period of time. All irrelevant aspects must be omitted, and all efforts must be directed towards disclosing the specified topic. At the same time, we should not underestimate the skills of normal, everyday conversation. One way or another, in the most general sense, the art of the interview implies posing the right questions and getting the right answers (Mayer, 2011).

Irrespective of the individual style deployed by each interviewer, and irrespective of the topic being discussed, there are some basic rules to be considered when preparing the questions. First, the question should be discernible: the situation signals the end of the general conversation flow, and the respondent is asked a question. Moreover, each question should be formulated so as to get the required response, while avoiding unnecessary information. If the question is not clear enough, so will be the respondent's answer, and the interview might ultimately deviate from the main subject and lose its integrity. Finally, the respondent may use uncertainty for personal purposes – for example, in order to get around difficult and uncomfortable questions.

Thus, the question should be clear, tactful, understandable, and relatively concise so that its essence doesn't end up lost, and the interview doesn't appear monotonous or even boring. Another important requirement calls for even

distribution of questions (Pearce, 1993). In other words, it would be appropriate for the interviewer not to ask two questions simultaneously, for otherwise the respondent might only provide the answer to one of the questions, most probably the easier one.

Pausing is another aspect worth mentioning. In fact, the speaker can express themselves through pauses (if, of course, they are handled properly) just as efficiently as through the utterance.

Silence may be solemn, respectful, or threatening. On the other hand, polite anticipation of response indicates that it would require a more detailed coverage by the respondent.

The relationship between the interviewer and the respondent, just like any other dialogical relations, are governed by specific rules of interpersonal communication, and particularly by the principle of cooperation that implies that communicating entities aim to ensure successful communication. It is this aim that determines the choice of language means and people's behaviour in general. As to the intonation, we should note that the prosodic contour of utterances found in business interviews is not subject to flexible variation. Therefore, units of the prosodic contour are closely interrelated, interdependent and are rigorously predictable in the framework of each specific utterance (Malyuga & Orlova, 2016).

Any interview is invariably governed by a specific communicative objective or programme. This means that the interviewer's remarks and comments play an important role in organising the interview. Thinking over the 'stimulating remarks', the interviewer focuses primarily on the issues that would appear most significant for the future publication. Accordingly, their speech incorporates various means of manipulation: assumption, persistence, specification. The interviewer's remarks may be structurally simple and stylistically neutral, which typically is the case with information-oriented questions that imply simple answers. 'Stimulating remarks', however, may undergo structural and stylistic complication, which, in turn, brings about more complicated inter-utterance links (Maddux, 1995).

In business interviews, persuasion is not only realised through logical argumentation, but can also be implemented through manipulation of the respondent's feelings and emotions. This factor defines a wide range of expressive means to be used (Malyuga & Tomalin, 2014). Linguistic means used to express assessment, for example, can be represented by the units belonging to all language levels. However, in interviews, they are most extensively represented by units belonging to lexical and syntactic levels. At the lexical level, these are essentially words with positive or negative connotation (nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs).

Of particular interest to us are the issues associated with the realisation of communicative strategies and tactics of speech behaviour in the framework of the genre of business interviews in view of gender aspects of communicative exchange.

Studying gender characteristics of discourse, researchers primarily pay attention to the strategies of communicative behaviour. Some believe that one type of speech behaviour may be referred to as 'competitive' (which implies competitiveness, autonomy, aspiration for control), while the other type may be viewed as 'cooperative' (which implies interpersonal interaction, sociability, expression of personal feelings). One way or another, we can say that gender-based models of speech behaviour are not defined by nature, but are rather determined by society, by socio-cultural parameters.

The study has established that communicative strategies used in the framework of intercultural business discourse divided into two key groups – those hindering and those facilitating cooperative interaction. At this point, we shall consider the way these strategies are implemented based on the examples of abstracts from media interviews and in view of some gender aspects. In order to narrow down the scope of the study, this objective will be addressed through the analysis of the corresponding functions of tag questions used in

the texts of interviews. Let us consider the following example, which is an extract from an interview with the former United States Ambassador to Egypt, Edward Walker, recorded on the State of the Union radio show hosted by Candy Crowley, aired January 30, 2011.

Interviewer: *Mubarak has proved a good ally. He was there to help put up a fight against terror. We are giving up our major alliance partner, aren't we?*

Respondent: *That's not entirely true. It is actually not about him. It is about Egypt.*

Interviewer: *And Egypt doesn't seem to care for us, does it?*

Respondent: *There are a number of reasons that might have triggered that 'we don't care' attitude, but it is the Palestinian issue that seems to override everything else.'*

The interviewer finds herself in a situation of communicative confrontation with the respondent. On the one hand, tag questions are being used because the interviewer disagrees with the respondent. On the other hand, they also help her make her point with regard to the topic being discussed. Thus, in this case we are dealing with the strategy hindering cooperative interaction.

The following example is an abstract from an interview with the boxer Debra Mathews, recorded on Small Business Trends radio show hosted by Anita Campbell, aired July 14, 2009.

Interviewer: *Let us now turn to some economic issues closing down on us. I would say, it is quite obvious that we are currently going through a pretty rough period of recession, right? Has it in any way affected the website business?*

Respondent: *Well, the development rates are surely decreasing. Unfortunately, the web has been damaged by the crisis like many other businesses.*

In this particular microcontext, the tag 'right?' used in the framework of the strategy of solidarity is used to express the interviewer's interest in the topic under discussion, as well as her sympathy towards the respondent, which means that in this case we are looking at a strategy facilitating cooperative interaction.

The next example we would like to consider is an abstract from an interview with the Governor Marc Racicot, recorded on the Larry King Live radio show hosted by Larry King, aired December 11, 2000.

Interviewer: *It is a dilemma, isn't it, Governor? Dealing with states' rights, federal versus constitutional, the right to – no-one wants to deny*

anyone the right to vote.

Respondent: *I would absolutely agree.*

The tag question deployed by the interviewer is an attempt to make the respondent side with the speaker, an attempt to yield the respondent's support. This same tactic can be used to implement the strategy of evasion. The strategy of evasion, as was earlier noted, is realised through the tactics of forwarding, changing the subject, and avoiding the answer in order to give a negative response while avoiding direct confrontation.

The last example we will refer to is an abstract from an interview with Hillary Clinton, recorded on the Larry King Live radio show hosted by Larry King, aired December 11, 2000.

Interviewer: *How do I address you now? Is it Madam First Lady, Hillary, Hillary Rodham, Senator?*

Respondent: *It's a little confusing, isn't it?*

Interviewer: *Yes. What do you like the best?*

Respondent: *Well, I... gee, all of those are, you know, really wonderful things!*

In the interviewer's remarks, one might trace a

slight ironic tinge, when he lists the stages of his respondent's political career, which possibly makes her a little bit annoyed and uncomfortable. Using the tag question instead of a direct answer, the respondent turns the potentially awkward situation into a joke. From the functional-pragmatic perspective, more frequent use of tag questions indicates a desire to avoid open confrontations with the interlocutor, and support cooperative interaction.

6. CONCLUSION

Interpersonal interaction is a complex process that involves transfer of information through language in order to convey a specific semantic content, the ultimate aim being to manage the recipient's behaviour. Therefore, speech interaction will always be associated with, at one level, speech manipulation, the speaker's desire to 'mould' the recipient's behaviour to achieve agreement, control or build relationships. This implies that communication is never neutral, for using language involves making targeted manipulative efforts. Having analysed the definitions and features of speech manipulation, the study singled out some of its fundamental characteristics, such as its purposeful nature, its orientation towards ensuring efficient interaction by using the most appropriate language and communication strategies and tactics. A communicative strategy can be defined as a model of action, an element of pre-planned speech activity manifested in a set of

speech actions designed to achieve a communicative goal. A communicative tactic aims at using language to fulfil the key strategic task within the framework of the communication. These strategies and tactics are vividly represented in the framework of intercultural business discourse, since the issues associated with efficient realisation of professional tasks using language means are faced by the representatives of a great number of professional communities on a daily basis. Besides, English acts as the language of international communication, and so it plays an important role in harmonising international and

interpersonal communication on a global scale. The study was conducted in the context of two genres of business discourse (presentations and business interviews) and grouped the strategies into two distinct types – those hindering cooperative interaction, and those facilitating it. Speech behaviour varies according to the communicative setting and the social and cultural background of the communicating entities. Thus, parameters of communication can be described as flexible, inasmuch as there will always be a rather extensive number of contextual aspects to be considered.

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Automated Speech Recognition in language learning: Potential models, benefits and impact

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The study considers Automated Speech Recognition (ASR) in language learning arguing that speech recognition has reached a level of accuracy where it is powering automatic translation and testing. The author considers the impact of ASR technology on language teaching, describes the process of the development of appropriate pedagogical models, and explains how to prepare teachers for their application. The study will give a critical analysis of the pedagogical uses and dangers of ASR technology and address how ASR can be used to automate language assessment.

KEYWORDS: *Automated Speech Recognition, ASR, ELT, speech-to-speech translation, translation software, speech synthesis, automated assessment*

1. INTRODUCTION

The technology of Automated Speech Recognition (ASR) is rapidly becoming more sophisticated and is becoming part of everyday life. The aim of this paper is to outline the impact on English language teaching of the use of automated speech recognition (ASR) technology. I will discuss the nature of ASR, how it works and how it can be used in class.

I will also touch on the technology of speech to speech translation, which uses ASR and speech synthesis, and outline how this may also impact on student motivation and teacher course design. Finally, I will address how ASR can be used to automate language assessment.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 What is ASR?

Automated Speech Recognition (ASR) converts audio streams of speech into written text. ASR is still imperfect but improving rapidly in terms of its accuracy in recognising spoken discourse and transcribing it into written text.

ASR is based on big data-searching language corpora and finding matching patterns in data in order to convert the audio into written text. However, it does not analyse the audio semantically. The ASR output cannot assess meaning or coherence – it is not the same as Natural Language Processing which parses and analyses language. It merely transcribes speech

'ASR is based on big data-searching language corpora and finding matching patterns in data in order to convert the audio into written text'

and turns spoken language into written language – using complex statistical and language analysis models.

ASR's rate of accuracy is increasing and it is now being used extensively in commercial applications and in telecommunications. There are two main types of commercial ASR application – small vocabulary/many-users vs large vocabulary/limited-users.

Small vocabulary/many-users is ideal for automated telephone answering. The users can speak with a great deal of variation in accent and speech patterns, and the system will still understand them most of the time. However, usage is limited to a small number of predetermined commands and inputs, such as basic menu options or numbers.

Large vocabulary/limited-users systems work with a good degree of accuracy (85% or higher with an expert user) and have vocabularies in the tens of thousands of words. However, they may initially need training with known texts to work best with a

small number of primary users. Earlier systems have a lower accuracy rate with an unknown or 'untrained' user but this is changing rapidly. The former system is not of much relevance to education, but the latter system can now be applied to educational use, where its application to language learning is extremely relevant to modern digital learning practices.

2.2 ASR and English language teaching (ELT)

ASR has a chequered history in ELT, and there have been many inadequate commercial English language learning software products which promised more than they delivered. Earlier computer-assisted language learning (CALL) systems, sometimes called 'Voice-interactive CALL', attempted to use ASR for pronunciation training or to initiate dialogic interactions.

In most cases until recently, the low level of ASR accuracy meant that this became a frustrating and unsatisfactory learning experience for students as there were too many false positives or false negatives in the processing of their speech. This gave ASR in ELT a poor reputation but with new technological developments in the last few years leading to new levels of accuracy and recognition quality new opportunities arise. ASR can facilitate new ways to work on phonology and accent – various applications are able to 'listen' to a learner's pronunciation and provide formative assessment and feedback on the accuracy of the

'Speech-enabled translation software and apps allow students to speak into a phone or tablet and instantly hear the spoken translation in the target language'

pronunciation. ASR can also facilitate responses to communicative interactions in the classroom, where students can use their tablets (in pairs) to speak or write responses to a task and get instant correction or formative assessment of their pronunciation or comprehensibility.

In addition, ASR can facilitate automatic translation. Speech-enabled translation software and apps allow students to speak into a phone or tablet and instantly hear the spoken translation in the target language (L2). ASR can also facilitate computer-based automated marking of ELT examinations – both written and spoken exams, with an accuracy approaching that of human assessors.

2.3 How does ASR work?

ASR turns speech into written text by using a 'speech recognition engine'. Speech recognition engines are software systems that take the audio output produced by users' speech (i.e. digital audio signals from a microphone or recording) and process the stream of sound into individual

sounds, vowels and consonants, lexical items and outputs a written transcription of the speech. Speech recognition engines need the following components:

- an acoustic model which takes audio recordings of speech and their transcriptions, and 'compiles' them into a statistical representation of the sounds that make up each word;
- a language model is a data file containing the probabilities of sequences of words. A grammar file is a much smaller data file containing sets of predefined combinations of words.

2.4 How can we use ASR in language education?

2.4.1 Pedagogical approaches

We can benefit from speech recognition to support many aspects of teaching, learning and assessment in language education. ASR can be used for a variety of classroom and out-of-class activities, such as dictation, voice search (e.g. via Google), pronunciation practice, vocabulary and grammar exercises, translation practice, and marking of student production.

ASR can, for example, facilitate new ways to work on phonology and accent, using computer-aided pronunciation teaching (CAPT) software to listen to and give feedback on learners' pronunciation.

One of the best-known examples of this was the

'We can benefit from speech recognition to support many aspects of teaching, learning and assessment in language education'

IBM programme *Reading Companion*, which could listen to the student's pronunciation of a known text (usually a short story text) and correct the pronunciation it heard, providing helpful feedback. It achieved this by comparing the learner's pronunciation (post-ASR) to the stored model pronunciations it expected to hear. IBM provided this speech-enabled literacy skill development free for students around the world, especially in developing countries with PC labs available. ASR can also facilitate responses to communicative interactions in the classroom, where students can use their tablets (in pairs) to speak or write responses to a task, and get an instant correction or formative assessment.

Very little research seems to have been carried out on designing pedagogically-appropriate activities to take advantage of this new technology. Escudero-Mancebo et al. (2015) report on the use of 'minimal pair' games to develop pronunciation skills using ASR applications on Android devices (smartphones and tablets). As in many CAPT applications, however, the interaction was essentially self-study: between learner and device,

with no learner-to-learner interaction. This form of pedagogical model may be useful in skills development and assessing pronunciation, but it is to be hoped that further research will be done on pair and groupwork-based activities such as those suggested below, to ensure the classroom remains a communicative space.

2.4.2 Examples of available applications

A smartphone app called *Speaking Pal* provides activities where the learner interacts with a virtual character, shown in short video clips, and the character responds. *Speaking Pal* suggests this pedagogical approach with specific reference to learning English:

- mini-lessons enable students to learn English in small sections that last 5 minutes or less (micro-learning);
- this unique methodology allows students to learn effortlessly during their daily activities.

Speaking Pal contains a programme called *English Tutor* with short, real-life dialogues where the user controls the conversation flow, like in a real video or phone call. *English Tutor* is able to provide instant feedback on the student's speaking performance, assuming that the ASR engine actually recognises what the student says.

A review from ELTjam (Gifford, 2013) suggests that this is not always successful.

'The 'feedback' consisted of showing me which words I'd said 'well' (in green) and which ones I needed to work on (red). There doesn't seem to be an explanation as to what in particular the problem is with my speaking, so I'm none the wiser as to how to improve. I just tried to shout it a couple of times to be sure' (Gifford, 2013).

Velawoods English, a self-study course from Velawoods and Cambridge University Press, uses speech recognition from Carnegie Speech to give students feedback on their utterances and pronunciation. It provides a game-like environment where the learner interacts with characters, as with *SpeakingPal*. In this case the course is more structured and language presented is practised in conversations with the characters – with learners' responses checked by speech recognition.

2.4.3 Self-study activities

Both of the examples described above tend to underpin criticisms of ASR-based activities, namely that this leads to students speaking by themselves in isolation. However, for many learners, self-study activities are the only way to gain enough language learning time and language exposure to make progress, either because they cannot attend class or their class hours are limited (e.g. in secondary schools).

As noted above, ASR can be used to get diagnostic feedback on pronunciation issues using CAPT activities, and for many students this alone would be a welcome support to their learning, building spoken confidence when they see their correct pronunciation is recognised by the ASR engine.

Speech recognition can help learners to engage in speaking, even without a partner being available. The student works alone to dictate a text or act out a dialogue given by the teacher, dictating to a device. The ASR system provides written output, which the student can then review and correct and share with the teacher for review.

2.4.4 Classroom/communicative activities

ASR can be used for collaborative activities such as storytelling. Students tell a story by dictating to their device. A pair or group design a story, and one student takes the dictating role to ensure user accuracy. Other students edit the resulting text and check accuracy and appropriacy using online dictionaries.

ASR can be used for Conversation tasks where, for example, students in pairs write a dialogue and perform it as dictation, then read and correct the written output. The process of reading the written output of the ASR engine provides students with a feedback loop on pronunciation and speech structure, allowing them to reflect on what they said; if the ASR engine recognises what they said, then it is most likely pronounced correctly, but

students still need to analyse whether it is grammatically correct and appropriate in discourse terms. If it is not recognised, then what was said was most likely pronounced incorrectly and this can be improved and modified.

If the written output is reviewed by a spellchecker and grammar checker (as in Microsoft Word) students can get further formative feedback on lexis and grammar choices, and can improve their performance. Students in pairs can use Google Voice Search to discover information for a writing task – finding information about the history of their city or country, for example – and check that their spoken performance returns the expected search results.

Similarly, student pairs/groups can use the digital assistants they have access to (e.g. Siri on phones or Alexa devices) to practice asking for and processing information in real-life scenarios.

2.5 Speech synthesis

This paper has touched on the developments in automatic speech recognition. But the recognition of speech is of course only one side of the story. Computers can listen to, understand and use what we are saying, at least to a certain extent (e.g. for translation purposes) – but can they reply? The next stage of technological development that we can see emerging is helping computers to produce speech, to enable a dialogue between

'Speech recognition can help learners to engage in speaking, even without a partner being available'

learner and computer, where the computer responds to spoken input from the student. In the science fiction context we expect humans and computers to be able to converse. We are not yet at this stage, so it is unrealistic to expect that humans and computers can have naturalistic conversations or that language learners can speak to a computer and expect a detailed reply.

However, strides are being made in this direction, and it may be that computer speech is sufficiently well developed for some simple language learning scenarios to be used in this way. Computers have long been able to create speech, using 'speech synthesis' software otherwise known as text-to-speech (TTS) engines. This uses the basic audio features of a computer to create spoken output from written text. In one model of text-to-speech production, the computer uses recordings of very short segments of human speech, which can be combined to create sentences. This can be heard typically in transport announcements, for example. A more powerful model is when the computer creates sound waves that mimic human speech, using the same audio systems that allow it to play music. This is more flexible, as any text can be

'Early versions of this have been justly derided as sounding artificial and robotic, and many people are familiar with the sort of speech synthesis generated for people like Stephen Hawking'

produced as speech, but it is more difficult to make the speech sound natural. Early versions of this have been justly derided as sounding artificial and robotic, and many people are familiar with the sort of speech synthesis generated for people like Stephen Hawking.

The technological problem is not in the creation of natural speech, in the sense of sounds that we can understand as spoken English, but in the creation of what to say.

How does the computer know what to talk about, which words to pick from its vocabulary database, to arrange in a certain order and to give a natural pronunciation and intonation output? For several years there have been language learning software programs and apps that attempt to create a dialogic experience, where the learner speaks to the device and receives spoken feedback. In most cases this is still at a very primitive stage and it will most likely be several years more before this can be developed fully (cf. *Speaking Pal* example above).

We can be fairly certain that language teachers will not be made redundant in the near future, but the motivations and aspirations of their learners, and the methodologies and technologies used in the teaching process, may become significantly different.

2.6 Speech-to-speech translation

Speech-to-speech translation seems like science fiction. It first surfaced as a popular concept in Adams' (1979) book, *The Hitchhiker's Guide to the Galaxy*, where he described the Babel Fish, a small insert you put in your ear which allowed aliens to speak to each other across the universe by providing instant translations. This is now a reality (including the ear-based unit). Speech-to-speech translation, also referred to as speech-enabled translation (SET), means simply that you can speak to a device in your own language and it will automatically 'understand' you, translate the message into another language, and immediately speak that message out loud to the conversation partner, in their own language. It is used in currently available products and services like *Google Translate, Apple Watch* and *Skype Translate*. This approach combines the technology of speech recognition as described above with machine translation models. The ASR process outputs the L1 speech as text, which can be processed by the translation engine. This uses a statistically-based machine translation system, which essentially looks for patterns in hundreds of

millions of documents to help decide on the best translation, using a corpus of documents that have already been translated between the pair of languages requested, originally by human translators.

Finding patterns in this corpus helps the machine translation to make a statistically-informed intelligent guess about the best translation into L2. *Microsoft Translator* is a linguistically informed statistical machine translation service built on more than a decade of natural-language research at Microsoft. Rather than writing hand-crafted rules to translate between languages, modern translation systems approach translation as a problem of learning the transformation of text between languages from existing human translations and leveraging recent advances in applied statistics and machine learning. Of course, the resulting translation cannot be as accurate as a human translator, as it is looking at patterns in documents, not analysing and understanding meaning. But it can often provide a useful first translation, and the degree of accuracy is improving rapidly. This L2 machine translation output, as text, is fed into a speech synthesiser, which speaks the result out loud.

3. STUDY AND RESULTS

3.1 Using speech-to-speech translation in class

As noted above, there seems to be very little research carried out on designing pedagogically

'Of course, the resulting translation cannot be as accurate as a human translator, as it is looking at patterns in documents, not analysing and understanding meaning'

appropriate activities for the use of speech-enabled translation (SET). This seems quite surprising, as the relevance of a speech translator for L1 to L2 to a learner who is trying to become proficient at speaking the L2 language in order to be understood by L2 speakers, would seem to be quite significant.

There is also a 'real world' issue – people are already using text-based and speech – enabled translation on their phones. it is becoming part of everyday experience, and so it seems unusual not to recognise this in classroom practice. Should we make space for it in our pedagogical approach?

There is as yet no established pedagogical model for using speech-enabled translation in the classroom, but we can suggest that a similar approach is taken to that suggested above for ASR activities in both self-study and communicative modes.

The core pedagogical principle is of using ASR and SET to give learners the opportunity of reflection

on the quality of their spoken performance by getting ASR and SET feedback. In addition, the production and monitoring of this spoken performance can be managed by a communicative and cooperative activity – utilising learners' creativity in dialogue construction and storytelling, for example, rather than restricting learners to what Thornbury (2005) calls 'vocalising grammar': *'Speaking activities are often simply exercises in vocalising grammar, as if this were all that were needed'* (Thornbury, 2005, p. 11).

The core process could be seen as:
- learn relevant language input
- discuss task
- speak/record in pair work
- check meaning via SET translation
- discuss differences in group/with teacher
- post-task reflective writing exercise

Bouillon et al. (2011) describe a pedagogical activity based on translation. The learner gets a prompt in L1 and is asked to speak a word or phrase in L2. The system recognises the speech in L2 and translates it back to L1, so that the learner can see if it matches the prompt.

The interesting pedagogical issue here is that it does not ask for a translation of the prompt, but the prompt is an instruction like *'Book a table for 1 person'* or *'Say your age',* thus avoiding simplistic L1/L2 correlations in the learner's mind. The ASR-

based activity opens up: *'A powerful and interesting perspective, because different types of new cognitive processes are now involved: i) translation and transformation of a rich linguistic input (gloss) from L1 to L2; ii) speaking aloud and being checked by speech recognition; iii) reading what has been recognised (correctly or incorrectly); iv) listening and reading the correct answers (learner's production vs. the mother tongue version)'* (Bouillon et al., 2011, p. 269).

Further to the suggested activities, some possible activities for speech-enabled translation could include the following.

Activity 1. A simple activity is for students to select or write a text in their L1, that they will then translate into L2 (e.g. English). The task is:
- Using Google Translate, students write a sentence or short text in L1.
- Student A translates it into L2 (English) in writing.
- Student B then speaks the L2 (English) text into Google Translate and hears it translated back into L1, and spoken by the device.

The two students then compare the versions of the text, and note differences created by the translation, asking for teacher guidance where needed. The translation direction can also be reversed to see where discrepancies arise.

Activity 2. Access to communicative practice is often problematic for students, so SET may help to create an opportunity (albeit slightly artificial) to provide some conversation practice.

Two students decide on a conversation topic, where student 1 speaks in English, for example, and uses Google Translate or another SET to create an L1 translation, which student 2 responds to in L1, creating an L2 translation using SET. The students carry on a conversation using Google Translate but making notes of the nature of the translation choices made by the programme, to show discrepancies or to discuss alternative translations. Variations on this involve both students speaking only in L2 but using the SET to check their utterances in their L1 translation. Lower level students can speak in L1 and get the translation in L2 to use as semi-authentic comprehension input.

3.2 Impact of speech-to-speech translation on learner motivation

As the quality of translation improves, it is important to remember the restrictions that the process operates under – the translation engine does not actually understand the meaning of the text being translated, so errors will always occur – though they may become more minor or unusual. Computers have got much better at translation, voice recognition and speech synthesis, but they still don't understand the meaning of language.

The statistical approach, using 'big data', can only take translation accuracy so far: as with the translation model the language model uses a brute force statistical approach to learn from the training data, then ranks the outputs from the translation model in order of plausibility.

Further improvements are expected from the use of deep learning, based on the use of digital neural networks. This mimics the way that neurons in the brain hold information and link to each other, and a computerised neural net can be used to create translations. The neural net is trained on large amounts of data, which consist of texts in one language and their translation in other.

The neural net 'learns' from the contexts of these existing translations and is able then to provide an approximate translation of any new text given to it, using statistical analysis rather than analysing the language input using rule based systems.

Will people be more or less likely to wish to learn a language to a high level of proficiency for their professional use – reading professional literature, attending conferences, corresponding with clients – if two-way translation of text and automatic speech-to-speech translation in live conversations can be carried out by computers?

This is an area where further research into affective issues is required. If you can send emails and carry

'Further improvements are expected from the use of deep learning, based on the use of digital neural networks'

out telephone conversations with speakers of other languages without learning the language itself, this might lead to a lack of motivation. Conversely, the fact that you can build contacts with people from another language community may provide the affective motivation to get further involved with that language community. The sense of success, that talking to somebody from another language group is possible and enjoyable and useful, may be the trigger that makes people decide to learn at least the basics of the language for themselves (Ye & Young, 2005).

By the same token, the quality deficiencies in machine translation and speech to speech translation may spur some learners to greater levels of proficiency so that they can 'master' the automatic translation systems and improve on them.

3.3 Automated assessment

3.3.1 Autimating marking and grading

Marking students' speech output, marking tests (whether written or oral) and giving individual feedback is one of the most time-consuming tasks that a teacher can face. Automating the process

makes sense, argues Dr Nick Saville, Director of Research and Validation at Cambridge Assessment:

'Humans are good teachers because they show understanding of people's problems, but machines are good at dealing with routine things and large amounts of data, seeing patterns, and giving feedback that the teacher or the learner can use. These tools can free up the teacher's time to focus on actual teaching' (Saville, 2015).

ASR technology can be used to automate the marking and grading of students' spoken production (as well as written production, see below). Speech produced in assessment situations can be fed through the same speech recognition process as described above, and the written text output produced then analysed and graded by being compared to a corpus of spoken language produced by students at different levels of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

This can provide the benefit of speed – the spoken output from students does not need to be recorded and sent to a human examiner, but can be graded instantly, as Saville explains.

'Automated assessment won't replace human examiners anytime soon, but it can add great value to their work. For example, it can provide additional layers of quality control, speed up

processes and allow teachers to offer more objective in-course tests which give detailed diagnostic feedback to help students to improve their English more effectively' (Saville, 2015).

3.3.2 How does it work?

The technical details of automated assessment of speech are beyond the scope of this paper, but the core process is quite straightforward and educators need to be aware of the basic approach so that they can feel confident in the results. Student speech is analysed by an ASR engine as in earlier applications above, and turned into transcribed text.

The speech is analysed both in terms of its content (i.e. what is in the transcribed text) and its pronunciation and prosody features (i.e. what it sounds like in the audio version of the speech). The speech is analysed by various assessment engines (called 'feature extraction' and 'classifier', for example). The analysis can assess how close the pronunciation is to that of a native speaker, whether there is L1 interference (where the L1 is known) and whether L2 phones are missing from the speech.

The features that can be extracted include the speaking rate (in words per second), the duration of phones (i.e. English sounds) and the length of silences between words; and 'scores' to reflect the closeness to native speaker production (e.g. more

'What the analysis cannot currently do is to assess the appropriacy and coherence of the speech – is this an appropriate response to the question asked in the test?'

or less L1 interference) and acoustic precision.

What the analysis cannot currently do is to assess the appropriacy and coherence of the speech – is this an appropriate response to the question asked in the test? Is this content, whether grammatically and lexically correct or not, appropriate to the topic of the task? Current research uses very complex algorithms to assess topic relevance, with increasingly positive results.

Thus, the automated system can be relatively accurate in evaluating pronunciation and comparing it to L1 speaker models, and evaluating fluency (hesitations, pauses, speed, partial words, etc.) but cannot evaluate the meaning and the coherence of the topic discussed.

Within the bounds of these constraints, this automated analysis is still able to produce an estimated CEFR grade (in terms of CEFR levels, A1, A2, etc.). The accuracy of this grade is measured by comparing the grades created by automated machine-rating with the grades produced by

human assessors who have listened to the same spoken production. In work done by the ALTA Institute (Litman et al., 2016), the correlation is now in the region of 0.87, meaning the automated grading system reaches the same grade as the human rate in 87% of the cases.

Advances in speech recognition and machine learning mean that computers can now complement the work of human assessors, giving surprisingly accurate evaluations of language and helping to diagnose areas for improvement. This may seem surprising, as speech is such a complex area to grade, even for human assessors. Future developments are likely to increase this correlation to close to 100%. Even given these constraints, automated assessment of speech can still be extremely useful in supporting teachers in three key areas: diagnostic evaluation, feedback loops for learners, and low stakes practice assessments. This approach could be brought into play especially in large-scale education ministry projects where large numbers of learners (or teachers) need to be evaluated across a wide geographical area. A low stakes automated speech assessment would be much easier, and much less expensive, to carry out than flying human assessors around the country.

3.3.3 Automated marking of writing

There is also substantial research in the area of automated assessment of student writing, using similar technologies but operating on text rather than speech. It is beyond the scope of this paper to go into details, but a brief example of learner-oriented experiments in this area can be found at the *Write & Improve* project. This is an online learning system, or 'computer tutor', to help English language learners enhance their writing output by receiving formative assessment from an automatic computer system.

Write & Improve is built on information from almost 65 million words gathered over a 20-year period from Cambridge English tests taken by real exam candidates, who were speaking 148 different languages and living in 217 different countries or territories. Built by Professor Ted Briscoe's team in Cambridge University's Computer Laboratory, it is an example of a new kind of tool that uses natural language processing and machine learning to assess and give guidance on text it has never seen before, and to do this indistinguishably from a human examiner.

3.3.4. Impact on assessment and the classroom

If automated assessment continues to improve in technology and accuracy, what impact could it have on the teaching and learning of languages? There is an obvious impact on testing and assessment systems, but what additional impact would there be on classroom pedagogy, teaching methodology, and learning activities, because of the 'washback' effect of this kind of assessment? It

'Advances in speech recognition and machine learning mean that computers can now complement the work of human assessors, giving surprisingly accurate evaluations of language and helping to diagnose areas for improvement'

seems likely that the availability of easily administered automated assessments would lead to more frequent use of assessment tools – whether in the classroom or outside.

The use of automated assessment would allow regular formative assessment to be carried out, with the provision of feedback to learners and teachers, without increasing the teachers' already heavy workload or reducing classroom contact time (Yuan & Briscoe, 2016). Aspects of this development can already be seen in the inclusion of adaptive testing tools and 'Learning Oriented Assessment' (LOA) methodologies into new coursebooks. Further research into the impact of this on learning outcomes is urgently needed.

4. CONCLUSION

Human beings are speech-driven, and anything which allows them to carry out daily tasks using smartphones and computers without unnecessary

typing will be extremely popular, both in commercial and educational applications. It is clear that the growing use of portable and wearable devices such as watches and even glasses will lead to more ubiquitous use of speech recognition.

Whatever can be speech-enabled, will become speech – enabled to bring greater speed and convenience to everyday and educational tasks. One can predict the emergence of some future applications of ASR, which only a few years ago would have been considered science fiction, and yet are now being rolled out as products.

Speech to printed output. People still rely upon written documents, and it will soon be possible for people to dictate a letter, language activity response or creative composition simply by speaking out loud to a speech-enabled phone or PC plus wireless printer. This will mean learners and other users can have their learning materials, or content they have created, immediately printed as a hard copy by a standard computer printer situated nearby, without any intermediate typing. This will help students with lower literacy and keyboard skills, as well as disabled students who find typing difficult.

Speech-activated equipment. People have to interact with a wide range of equipment and devices, switching them on and off, changing TV

channels, choosing washing machine temperatures, dishwasher cycles, thermostat settings et cetera. All of this will be speech-enabled in the very near future and machines will respond to spoken commands. Indeed, some thermostats are already on the market which allow users to choose a new temperature by voice, and some televisions are already being sold with this feature installed. This will impact the classroom as well, though the proliferation of different voices in a large group may mean that the feature often needs to be disabled.

Speechprint 'Star Trek' ID systems. The development of the technology will soon lead to the realisation of every Star Trek fan's dream, the ability to open doors by speaking to them and thereby identifying oneself by a speech print or voiceprint. This is already being trialled as a way to replace passwords for logging into computer accounts.

More widespread automatic marking of speech. The grading of speech is likely to continue to develop very rapidly. For many less advantaged students, with lower literacy and writing skills, speaking is easier than writing an exam paper, and assessment carried out by automated speech recognition may well be fairer to these types of student than traditional examinations would be. Speech is the future. Speech recognition in education, and specifically speech-enabled language education, is definitely here to stay. Our major challenge is to ensure that we are able to update pedagogical approaches and materials to best utilise this technology, and to support teachers in developing the digital skills they need to manage and benefit from this technology.

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Minitexts in modern educational discourse: Functions and trends

by Antonina A. Kharkovskaya, Evgeniya V. Ponomarenko and Alexandra V. Radyuk

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The study uses examples from English language teaching materials to consider different types of discourse used in short listening and reading passages (called minitexts), and also in vocabulary, grammar and speaking exercises. Combining elements of the functional, descriptive, and cognitive analyses, the authors explore the evolutionary trends in educational discourse reflected in English language courses and consider a possible contradiction between traditional educational discourse in instructions and rubrics compared with the colloquial and popular style of much of the input. The authors also discuss the conceptual framework of minitexts, the social background, and identity of the participants in dialogues and reading passages. Finally, the authors conclude that the main trends in educational discourse development are connected with English 'going global', as shown by the 'denationalisation' of learning materials, discourse interference as the blending of different discourse features and the extension of conceptual frameworks.

KEYWORDS: *educational discourse, mini-format text, minitext, denationalisation, national identity, mass media studies*

1. INTRODUCTION

With dynamic changes observed in many spheres, contemplation of development trends in language teaching and learning (particularly with EFL – English as a Foreign Language) is vital, as education concerns everyone in a civilised society. In this respect, the phenomenon of educational discourse deserves special attention.

The study defines discourse as a corpus of 'thematically related texts' (Baumgarten & Gagnon, 2016, p. 251), while educational discourse will be referred to as the discourse of 'institutional education in schools and universities' (Dijk, 1981). This definition refers to manuals, textbooks, instructions, classroom dialogue, and other forms of communication, such as the 'communication of educational establishments with their consumers' (Zerkina et al., 2015, p. 460). Thus, for the purposes of this research the concept of discourse (including that of educational discourse) is similar to the concept

of 'a type or style of language' as defined by the *Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics* (Matthews, 2007, p. 107).

Another relevant term is that of a mini-format text, or minitext (largely representing educational discourse), which in fact differs from the generally accepted meaning of 'text' only because it contains a limited volume of words, up to 600 words, otherwise bearing typical features of all the classical standards of textuality (cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality) substantiated by linguists such as de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Quirk (1986), and others.

Making mini-format texts, the focus of linguistic investigation is useful for a number of reasons. The growing number of minitexts in contemporary educational contexts is due to convenience in view of the increased tempo of training processes and demand for brief training documents. They represent a special characteristic of linguistic education discourse aimed at stimulating student learning activity rather than knowledge transfer through voluminous and time-consuming printed matter.

The functional (i.e. semantic and pragmatic) complexity of minitexts proceeds from the need for educationists to bring together substantial information in a short space, which requires more profound linguistic and mental proficiency than just well-developed speaking/writing skills.

Mini-format texts are also of special interest as a means of intensifying the rhetorical impact on the addressee (for instance, the recipient of education services). This is very common in the written and oral description of different objects, events and circumstances, particularly in English, and considering that American and British communicative patterns are often taken as models, the analysis of English-language materials is very helpful as a basis for examining similar trends in other languages.

In the educational domain, in the last few decades any materials can be analysed from the viewpoint of their pragmatic and rhetorical impact, beginning with the names of authentic coursebooks and the titles of their different units:

WE MEAN BUSINESS: The Ideal Secretary; Job Satisfaction; BOS is the Best (Norman & Melville, 1997).

HOW TO TEACH BUSINESS ENGLISH: Increasing Awareness; E-learning Possibilities; Using Critical Incidents (Frendo, 2009).

BUSINESS ACROSS CULTURES. EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES: Around the World: Negotiator Qualities; Styles of Persuasion;

'As people's perceptions change in the light of social trends and market fluctuations, so teachers, writers and linguists have to stay attuned to these changes in order to reflect contemporary lifestyle and ensure market demand'

Your Bargaining Style (English & Lynn, 1995)

The titles are designed to catch the immediate interest of users, already accustomed to a plethora of similar products of this kind in the business language and communication market. Evidently, the authors try to replicate real life business communication styles and choose topics that are relevant to students. To do so, they use language units with a special pragmatic load indicating high standards of training and achievement through words like *ideal, satisfaction, the best* and *increasing*, the extensive applied potential of the materials with words like *awareness, possibilities, effective strategies, qualities, persuasion, bargaining style* and *stress,* the educational and practical appeal of the topics studied by using company names such as *BOS,* and stressing their practical and international value by using phrases like *across cultures* and *around the world*.

As a rule, any discourse aiming to achieve a particular rhetorical effect uses different language devices, lexical, grammatical, phonetic, and stylistic, that produce a synergetic effect, each mutually enhancing the other. Their overall semantic and pragmatic result is not just caused by the pure linear addition of semantic components but generates new meanings.

Mini-format texts may serve as an efficient means of achieving a desired communicative effect. However, as people's perception changes in the light of social trends and market fluctuations, teachers, writers, and linguists have to stay attuned to these changes in order to reflect contemporary lifestyle and ensure market demand.

Therefore, this study aims to identify and present some relevant markers of evolution and transformation within mini-format texts. For the purposes of this article, we focus on minitexts used for English language training, considering that English is currently the leading international language (Crystal, 2003).

At the same time, we need to examine whether the dynamic processes in educational discourse are adaptable enough not to cause structural and functional deregulation of educational discourse as a subsystem of English language and speech.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The educational process in the sphere of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) training over the

last fifteen years differs substantially from that of the late 20th century, despite certain similarities. At the level of materials, we are no longer focusing on authentic or semi-authentic texts featuring native speakers from English speaking countries. Today, texts also include linguistic fragments featuring representatives of other ethnic-cultural communities using English as a foreign language. With English going global, teaching strategies have concentrated on how to teach *'international, generally received language, to adapt it to the needs of your society and at the same time to save its unicity'* (Zerkina et al., 2015, p. 461).

The involvement of different countries' representatives in intercultural communication cannot but influence the interactive schemes of communication suggested by the authors of modern manuals intended for mastering English at different levels of proficiency (from elementary to advanced).

Another increasingly important factor in the epoch of globalisation is the importance of communication through the Internet and the World Wide Web, which has introduced its own technology and communication style, mainly in English, using algorithms and 'techno' phrases that are now in general use. The universal use of information technologies as a means of communication has placed new lexical and semantic demands on linguists, teachers, and

'Mini-format texts may serve as an efficient means of achieving a desired communicative effect'

textbook writers, requiring a review of educational standards and language training manuals which cannot ignore the spread of new communication styles and devices.

The use of information technologies in education should meet the following principles: correspondence of the aim of IT use to teaching purposes, complexity and systemacy, communicativeness and the situational factor, relevance and cognitive direction, adequacy, the use of computer aids as a learning tool, raising the level of difficulty, integrity of all learning activity forms. To illustrate modern trends in educational discourse, we propose to use the example of a modern course that use a range of socially relevant topics and introduce interesting innovations. The course is *OUTCOMES*, first published by Hugh Dellar and Andrew Walkley in 2010. The linguistic illustrations in the present article are taken from the student's books in that series.

The problems discussed in the present paper predetermine the use of the following research methods: discourse functional (semantic and pragmatic) analysis, the descriptive method, and elements of cognitive analysis.

3. STUDY AND RESULTS

The research focus upon educational texts of limited volume (minitexts) from *OUTCOMES* demonstrates their genre variety, on the one hand (weather reports, the data of sociological experiments, official data on the situation in the labour market, the wording of medical diagnoses and experimental stages, recommendations regulating behavioural patterns, song texts, poetic descriptions of the nature, analytical comments of mass media, etc.), and their interdiscursive character on the other, which implies the combination, or rather blending, of linguistic features typical of different discourses (Jorgensen & Phillips, 2002).

The use of mini-format texts within educational discourse is quite common. However, the innovation in this case may be detected in the functional combination of linguocultural markers – language elements used as indicative signs which mark certain denotations and functions peculiar to discourse of a certain type and linguistic culture (Schiffrin, 1987).

The following example illustrates that educational discourse, when based on language from other media sources, includes fragments of mass-media, popular science, the Internet, political and other discourse types, and it is the advantage of this combination that allows us to avoid unilateral, simplified treatment of linguistic information and permits the use of varied discourse types from different spheres of social life.

'Mongolia is known as 'the land of the horse', yet it's only very recently that the world's only truly wild horse, the takhi, has been <....> into the country. Horses have played an important role in the country's history, and even today, most Mongolian children learn to ride at the age of four or five. Indeed, the obsession with horses and horse riding is so great that the annual race for young riders is shown on national TV. Last seen in the wild in the 1960s, the takhi very nearly became extinct. However, takhi kept in zoos have been <....>. And their numbers have increased. These are now being released back in the wild, where scientists hope they will soon adapt to their new way of life' (Dellar & Walkley, 2010a, p. 79).

The fragment cited above uses a popular scientific register, supported by typical lexical markers on the one hand (*obsession, extinct, released back, adapt*) and the almost total absence of colloquial expressions on the other. The ethnomarker (*takhi*) in the text is accompanied by an explanatory note that is also a sign of popular scientific prose. The use of more or less complicated (for non-native speakers) grammatical structures, like passive constructions, is peculiar to the syntax of scientific journalism discourse (*Mongolia is known; the annual race... is shown; these are now being released back*). The logical sequence of the

information provided by the so-called 'water words' (*indeed, however*) and a limited volume of the educational text fragment with its specific arrangement intended for a wide range of readers, taken together, testify that the text under consideration may be regarded as a sample of popular scientific prose in English. But its inclusion in a coursebook and the manner of its presentation (in particular the task 'Insert the missing words') undoubtedly relates it to educational discourse, resulting in a sort of blended discursive phenomenon, or discourse interference, mixing different types of discourse in the same text.

Another example of interdiscursive interaction is a piece of correspondence e-mailed by an employee of a company to one of her colleagues. This mini-format text may be attributed both to Internet discourse, as it is an excerpt of correspondence via the Internet, and to domestic discourse, because it contains the characteristics of everyday conversation.

This passage represents an example of formal written language, yet it has some typical features of spoken language and it should be taken into consideration that the text under analysis is preceded by the following information: 'You are going to read an abstract from a romantic comedy called *An Officer and a Gentleman* by Annabella Stephens' (Dellar & Walkley, 2010b, p. 29):

Hey Sandra,

The latest news from the office: You're still not here, of course – very empty desk next to mine. 😵

Really hope you get better soon. I'm missing having someone to chat to. Marian is still enemy number one. Awful – more later. 😡

Today's fashion from Jilly: a huge, loose pink jersey which is big enough to camp in! Then, tight brown jeans with grey boots. Strange flower thing in the hair. 😀

Rick spoke today: 😕 *his first words so far this year, I think, apart from the usual sighs and nervous laughter while he does things to his computer. The words were 'coffee's rubbish'. I'm not sure whether this was a comment on the coffee I was making or general health advice. Anyway, I think you'll agree, it shows his communication skills are improving!!!*

Ugly Boss: He's still useless and ugly – obviously. The hair from his nose is now about 3 cm long. He's also angry with me 😟 *– more later.*

The interpretation of this mini-format text may also be offered in terms of discourse interference (or discourse blending). Comments on the jobs demonstrate the interaction of educational discourse with the discourse of fiction and, most

importantly, the focus within the text of fiction here is on the minitext of a letter, which due to its lexical and syntactic properties may be a convincing example of online discourse interacting with the discourse of everyday communication. This assertion is supported by the following lexical, syntactic, and structural properties of the above minitext.

The vocabulary of the e-mail is presented by stylistically neutral linguistic units. No literary words or terms are used, which is characteristic of the texts belonging to everyday communication discourse.

The structural pattern of the letter resembles a plan-report drawn up in a very liberal form demonstrating once again that the style of the letter is typical of everyday communication.

The number of detected text punctuation errors (lack of commas), grammatical omission and simplification (*very empty desk next to mine; Really hope you get better soon; Awful – more later,* etc.) indicate a non-compliance with the usual rules for writing letters.

The application of text marked elliptical design is characteristic of oral, rather than written, communication (*You're still not here, of course – very empty desk next to mine. Strange flower thing in the hair...*).

Irony is easily detected in the letter which may point to the friendly nature of communication between the interlocutors and it is also a sign of non-official correspondence.

Non-verbal text decoration – smileys and other pictures – points to the electronic origin of the letter and emphasises its affiliation with online discourse.

Learning materials of this kind are not used in classical language teaching manuals. Thus, both the above examples illustrate the evolutionary character of modern educational materials for teaching language, which is caused by the blending of different discursive types and by the impact of international varieties of discourse occurring in the globalising world. Moreover, the evolutionary development of modern English educational discourse is supported by the regular application of text units functioning as intercultural markers of effective communication containing both English and foreign language semantic elements.

Besides discursive lexical and structural features, we can also observe how concepts are actualised through educational discourse. The unique way each community conceptualises its language is inherent. Hence, each language expresses a unique picture of the world. For this reason, in training foreign language communication it is

important to show the variability of basic concepts forming the communicative space of modern language courses so that interlocutors of different nationalities can achieve adequate mutual understanding. This is an important aspect of successful intercultural communication.

The term 'concept' denotes *'a mental construct seen as mediating between a word and whatever it denotes or is used to refer to'* (Matthews, 2007, p. 71). In other words, we may treat the notion of 'concept' as a holistic unity of ideas, images, and emotions connected with this or that word in human brains and potentially capable of stirring up some kind of response to certain situations, or, in a broader sense, to a communicative context, which involves the mental construct associated with a word.

However, specific situations usually involve some part or aspect of the concept more noticeably than others do. This leads to the need to identify specifically the type of person talking and his or her cultural background. For example, the writer in the extract above is making observations about colleagues (*enemy number one – awful, useless and ugly*) which are clearly uncomplimentary and maybe in the case of the ugly boss disobedient.

Learners need to know what kind of personality might write like that and whether the comments made are 'disobedient'. In more traditionalist

societies, the perception of 'obedience' might be opposite to that encountered in liberal societies, where perceived disobedience might simply be seen as irony and irreverence. Therefore, to achieve efficient interaction with target counterparts (as in teacher-student or author-reader relations) you have to take into account their conceptual sphere, or framework.

Within the *OUTCOMES* course, eight basic concepts are singled out, making up the nucleus of its conceptual framework. They are NATIONAL IDENTITY, MEDICINE, BUSINESS, MASS MEDIA, STUDIES, ENVIRONMENT, SHOPPING, FOOD.

Each level of the course supports conceptual continuity and reflects each concept moving from simple to a more sophisticated representation.

Take, for instance, the topic of Education. In the Elementary stage its central concept, STUDIES, is represented within the framework of simple verbal units such as Things in Class, names of subjects to learn, commonly used characteristics of the learning process and colloquial phrases (How's the course going?), initial information on a primary school in London and education in Russia.

In the Pre-Intermediate stage, the concept of STUDIES is represented by more diverse markers grouped by their semantic structures. The first group, like the previous learning level, comprises

subject names, for example:

Listen to how each of the school subjects in the box below is pronounced. Mark the stresses in each one (Dellar & Walkley, 2010b, p. 70):

> *Geography, Mathematics, Sociology, Economics, Chemistry, PE, History, Physics, RE, Biology, Latin, IT*

The second group contains lexical units naming objects, actions, facts and realities connected with academic life which already include some more specific and even abstract notions such as *a college, a course, exams, finals, homework, a primary school, a PhD, plagiarism, a secondary school, a subject, a university, to do (a PhD), to fail (finals), to get (good grades), to graduate (from university), to leave (school), to study for, to take (a year out)*. For example:

I didn't study for the test. If I .... the grades I want, I ... my first-choice university! (not / get, not / get into) (Dellar & Walkley, 2010b, p. 71).

The third group is made up of common nouns and verbs representing the topic of Computers and the Internet, such as: a blog, chat rooms, an email, Messenger, a PowerPoint Presentation, software, the Web, websites, to search (for the information), to spend (time on the computer), to upload (photos onto the Internet), to use (computers), to visit (websites). For example:

Vocabulary. Computers and the Internet
A. Match the verbs with the best ending.

1. chat — a. chat rooms
2. listen — b. with friends on Messenger
3. visit — c. a blog
4. organise — d. to music
5. write — e. your finances

(Dellar & Walkley, 2010b, p. 71).

Another peculiar semantic subgroup is formed by lexical units of computing that bear negative pragmatic connotations. Thus, the following verb combinations bring out the idea of the harmful influence of computers and the Internet on students' lives, studies, health and psychology, for example: *to cause problems, to do harm, to make cheating easier, to provoke plagiarism, to be addicted to, to bull, to cry about loads of homework, to feel mixed about, to get complaints, to get stressed.*

'The incredible growth of the Internet over recent years has caused problems for parents and teachers … Parents can now use sophisticated controls to stop kids accessing the sites that might do them harm, whilst new software helps teachers

'This again confirms the trend towards the extension of modern English educational discourse boundaries'

to detect copied work immediately…' (Dellar & Walkley, 2010b, p. 72).

In addition, the Pre-Intermediate course develops critical thinking and reflective skills by raising problematic issues, as in *A Web of Lies?* Such texts are highly informative and stimulate serious discussion of socially relevant questions, which in itself raises students' self-esteem.

So, we can conclude that including social and cultural markers as a dynamic, evolving and open subsystem of English lexis, is not confined to a strictly academic domain but strives to encompass a wider representation of real life.

Along with the trend towards movement away from the strictly national contexts discussed earlier the phenomenon of today's linguistic varieties in educational discourse testifies to the fact that these discourse types present an open and dynamically evolving subsystem of language and speech. Minitexts function as one of the significant tools of the process.

In view of the above, the thesis that modern English educational discourse has an open character provided by a synergetic combination of various identical national and cultural markers increases in validity. The ability of modern English educational discourse to adapt and transform conceptual clusters in the process of training (teaching and learning) is frequently accompanied by the tendency to implement the basic concepts under consideration (NATIONAL IDENTITY, SOCIETY, STUDIES, etc.) at all levels (elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate or advanced) taking into account the thematic diversity of verbal markers. This again confirms the trend towards the extension of modern English educational discourse boundaries. It should also be remarked that with the increase in complexity of each level of student's books, the tendency to focus upon denationalisation of the educational space due to the use of specific verbal and non-verbal markers is becoming more prominent.

Considering the requirements of the didactic arrangement of the training materials the topical principles according to which the units are grouped in the *OUTCOMES* series, as well as in other textbooks, are worth mentioning. The overwhelming list of topics includes a wide range of information about the most significant aspects of social, cultural, political, domestic and popular scientific life of people throughout the world, such as *Entertainment, Sightseeing, Things You Need, Society, Sports and Interests, Accommodation,*

Nature, Law and Order, Careers and Studying, Socialising, Transport and Travel, Health and Medicine, Life Events, Banks and Money, Food, Business. The topical diversity of the subject matter – painting, music, travel, world cuisine, popular sports in different parts of the planet, rules of business and excerpts from literary works of famous poets and writers attest to the influence of globalisation on educational discourse and the need to reflect a global, not just a British or US culture.

The examples described in the previous section confirm the hypothesis of dialectical unity between seemingly non-compliant processes within educational discourse – dynamism and evolution on the one hand, and preservation of its structural and functional systemacy and succession on the other. It is important to recognise that for users in any given environment the exposure of learners to a wide range of cultural experience through minitexts amounts to a constructive transformation of educational discourse in line with current social movements and the collective consciousness (world knowledge rather than just UK or US knowledge). In this respect, innovative trends are seen as upgrading the state of educational discourse.

As has already been mentioned, topics are universal, showing no particular concentration on specific countries or cultural trends. On the

'Verbalised precedent items contribute to a more adequate interpretation of details concerning national identity and to a better understanding of linguocultural facts in general'

contrary, the authors seek to highlight the specificity of a certain concept implementation in the life of different countries. This is indirectly confirmed by the titles of the texts: *Con-fusion Food, The Trans-Siberian Railway, The Camino de Santiago, Laying Down the Law, Bullfighting – Dying a Slow Death, Common Wealth Economics for a Crowded Planet, The Electoral System, Bureaucrats Back Down on Tan Ban,* etc.

The educational information is presented in the format of texts for reading, tables, graphs, drawings and diagrams, a traditional way of giving information and it should be remarked that tables and charts frequently serve to reduce the amount of lexical resources needed to illustrate the grammatical rules and to give the information a more reliable and streamlined appearance.

The international character of these and other training materials is also emphasised by an extensive use of the items of information which are characterised as 'precedent' and which are usually considered to be the basic elements of the

manual's cognitive platform. A lot of precedent names and phenomena aim to provide additional opportunities for learners to get better acquainted with the traditions, everyday life and cultural events relevant in different countries, which contributes to successful communication. For example:

The Paul Cezanne University in Marseille. It's one of the oldest universities in France.

She won the Eurovision Song Contest in 2003.

We've been rehearsing The Rite of Spring recently for a concert.

The oldest and largest space launch site in the world is the Baikonur Cosmodrome.

Elsewhere, a New York-based company called Metronaps ...

I saw an advertisement for the Voluntary Service Overseas and applied.

Verbalised precedent items contribute to a more adequate interpretation of details concerning national identity and to a better understanding of linguocultural facts in general. In view of this, the process of decoding not only British or American precedent names and phenomena but the precedent items or ethnomarkers related to other

cultures is especially important as internationalisation spreads rapidly through the English educational discourse. Here are some more examples.

Breakfast in Bulgaria includes tea or strong coffee, sesame bread and butter, cheese made from sheep's milk, honey, olives, boiled eggs and – most importantly – kiselo mlyko, a local yoghurt.

There's usually some strong local coffee as well – or perhaps some agua dulce (sweet water), which is made from sugar cane juice.

...the Aztecs ruled in what is now Mexico.

The M6 motorway between junctions 5 and 6 is completely closed for repairs.

The development of valid methodological schemes aims at penetrating the very heart (essence) of Modern English educational discourse, whose ability to focus upon the most important worldwide known events and notions is recognised by the scientific community. The attractive force of the educational discourse is particularly evident in the units from recently published English language teaching textbooks in which the topics of Internet communication or environment and medical instrumentation, national identity and human nature are discussed in a way which to some degree reinforces a

common lexical and grammatical space. As we see from the above examples of contemporary English-language educational discourse a large number of texts are based on themes revealing the features of different countries and the cultural characteristics of their representatives.

The authors of OUTCOMES and similar courses pay special attention to the concept of national identities beyond the central Anglophone sphere of the UK and the US. The reason is rooted in the impact of globalisation, since, on the one hand, the teaching material is multinational, on the other hand, it highlights the unique characteristics of world cultures (Ladhari et al., 2015).

After analysing the content of different level coursebooks we can state that the implementation of the concept of national identity is inextricably linked not only with the national culture, but also with the state, the political system and general economic issues. In coursebooks, the photographs of real political leaders, representatives of culture and sports are widely used as illustrative material. They provide an additional means of establishing the concept of national identity, as attention is focused on actual information provided in the texts for reading and listening. This contributes to the convergence of the educational process and the surrounding reality and represents a productive and constructive trend in education (Baydak et al., 2015).

The study of the basic conceptual platform of OUTCOMES allows us to carry out a linguistic analysis of the active vocabulary units, acting as markers of basic concepts, such as:

Medicine – mental health problems, depression and schizophrenia.

Business – the corporate ladder, how to set high standards, how to check the availability of product.

Mass media – news, media, events, danger, accidents.

Studies – preschool, IT, higher education degrees, school attendance.

Environment – cities, places, travel, nature, the natural world.

As well as everyday activities, such as:

Shopping – shops, things you need, food and eating.

The information, in turn, make it possible to confirm the thematic continuity and evolution of the lexical material representing the concept, changing the level according to the stage of language proficiency, as well as by increasing the diversity of the thematic markers of the concept.

4. CONCLUSION

Thematic diversity of nuclear concepts coupled with the continuity and interdiscursive nature of mini-format texts reflect some of the main trends in the evolution of contemporary English-language discourse in the context of globalisation and international integration. The most demonstrative functions and trends in the evolution of educational discourse are:

1. Today we observe accumulating signs of English educational discourse denationalisation through the absorption of foreign and foreigner-orientated elements, which is an inevitable consequence of English 'going global'.

2. Mini-format texts, or minitexts, are an important part of educational discourse. However, they also demonstrate typical features of the classical standards of textuality and pragmatic potential.

3. Educational discourse offers a vivid example of

'Educational discourse offers a vivid example of a universal linguistic process of the blending of different discursive types, resulting in educational discourse mixing features of other discourse types'

a universal linguistic process of the blending of different discursive types, resulting in educational discourse mixing features of other discourse types.

4. Mini-format texts in educational discourse reflect its dynamic evolution along with its structural and functional systemacy and succession. Educational discourse is being transformed in line with changing social processes and the modification of collective consciousness. Innovative trends in educational discourse development in English act as a model for all language training materials.

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An analysis of two evaluative models for a university MA English for Communication course

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Choosing the most appropriate evaluation model for a university course can be a challenging task. This paper builds a RUFDATA framework to enable the presentation, analysis, application and comparison of applied Developmental Evaluation and Utilisation-focused evaluation models to a French university language course. A tailored integrated model is detailed, which embraces the suitable aspects of both models and utilises a business digital evaluation tool to increase the efficiency of the given teaching context. The conclusion highlights the need for personalised solutions to every course evaluation and provides an example for other teachers on which to base their own evaluation solution decision.

KEYWORDS: *evaluation, language testing, RUFDATA, developmental evaluation, Utilisation-focused Evaluation, communication course*

1. INTRODUCTION

Evaluations play an important role in French university courses. They enable the course teacher, and often creator, to make assessments about the content and the teaching. Scriven (2003) defines evaluation as *'the process of determining the merit, worth, or significance of things'* (Scriven, 2003, p. 13). In the French higher education context, course evaluation data is generally gathered from student feedback at the end of courses and based on their opinions of what was taught and how. The feedback is extremely valuable for course and teaching improvement on an academic and professional level. Evaluations can be placed on a continuum with formative, 'in progress' monitoring, at one end and summative, final 'completion' assessment at the other. Scriven (1996) argues that *'the formative vs summative distinction is context-dependent'* (Scriven, 1996, p. 153) and so we can assume the large influence of the teacher, the students, the course, external factors and even the evaluator on the type of chosen evaluation. The context could even necessitate the combination of both formative and summative evaluations. For example, an evaluator may utilise a formative evaluation to enhance the course via weekly low stake learning diaries and compliment it with a summative high stake written

'Whichever type or form of evaluation model is utilised by a teacher, the benefits of learning about what their students think about aspects of their course is invaluable'

test to understand how well the course content and teaching style were received. Whichever type or form of evaluation model is utilised by a teacher, the benefits of learning about what their students think about aspects of their course is invaluable.

The first part of this assignment describes a RUFDATA analysis for constructing a framework for conducting the course evaluation. Then two contrasting evaluation methods are presented, applied, analysed and assessed in regards to their compatibility with my objectives and the context. A comparison is conducted and a proposed evaluative solution is presented.

2. SETTING

The chosen course for this analysis is an MA English for Communication course which I have been developing, teaching and testing for three years at a university in France. The students are aged between 21 and 30. They attend various core content courses but this is their only English one. I have a 13-week window to teach and test the

students and then to retest any failed students.

I was provided with the official course title and a concise overview of the course aims three years ago. I then created the first course iteration and have slightly adapted it and my teaching method since based on informal student feedback and test scores. I consider each version of the course to have been successful as I was always asked to repeat it by the course administrator. There have been no complaints and the pass rate has almost been 100 percent. Nevertheless, I would like to improve the course and the test for the students and my own professional development.

3. MOTIVATION

Chelimskey (1997) suggests 3 general 'evaluation perspectives' or motivations that underlie every evaluation or can be utilised to categorise them: evaluation for accountability, evaluation for development, and evaluation for knowledge.

As evaluations occur in the real world and involve real people, motivations are not clear cut and quantifiable. This is perhaps why Saunders (2006) notes that teachers may be motivated by two or even all three of Chelimskey's 'perspectives'. I am primarily motivated by Chelimskey's 'evaluation' in order to gain greater understanding of the opinions of the students in relation to the course and the evaluation process. I am additionally motivated by 'development' as I wish to improve

the course and myself. There may be an additional element of evaluation for 'accountability' as I would like to prove how beneficial the course is and how much students like it to my superiors. Positive results will certainly help me secure the course in future terms.

4. RUFDATA

Using online surveys or 'like sheets' and informal feedback conversations is a useful way of getting opinions but not as a basis for serious evaluation or course development policy.

A RUFDATA process, on the other hand, is utilised to develop the evaluation from an intention to an actionable process. *'RUFDATA is an acronym for the procedural decisions that would shape evaluation activity'* (Saunders, 2000, p. 15). It begins by looking at the reasons and purposes (R) for the evaluation, its uses (U) and then focuses (F) on what is to be evaluated. This is followed by considering the analysis of the data (D), who the audience (A) of the results will be and finally when the evaluation will occur (T) and who will conduct it (A). Completing a RUFDATA analysis provides evaluators with a valuable pre-evaluation 'reflective moment' to create a framework and road plan for their evaluation. Saunders (2011) argues that RUFDATA *'involves a process of reflexive questioning during which key procedural dimensions of an evaluation are addressed leading to an accelerated induction to key aspects of*

evaluation design' (Saunders, 2011, p. 16). For Saunders, RUFDATA is a 'meta-evaluative' tool that provides the missing planning link between objectives and the actual evaluation. Forss et al. (2002) note that *'more learning takes place before and during the evaluation, than after'* (Forss et al., 2002, p. 40).

Therefore, we can see RUFDATA analysis as not just an evaluation planning tool but also a guide for conducting the process and from an evaluator development viewpoint, it is fair to assume the 'learning' also applies to those people involved.

5. RUFDATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Reasons and aims

The reason for the analysis is simple; continuous improvement to make the course fulfilling for students. I have three aims in conducting an evaluation: (1) to measure how effectively the course helps students practice and improve their English speaking skills; (2) to assess how much students enjoy the course; (3) to evaluate how well the course helps students pass the test.

5.2 Uses

I hope to improve the course so to provide better lessons and tasks that enable students to speak and help them increase their English speaking skills and level in an enjoyable environment. I also wish to adapt or rebuild the test so there is better cohesion between the taught lessons and the

assessment at the end of term. They need to work seamlessly so the course not only helps students develop but also supplies them with the tools to pass the test.

5.3 Foci

The aim of the evaluation is to firstly uncover the opinions of each student as they relate to the effectiveness of the course for proving them with opportunities to speak English and how they feel their speaking skills have increased as a result. Secondly, it will look at their opinions of how they have liked or not the course and lastly, the results of the tests which will be analysed to comprehend the amount who have passed and the general scores.

I hope to understand what the students feel about the course and if they believe it functions in relation to the test i.e. if the former prepares them for the latter and if the latter is an accurate representation of the course content.

5.4 Data

The data will be collected via open or more closed questions delivered through a written or spoken survey and possibly 1-2-1 interviews for the first 2 objectives. The last objective requires statistical data about test scores and percentages of who passed and failed and with what scores. This is attainable from the final lesson where the test takes place and scores are earned.

5.5 Audience

The results of the evaluation are mainly intended for myself as I design and teach the course. They will be made available to my boss and any involved students or interested colleagues as well as the administration department.

5.6 Timescale

The course only has ten lessons and the final one usually includes the test. Thus, I generally utilise session Nine to revise and prepare students for the exam. As a result, the first two objectives could be assessed from lessons one or two to nine or after the test. Objective 3 can only be measured after lesson ten. I will aim to begin the evaluation process at the beginning of the course.

5.7 Agency

The evaluation process will be conducted by myself and include any other relevant teachers or department members who are suitable and available. The exact make up of a possible evaluation group depends on the type of evaluation chosen at the end of this assignment and availability of colleagues.

6. METHODOLOGY

The epistomological position adopted in this paper is grounded in a general constructivist perspective which argues that we build our understanding of reality internally as we are involved in what Piaget (1977) terms 'construction of meaning'. The

process is ongoing as we learn and change our understanding based on interaction in the social world. Vygotsky (1978) refers to it as *'a developmental process deeply rooted in the links between individual and social history'* (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 16). By embracing the influence of the external world and people, we can adopt the term 'social constructivism' as used by Lodico et al. (2010), which reflects a relativist ontology of reality is human experience and human experience is reality (Levers, 2013). This paper acknowledges the importance of experience but maintains the focus on the cognitive or 'brain-based' construction of meaning as opposed to a more interpretivist perspective. Iofciu et al. (2012) believe that cognitive researchers must place those under study 'human instruments', i.e. people and their internal mental constructions at the centre of the research. They suggest utilising portfolios, performance assessments, peer assessments and self-evaluation as effective research methods for uncovering what people understand.

To provide a more cohesive theoretical stance, this paper draws on Personal Construct Theory (PCT) which believes a person's unique psychological processes are channelled by the way s/he anticipates events (Fransella, 2015). The prediction of events leads people to create a theory or construct and then they assimilate or consolidate based on their experience. People are thus constantly experiencing, theorising, testing and

'To encapsulate all these theories, we can label the theoretical standpoint of this paper as Personal Social Constructivism'

adapting their mental constructs. To encapsulate all these theories, we can label the theoretical standpoint of this paper as Personal Social Constructivism.

7. DEVELOPMENTAL EVALUATION

Two evaluation models were chosen for this analysis to represent both extremes of the formative and summative scale, thus creating a more complete analysis. The first is Developmental Evaluation (DE) and the second Utilisation-focused evaluation (UFE).

Developmental Evaluation (DE) can be perceived as a type of formative assessment solution as it is concerned with activities 'in progress'. It was created for innovative and evolving situations as a flexible and adaptive method of evaluation. Bowen & Graham (2013) claim that it goes beyond simply evaluating a situation when he states that reflecting the principles of complexity theory, it is used to support an ongoing process of innovation.

For Bowen and Graham (2013), DE is not only an

evaluative solution to innovative and adapting context but also a tool to enhance such innovation. Scriven (1996) ventures further by defining DE as *'an evaluation-related exercise, not as a different kind of evaluation'* (Scriven, 1996, p. 158). Therefore, we can comprehend that DE can be much greater than just an evaluative solution.

A DE on its own is not always appropriate for every context, even for those in extremely innovative situations, so it is often used in conjunction with other forms of evaluation. DE's process-based responsive nature can clash with the more standard 'end result' evaluation which in many organisations is necessary for formal evaluations and measurable and actionable results. DE cannot be clearly defined, pre-planned and the outcomes are not predictable. Like the context it was created to evaluate, it is complex. Thus, a DE evaluation can be challenging to legitimise at the evaluation planning stage and also its return on investment at the end of the process and even for establishing success indicators mid-process.

Gamble (2008) explains the journey of DE as *'we move methodically from assessing the situation to gathering and analysing data, formulating a solution and then implementing that solution'* (Gamble, 2008, p. 18). This is a five-step process but what is omitted is the subsequent loop between implementation at the end of a cycle and

the next data collection or feedback to begin the following iteration. Patton (2011) refers to it as 'double loop learning' and describes the key actions involved in a typical DE process as *'asking evaluative questions, applying evaluation logic, and gathering and reporting evaluative data to support project, program, product, and/or organisational development with timely feedback'* (Patton, 2011, p. 258). These activities imply how active those involved in DE must be. To provide more tangibility and structure to the DE process, Dozois et al. (2010) suggest the development of a learning framework to map the key challenges and opportunities at the beginning.

A DE is a team activity where a group of stakeholders are led by a main evaluator. Patton (2008) asserts that the evaluator's primary function is to elucidate team discussions with evaluative questions, data and logic, and facilitate data-based decision-making in the developmental process. He or she assists, supports and enables the team to make progress. Their greatest challenges are perhaps giving stakeholders the power to develop the DE instead of controlling it themselves, responding quickly to change and recognising Patton's (2008) 'key developmental moments' that are unplanned but mark progress by indicating significant events.

Dozois et al. (2010) have several suggestions for the logistics of conducting a DE. Firstly, they

support utilising 'rapid reconnaissance' and 'rapid assessment' for the data collection. They describe fieldwork being conducted quickly on an 'as and when' basis. Rapid reconnaissance involves on the ground research via observations, informal interviews and surveys. Dozois et al. (2010) also recommend system mapping and outcome mapping for documenting the DE sessions but adapted documents could also be used to structure the sessions.

8. UTILISATION-FOCUSED EVALUATION (UFE)

8.1 General observations

Utilisation-focused evaluation (UFE) concentrates on the use of the evaluation which in this setting, is the assessment of my course to establish its quality. According to Patton (2003), *'Evaluations should be judged by their utility and actual use; therefore, evaluators should facilitate the evaluation process and design any evaluation with careful consideration of how everything that is done, from beginning to end, will affect use'* (Patton, 2003, p. 223).

UFE aims to create the most optimum evaluation possible with a carefully planned step-by-step design approach. It has a long-term vision with each stage clearly marked out to reach the final goal of creating the ideal evaluation for that setting. According to Ramírez and Brodhead (2013), the attention is constantly on the intended use by intended users. We can consider UFE as a

bottom-up 'by the people for the people' evaluation design approach. Based on the constructivist perspective of everyone having different experience and thus constructions, we can deduce that every UFE produced test will be unique. The result is a product of the needs of the users but also their knowledge, skills and teamwork.

Patton (2003) advocates an 'active-reactive-adaptive' relationship between the lead evaluator and the team members/intended users which implies the contribution of the team members but the overarching managerial role of the leader to lead and manage (active), listen to and respond to member contributions (reactive) and to change steps, the evaluation and the style of the process (adaptive). Patton highlights in more detail important decisions of members by stating that UFE *'is a process for helping primary intended users select the most appropriate content, model, methods, theory, and uses for their particular situation'* (Patton, 2003, p. 223). The scholar proposes a logical five-step procedure for conducting a UFE process which is ideal for newcomers to evaluation.

1. Identify who needs the evaluation.
2. Commit and focus on the evaluation.
3. Confirm evaluation options.
4. Analyse, interpret and conclude.
5. Share findings.

Ramírez and Brodhead (2013) expanded the steps into a more detailed 12-stage version which, unlike Patton's, does not assume the context is automatically suitable for a UFE and so includes several important preparatory stages.

1. Assess the readiness of the program.

2. Assess the readiness of evaluators.

3. Identify primary intended users.

4. Conduct a situational analysis.

5. Identify primary intended uses.

6. Focus on the evaluation.

7. Design the evaluation.

8. Conduct a simulation of use.

9. Collect data.

10. Analyse data.

11. Facilitate use.

12. Conduct a meta evaluation.

It has a very clear design methods stage a simulation use step tests if the evaluator and the evaluation are ready for the data collection. For the collecting data stage, Ramirez and Brodhead (2003) categorise data collection tools in UFE into *perception (evaluator's own observations), validation (surveys and interviews) and documentation (desk review of documents and literature)'* (Ramirez & Brodhead, 2003, p. 63). The final parts are aimed at making use of the results and then conducting 'an evaluation about the evaluation' which is useful for demonstrating return on investment (ROI) to superiors and for

assessing the process.

The 12-step process is a substantial undertaking for even an experienced evaluator. In my context, it seems unrealistic to run a weekly session on just one stage and expect full attendance and equal contributions. On account of the time allowance and schedules of potential teachers, five or even four face-to-face sessions of a maximum of thirty minutes would probably be the maximum possible and 100 percent attendance would not be guaranteed. I also presume, based on my own knowledge and experience, that they will be more interested in the final product and actually conducting the evaluation than the process of creating an evaluation. Thus, with this in mind, I have grouped the logistics of the 12-step process below by adding stages and the people involved:

Stage 1

1. Assess the readiness of the program.

(Course Leader)

2. Assess the readiness of evaluators.

(Course Leader)

3. Identify primary intended users.

(Emails to potential team members)

4. Conduct a situational analysis.

(Course Leader)

Stage 2

5. Identify primary intended uses. (All)

6. Focus on the evaluation. (All)

7. Design the evaluation. (All)

Stage 3

8. Conduct a simulation of use. (Course Leader)

Stage 4

9. Collect data. (Course Leader)
10. Analyse data. (All)

Stage 5

11. Facilitate use. (Course Leader/All)
12. Meta evaluation. (Course Leader/All)

It is feasible that the process could function with just three or even less people and entirely via online contact so limited availability might not hamper the process.

8.2 Objectives compatibility

UFE can enable a final evaluation to reach all my objectives as long as the team members can agree to cover them and the data collection methods are suitable. The timing of the actual evaluation is perhaps the main challenge as there will be a great deal of influence of objective 3 on the questions created from 1 and 2. This can be termed the 'post-test results influence'. For example, a student earning a good grade will reply positively to questions and 'help' (1) and 'enjoy' (2). They will be naturally biased due to their experience of their results and especially if did not confirm their expectations. Thus, there will be significant

differences of opinion between those who expected and got the grades they wanted, those who did not and those who actually performed better. Objectives 1 and 2 could alternatively be achieved before the test via surveys and objective 3 following it as the latter will rely on require test results. In this sense the design process perhaps only needs to focus on the first 2 objectives.

8.3 Analysis

UFE provides a pragmatic approach to create a tailored evaluation such as the one my course requires. Its analysis of the setting and actors will provide clarity to the context and ensure the evaluation is suitable. The use of a simulation is another valuable step in perfecting the final product and the meta evaluation will be valuable for future evaluation processes. All these components are only possible via a significant time and work investment which is the main challenge in adopting a 12-step process.

The people factor is another obstacle. If the course leader is the only intended user of the evaluation, involving other people creates unintended use by unintended users unless they can work on addressing their own objectives. As all other users will probably desire is the final evaluation a list of questions, justifying this long process and keeping people engaged would be problematic. Some would possibly not reply to emails and so it would not be clear if they were following or had quit.

'DE relies on change and events in the classroom but if the context is stable and nothing is reported, there will be no need for DE meetings'

Franke et al. (2002) note the negative repercussions in the drop out of team members and recruiting new people on the evaluation process. This is the infamous *'Achilles heel of Utilisation-focused evaluation'* (Patton, 2003, p. 232-233).

9. COMPARISON OF DE AND UFE

A DE evaluation is beneficial for my context given a need for regular feedback to help plan each lesson and respond to a changing student body through absence or dropout. A one or two lesson feedback loop would suit the context, whether that involves conducting actual evaluation or data gathering and analysis. In comparison, a more summative UFE approach would provide valuable 'end of term' feedback adapting the course for the next year. From a social constructivist viewpoint, opinions take time to be constructed, predictions made and confirmed or not. Thus, DE evaluates and utilises the ongoing constructions of opinions at different stages while UFE assesses the final constructed opinions of the course as a whole.

DE relies on change and events in the classroom but if the context is stable and nothing is reported, there will be no need for DE meetings. The evaluation process will never even commence as there is nothing to report and discuss. The chief evaluator will then have to create objectives and artificial points to work on and the process will no longer be responsive and more of a UFE. At the other end of the scale, too many changes and data would result in overload on the main evaluator. Hoping for an achievable level of events and timely data collection, analysis and outputs is wishful thinking. A UFE evaluation could easily establish stages with measured sub-objectives.

Both DE and UFE require a team led by the main evaluator and team members who should be intended users i.e. teachers who need a course evaluation. While the course leader can assume responsibility for a significant amount of steps in UFE, it seems less possible in DE as it is a more responsive process. Given limited teacher availability there is the danger of minimal or zero involvement in a DE which could effectively nullify its use and if this occurs midway through the process it would be particularly embarrassing.

The type of people involved with DE are often perceived as 'innovative' as they teach in a changing and evolving space and sign up for an innovative evaluation process. Such people would be inherently biased into change and innovating and perhaps the objectives would become second

to 'breaking boundaries' and even cooperating towards shared goals. The more 'let's see how it goes' mentality of DE would probably not agree with the traditional end of term survey and many organisations lack the culture innovativity to fully embrace this new 'fly by the seat of your evaluative pants' approach.

The evaluation process in both DE and UFE is complex and requires deep understanding and preferably training, particularly for the lead evaluator. UFE's 12 steps need to be fully mastered as well as the role of the lead evaluator. Any error during the preliminary steps could damage the evaluation while mistakes or absence of following steps would produce complications or even poor outcomes. The novice would certainly have a bumpy evaluative road ahead of them. In contrast, DE's more 'responsive' approach seems to be more flexible and the leader has more freedom but in fact, the lead evaluator must become a master of shaping and pushing the DE and above all, people management and development. In that respect, a UFE is more regimental as you just move through the clearly defined steps. A DE process could easily become derailed and wind down without a trained and experienced lead. According to Briedenhann and Butts (2005) *'participation and training in the evaluation process can build the capacity of stakeholders to conduct their own utilisation-focused evaluations, increasing the cost-effectiveness of the undertaking'* (Briedenhann &

'Although the course leader may be the only direct person who needs the evaluation of the course, all the department's teachers could benefit from doing the process as a form of training'

Butts, 2005, p. 241). This would help legitimise the time investment and attract participants.

10. PROPOSED INTEGRATED EVALUATION MODEL

If a particular educational context is not compatible with either a 100% DE or UFE approach an integrated version drawing from aspects of both could be effective for reaching objectives. Given the 'innovative' or rather 'changing' nature of the context, a tailored evaluative approach may be appropriate as opposed to a fixture structure (UFE) or an adaptive format (DE). The setting requires a UFE-focused objective of evaluating the course and reaching the key objectives but with an emphasis on results and creating an effective evaluation, not an easy to use evaluation for the intended users. The latter does not guarantee useful results and neither does a large team of intended users. Although the course leader may be the only direct person who needs the evaluation of the course, all the department's teachers could benefit from doing the

process as a form of training. The Head of Department might also be interested as the results would be informative and the Head of the Year would find the process and results useful. In general, I believe there is a strong case for making this process a standardised or repeatable process for our department and so inclusion of these team members is valid even if they are not currently intended users.

An important factor in this analysis has been the amount of involvement of team members or 'stakeholders' and gaining an optimum balance given the availability of participants. According to Taut (2008) *'It seems indispensable for practicing evaluators to arrive at some trade-off between depth and breadth of stakeholder involvement'* (Taut, 2008, p. 225). Yet a decrease in participation does not necessarily have to equal a drop in effectiveness. A substantial amount of the workload can be alleviated and the data collection and analysis can be improved and certainly made faster by embracing automated feedback software from business such as *Officevibe*. This software was designed to assist companies in assessing and improving staff engagement via attractive and easy to use online surveys followed by accurate reporting and suggestions for improving engagement. In UFE, the lead evaluator is generally responsible for a significant amount of the evaluation process logistics and in DE, if they are the sole contact

with the students and course set to be evaluated, then they are automatically at the centre of the process and possibly the only person involved with data collection and implementing outcomes of the DE meetings. Using *Officevibe*, the DE evaluator and team can save time and energy by focusing on designing questions and creating changes based on the automatically analysed results. It can all be carried out online and very quickly as respondents can respond to surveys as soon as they are shared. The app also provides a suggestion box for respondee ideas and allows for anonymous post-feedback qualitative discussions with between them and the evaluator in what the company terms 'actionable feedback'. This adds a valuable qualitative dimension akin to 1-2-1 unstructured interviews and the anonymity should increase the reliability of responses.

I propose using *Officevibe* for creating and delivering questions to assess objectives 1 and 2 every two weeks. While objective 3 can be achieved with test results and then possibly providing a final 'post-test' evaluation of all three for comparison. This provides enough reflection time for predictions, comparisons and the construction of opinions. If integrated into the course as a compulsory homework and the responses shared with the students and acted on, response rates will rise and there will be a more development element with the evaluations contributing to the design of subsequent lessons

and my approach. Below is a suggested '12+4' process based on the DE and UFE models:

1. Analyse the students, the class and the teacher to see if they are suitable for an evaluation process of 10 weeks.

2. Build a team and agree on the objectives and actionable questions or complete them yourself.

3. Create survey 1 for objectives 1-2 and share it.

4. Correspond with students, read the suggestions.

5. Share reports with the team, analyse them.

6. Share results with the students, discuss them.

7. Make changes to the next lesson.

Repeat steps 3 to 7 until the final test.

8. Analyse the final test results.

9. Create a final survey of all the objectives.

10. Correspond with any students and read the suggestions.

11. Share results with the students, analyse them.

12. Conduct a meta evaluation.

This process tests the students every two weeks and each cycle will provide information to help improve the subsequent questions. For instance, perhaps question types with low responses should be avoided, concise wording needs will draw more attention and students are reluctant to discuss feedback. It is important to vary the test designs as utilising the same questions five times would probably produce less answers as students would not see the point. Therefore, the process not only evaluates the students for the objectives but also inherently assess itself. This is why I believe every cycle's results must be shared and discussed with the students. This involves them as stakeholders in the process.

11. CONCLUSION

Evaluations are both an interesting and a challenging activity for evaluators. The RUFDATA analysis in this paper demonstrates the need to create a framework for any and all possible evaluations while the analysis and comparison of DE and UFE highlight the significant differences between just 2 types of evaluations. Even though Patton (2016) notes that DE is actually classified as a UFE as it involves a focus on use by (current) users, this paper highlights significant differences which must be addressed when choosing a suitable evaluative solution. There is no 'one size fits all', which is why an integrated version tailored to the situation will successfully press more evaluative buttons than an 'off the shelf' model.

'There is no 'one size fits all', which is why an integrated version tailored to the situation will successfully press more evaluative buttons than an 'off the shelf' model'

For instance, a short intensive course of five days cannot be evaluated using a team-based continuous cycle DE but a final more UFE could be enhanced using daily lesson evaluations if the teacher is able to adapt following lessons. It could be greater enhanced by utilising the students as stakeholders and running end of day discussions of focus groups. In this way, what are seen as obstacles when adopting a traditional rigid model approach should actually be viewed as

opportunities through an integrated, tailor or simply 'do what needs to be done' lens.

In this paper, the proposed outcome is a 12-step model which will presumably evolve over time as a result of applications to evaluations, as too will the use of the *Officevibe* app as a tool for data collection and analysis. There must be an element of evaluating the evaluation i.e. meta evaluation, as highlighted in this paper. Change is inherent in the evaluation context as the people are constantly creating understanding and factors such as lesson length, attendance and the levels of students can and in this context do always change. A good evaluation seeks results and they are more important than how they were achieved be that from a 100% DE, UFE, a mix or even a completely new type of evaluation.

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Dynamic changes in modern English discourse

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The study looks into the developments in modern linguistic science, its new branches and trends, emphasising the importance of language study on the basis of the unity of all language areas. The authors briefly characterise recent changes in linguistics, paying particular attention to the grammatical system of the English language. The study aims to show the expediency and even necessity of applying the functional approach and the cognitive-discursive paradigm to the study of different linguistic phenomena. The main method used in the study is of functional discourse analysis. Research material is represented by texts of Internet discourse, mobile communication discourse and print media discourse. The study concludes that the use of functional approach in studies of the lexical and grammatical system of the language, and of the cognitive-discursive paradigm in the analysis of discourse helps represent the language in a new dimension, trace new possibilities of human speech activities and new features of the functioning of different levels of linguistic units.

KEYWORDS: *lexical system, grammatical system, functional approach, cognitive-discursive paradigm, Internet discourse, mobile communication discourse, print media discourse*

1. INTRODUCTION

The second half of the 20th century was marked by the rapid development of linguistics and the emergence of new branches and trends. During this period, new areas of language studies appeared, such as semiotics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and others. At the end of the last century the development and deepening of different aspects of knowledge showed that the language should be studied in connection with contact zones (points where different languages and cultures meet) and that it should be seen as part of human cognitive activity. It is helpful to review some of the most significant approaches to language study, which have emerged and influenced the development of different areas of linguistic science at the end of the 20th and beginning of the 21st centuries.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
2.1 Development and change in linguistic science
First of all, it is reasonable to focus on functional

studies, which have a solid history. These studies are rooted in the 1950s. However, the appearance of cognitive linguistics has stimulated rapid functional studies and encouraged a fresh look at many linguistic phenomena.

The functional approach to the study of language phenomena has not received a clear definition to date, although most linguists all over the world emphasise its importance in modern linguistics. This is largely due to the already-established underlying premises in language studies, which recognise the relative immutability of the grammatical system, which has many common features in different languages and is only slowly modifiable. In linguistics, functionalism is usually considered as the approach to language study that is concerned with the functions performed by language, primarily in terms of cognition (relating information), expression (indicating mood), and conation (exerting influence) (*Encyclopaedia Britannica*).

Functionality is defined as the use of generally fixed phrases to fulfil a particular function. For example, to express the function of an apology a speaker of English might use a variety of fixed expressions ranging from 'Sorry' to 'I do apologise' depending on the incident and the people you are talking to. Functionality is most evident in the field of lexicology. It is connected with the problem of the correlation of words and concepts, the use of

'Functionality is defined as the use of generally fixed phrases to fulfil a particular function'

words in different languages and it is also their conceptual framework, the body of knowledge, which is a part of the users' worldview. It is also the verbal expression of a conceptual system. As a result, research in the field of cognitive linguistics, which combines and integrates different areas of human knowledge and experience in the process of study of cultural, historical, social, anthropological and other knowledge about the life and the environment, has an objective form and subjective perception.

As we know, functionalism is based on different sciences – linguistics, psychology, sociology and philosophy. It was the most significant feature of linguistics at the turn of the 20th and the 21st centuries and it has stimulated studies of language not just as a system, but also as a functioning mental phenomenon, which helps a person to categorise and to perceive the world.

Functionalism and functional linguistics have acquired considerable importance and many scholars use them for studying various linguistic phenomena as one of the most promising trends (see, for example, Fawsett, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2012; Ponomarenko & Malyuga, 2012).

Despite the conservatism of grammar, by the turn of the century a functional and pragmatic approach to language had emerged. Traditionally, the study of syntax, based primarily on structural and semantic principles, dates back to the philosophy of language. Some scholars aptly note that grammar consists of syntax, vocabulary, and morphology (Halliday, 1994). The functional nature of grammar shows itself according to the way the language is used: any statement, any text is connected with the context in which it is used. The meaning of a word is given in a dictionary, but its actual meaning appears only in the particular context, just like in the following example:

The cavalry made a charge down the hill.
They are going to charge me for the drinks.
The battery needs a charge (Crystal, 2006).

In the first and last sentences the word 'charge' is used as a noun but with very different meanings, whereas in the middle sentence it is used as a verb. If all three sentences used 'charge' as a verb, in each case its meaning would change – in the first example, an attack carried out full speed, in the second to give someone a bill to pay and in the third to raise the level of electrical power in a battery.

A language satisfies human needs, and its structure and organisation comply with these needs. The language system is used with two main objectives:

'The new trend in linguistics stimulated a new functioning of the already existing term discourse, defined as spoken or written communication'

(1) for understanding the world, and (2) for interaction between people. In the latter case the most important element is a textual component which, in fact, enlivens the use of language. Of course, functional and system approaches to the study of language must coexist.

But functionality always assumes dynamics. That is why the analysis of a functional model of verbal communication requires a dialectical approach. From this point of view, the discursive specificity of speech composition is of great importance and significance.

Many researchers emphasise the dynamic properties of discourse. For different groups of languages' composition units of different linguistic levels gain significant importance. Discourse helps to make a predicative connection between the world and the direct expression of this connection via language. The aim of discursive research is to understand the functioning of a language as a reflection of mental processes, communicative perspective and statements containing cohesion and coherence.

2.2 The cognitive-discursive approach to language studies

In the depths of functional linguistics, a new trend appeared – a cognitive approach to language studies. It emerged due to the increased interest of science in human consciousness in the late 20th century. Language plays an important role in cognitive activity. In the Russian linguistic tradition, cognitive linguistics focuses on the language itself and various aspects of its functioning, but it is clear that cognitive science is based on semiotics, psychology, the theory of communication, the modelling of artificial intelligence, and other disciplines.

Cognitive science is an interdisciplinary field of knowledge combining both traditional areas (mathematics, philosophy, linguistics, physiology, etc.), and new areas (theory of information and computer research). Thus, a language's cognitive function is part of the general functional paradigm which is characteristic of modern linguistic research.

The new trend in linguistics stimulated a new functioning of the already existing term *discourse*, defined as spoken or written communication. The tendency to go beyond the framework of a sentence was already noted in linguistic research in the 1970s and can be explained by the emergence of such trends in language studies as pragmatics, semiotics, and textual linguistics.

The term discourse has frequently been discussed in the scientific literature. Discourse is a broader concept than text as it describes both a process of linguistic activity and its results, and the result is a text (Fairclough, 1992). Perception of the world is systemic. It is organically connected with the indissolubility of knowledge, which, in respect of the language, is expressed through discourse – a dynamic process by which the predicative connection between the phenomena of the world and a direct expression of this connection through the language is made. Discourse is studied in many branches of human knowledge, and there are different interpretations of this notion resulting in different understandings and definition. In the study of language, this phenomenon has proved its functional significance for linguistic research.

2.3 The grammatical system of the language and its significant changes

Let us dwell for a moment on the grammatical phenomena observed in recent decades. We have already mentioned that grammar is reputedly the most conservative aspect resistant to linguistic change. However, as studies in recent years have shown, in this area the situation is also changing. First of all, it should be noted that grammar has moved away from the traditional division into normative and practical. Some time ago (mainly in the 1970-1980s) it became clear that grammar could not be isolated from the semantics of lexical units which belong to its structure, as well as of

lexical units, which are a part of the semantic composition of a text as a whole.

If we look at the recent history of changes in grammar studies, it should be noted that at the turn of the century many new grammatical theories were created. In this chain of changes, the greatest importance is attached to generative grammar, which played a very important although not very productive role in English linguistics and exerted a considerable influence on the current state of linguistic research.

At the same time, grammatical studies represented such trends as Word Grammar, Space Grammar and others. Word Grammar is a theory developed by Richard Hudson (1984) of University College London, which states that grammar is a network of knowledge about words. Space Grammar describes the use of markers to break up sentences, such as punctuation and ellipsis. The emergence of these new grammars can be attributed to the dissatisfaction of scientists with the limitations of the grammar structural framework and their struggle to find a way of analysing longer speech extracts, i.e. the discursive features of the analysis of speech.

The key terms in linguistics of the second half of the 20th century were colligation and collocation. Colligation was attributed to British linguist Firth (1957), a classic figure in English linguistics and founder of the London Linguistic School. He described it as the interrelation of grammatical categories in syntactical structure. Collocation describes a familiar grouping of words which convey meaning by their association. German linguist Römer (2005) went on to sum up the relationship between colligation and collocation as follows. *'What collocation is on a lexical level of analysis, colligation is on a syntactic level. The term does not refer to the repeated combination of concrete word forms but to the way in which word classes co-occur or keep habitual company in an utterance'* (Römer, 2005, p. 120).

It was Firth who stressed the need to consider the lexical-semantic and morphosyntactic construction of speech in their unity (Firth, 1957). Subsequently, these terms in their Russian language transliteration were introduced into the scientific use of Russian linguistics by Professor Akhmanova, who showed in many of her works and the works of her students the need to consider speech in the unity of collocation and colligation (Akhmanova & Mikaelan, 1969).

Up to the comparatively recent past, grammar used to be divided into academic and practical. Today almost all grammar can be used as a basis of both scientific and practical research. All modern English grammar is based on corpus data (as well as all modern dictionaries of the English language), and corpus data represent equally both

'Today almost all grammar can be used as a basis of both scientific and practical research'

written speech and oral data. It is no accident that the authors of *Grammar of the English Language* reflect the topics of spoken and written grammar even in the title of their work (Biber et al., 2000). Indeed, despite the opinion that spoken language is primary while written language is secondary, both forms of speech have their own distinctive features. Historically, the spoken language is primary in relation to the written. However, when you create a written text, the latter exists only in the form of so-called auditory images, which are represented in a collapsed view in the author's inner speech and are incorporated in the text along with the style. Thus, the reverse process of auditory, the transformation of auditory images into successive chains of intonation features while transferring a text from the written form into the oral form, is directly related to the analysis of the language and the style of speech units.

Grammar, together with vocabulary, holds a leading position in linguistic studies. Scholars point out that there is a need to reconsider fundamental principles of the grammatical descriptive canon, the latter implying sustainability of the system of principles and rules developed over centuries. Researchers also state that the

expansion of grammatical study is reflected not only in the development of new linguistic areas, but also in the expansion of the empirical research base (Bybee & Fleischman, 1995). This research base affects the latest trends in the study of language existence and its functioning.

It is interesting to note that it is at the turn of the century that changes in the grammatical system of the English language became especially prominent. There are many examples of such changes. Thus, Leech et al. (2009) point to changes in the category of number, e.g.: *postman/postmen* but *walkman/walkmans*. They also note the use of both analytical and synthetic ways of forming degrees of comparison:

It would be pleasanter if such cruel and feudal performances as tiger and rhino hunts were dropped from future Royal programmes / It would be more pleasant to go to the country.

Moreover, a significant reduction in the use of modal verbs has been observed. They are increasingly being replaced by quasi-modal verbs. Thus, the modal verb *must* is used less and less regularly. It is replaced by *want to* or *need to* (Leech et al., 2009).

So, what factors influence changes in the grammar system of language? Scholars distinguish the following processes: grammaticalisation,

'No doubt American English exerts a great influence on the English language because the grammatical system changes much more rapidly, which in turn affects all other varieties of English'

colloquialisation, content compression, and changes caused by interaction of diatopic variants (variations in language use in different geographical regions), especially of British and American English (Americanisation), and other varieties.

Regarding grammaticalisation, it relates to the language system itself. Grammaticalisation, introduced by French linguist Meillet (1912), is a historical linguistics term which refers to way in which a word changes its function to become a grammatical marker or a grammatical marker itself changes its function or use over time. This process is going on very slowly and has its roots in the history of the language. For example, the to-Infinitive, which is still frequently used in English, was formed back in the Old English period.

It may be noted that such processes change much faster in oral speech and much slower in written speech. This is reflected in the process of colloquialisation. This describes the process by

which words and expressions used in colloquial spoken English gradually make their way into the written language. Introduced by Mair (1997), he describes it as the linguistic expression of a 'general societal trend, namely an informalisation of manners and codes of conduct' (Mair, 1997, p. 195). Such processes are much faster in the oral speech and much slower in the written one.

No doubt American English exerts a great influence on the English language because the grammatical system changes much more rapidly, which in turn affects all other varieties of English. Thus, even now we can speak about the trend towards the disappearance of the Past Perfect form, and scientists predict the complete disappearance of the Past Perfect system in the near future. In addition, the verb *will* is increasingly displacing shall for the first person singular and plural forms with the possible exception of British legal English.

2.4 Internet linguistics and mobile communication

At the beginning of the 21st century a completely new trend in linguistic studies, Internet linguistics, appeared. It has been proved that the emergence of the Internet has had a tremendous impact on the functioning of English and other languages. On the Internet, one can find a variety of texts and discourses and in this respect the development of cognitive and discursive paradigms in the study of this new kind of language is becoming

increasingly important. On the Internet, there is a large variety of materials, including those where there is maximum convergence of oral and written speech. First of all, it concerns online communication. A similar situation can be traced in mobile communication, when there is a two-way link and one can expect a reaction either directly after obtaining a message by the recipient, or a distant answer later, or no reaction at all for varying reasons. Oral communication always implies some situation which is common to the participants in the communication. In the case of the Internet or mobile phone, this is not necessarily the case. The phenomenon of the Internet is not just a matter of new technologies, but also a problem of radical changes in human life and therefore, the language changes.

Researchers note changes in spelling, grammar, the function of punctuation marks, an ever-increasing use of abbreviations and acronyms and other phenomena which have come with the advent of the Internet and mobile communications. Thus, scientists point to the emergence of new punctuation marks, such as the asterisk, which is frequently used in a quotation function, not just in English but also in Russian, emoticons which function not only as an equivalent of the full stop but also as exclamation and question marks. In general, one can note a common trend in the use of existing and new symbols to show expressiveness of speech, such as

dots and the use of uppercase and lowercase letters. All of this results in a convergence of oral and written speech in Internet communication. The existence of the cognitive-discursive paradigm in Internet linguistics is evident and it is used for intensive research into this type of material.

2.5 Dynamic processes in print media discourse
Along with research into the specifics of discourse of Internet resources and mobile communication from the point of view of the cognitive-discursive paradigm, modern linguistics tries to apply the principles and methods of a cognitive approach to the analysis of print media discourse.

2.6 Peculiarities of discourse analysis
Discourse analysis in general and media discourse analysis in particular warrant the special attention of linguists these days. This interest may be accounted for by the tendency to apply the term discourse to various sciences and academic disciplines. It is possible to trace its dispersion both horizontally, i.e. in different sciences, and vertically, i.e. on various linguistic levels.

It should be pointed out that all those interpretations of the term discourse which one comes across in the works of modern scholars appear mainly to be due to the interdisciplinary character of language study within the cognitive paradigm in linguistics. The problem of discourse has been thoroughly examined by many scholars.

'Discourse analysis in general and media discourse analysis in particular warrant the special attention of linguists these days'

Different definitions, specific features and characteristics, functions of discourse analysed from various viewpoints can be found in scientific works (see, eg., Cook, 1989; Widdowson, 2007; Potter, 2013; Khramchenko & Radyuk, 2014). If we turn to modern British and American studies in the sphere of discourse and discourse analysis, we will find out that some scholars differentiate between discourse analysis which focuses mainly on oral speech used in interviews, talks, commentaries, and speeches, and text analysis of written speech samples in books, reviews, and social sight signs (e.g. road signs) (Coulthard, 1993; Crystal, 2003; Ponomarenko, 2016).

According to van Dijk (1992), discourse is not concerned with language alone. It also examines the content of communication, who is communicating with whom and why, in what kind of society and situation and through what medium, how different types of communication evolved and their relations to each other. He believes that it is not only linguistic features that make discourse properly formatted and comprehensible in terms of semantics and pragmatics.

Another approach to the problem of discourse and discourse analysis concentrates on text coherence and cohesion, characteristics considered crucial for adequate interpretation. For example, Cook (1994) defines discourse analysis as *'a discipline which studies how people achieve meaning through texts'* and *'the study of what it is that makes texts meaningful and coherent for their users'* (Cook, 1994, p. 19-23). Also according to Cook, *'Discourse analysis concerns the interaction of texts with knowledge of context to create discourse'* (Cook, 1994, p. 23). Thus, the author suggests treating discourse as an interplay of text and context which creates and passes on meaning. Many other scholars consider discourse to be a social (Fairclough, 1995).

One of the most reliable definitions of discourse is the one suggested by Krasnykh (2003), who considers it to be a verbal and cogitative activity, unity of process and outcome, which has linguistic and extralinguistic sides. If we render it in English it will sound as follows: *'Discourse is a verbalised speaking and thinking activity treated as the unity of process and result, and embracing both linguistic and extra-linguistic levels. It means that discourse should be understood as a cognitive process, as a reverberation of thinking with the help of a particular language means'* (Krasnykh, 2003, p. 82).

This range of opinions may be justified by the fact

that discourse study presupposes a multidisciplinary approach, embracing all the tendencies in the development of such areas of studies as computational linguistics, artificial intelligence, theoretical linguistics, social semiotics, psychology, logic, philosophy, historical studies, political studies, anthropology, ethnic studies, theory and practice of translation and literary criticism. Moreover, discourse, which is a keystone of the cognitive paradigm in linguistics, is a synthesis of the two leading trends in modern research – cognitive and communicative.

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary offers the following definition of discourse: 1) a long serious treatment or discussion of subject in speech or writing: e.g. *a discourse on issues of gender and sexuality; He was hoping for some lively political discourse at the meeting;* 2) the use of language in speech and writing in order to produce meaning; language that is studied, usually in order to see how the different parts of a text are connected: e.g. spoken/written discourse; discourse analysis (Deuter et al., 2015). It follows, then, that alongside the traditional interpretation of discourse as a long serious treatment or discussion of a subject in speech or writing the dictionary registers a more recent meaning of it as the use of language in speech and writing in order to produce meaning; language that is studied in order to see how the different parts of a text are connected together.

'Discourse is a verbalised speaking and thinking activity treated as the unity of process and result, and embracing both linguistic and extra-linguistic levels'

2.7 Specific features and analysis of print media discourse

In case of media discourse this approach seems extremely fruitful because it enables the researcher to single out the parameters differentiating various types of media discourse in accordance with the cognitive background of the addresser or producer (i.e. ideological bias of the text, those ideas and attitudes which are implied in the text), those characteristics of the target audience which this text is aimed at, and finally those linguistic and extra-linguistic strategies of presenting information which are implied in the text.

Cognitive process discourse incorporates the characteristic features of accumulating, storing and presenting information together with the characteristic features of its perception. It means that all these peculiarities may be traced within a particular national discourse in general and within a certain edition (in case of print media) in particular. Otherwise stated, the ways of presenting information in this particular edition may differ from the strategies of presenting

information within this type of discourse in general, but they are still identified as belonging to this particular culture. In order to be able to perceive information one needs to possess some background knowledge and a set of concepts at one's disposal which are shared by all the members of a particular national community and are reflected in the medium of communication (e.g. print journalism) as a type of discourse. Guided by these principles, we can differentiate between the following types of print media discourse: quality press discourse; popular press discourse (separating tabloids' discourse and glamour magazines' discourse); and specialised editions discourse (specialised journals and popular scientific journals.

All these editions differ both in terms of cognitive backgrounds of the addressers and the abilities of their perception by the target audience which is reflected in the ways of presenting information (linguistic and extra-linguistic alike) in the text itself.

2.8 Language play as a cognitive impacting device

It is a common belief that the main function of mass media is informative. But if we treat journalism as a type of discourse, which does not only employ various strategies of communicating information but also presents different ways of influencing opinions of reality, the function of impact comes to the fore. Certainly, the degree of

realisation of this function will depend on the type of the medium and even on the type of article, particularly in the case of print media.

The ways of impacting readers may be universal or culture specific. As experience shows, the most powerful and pervasive device used in media these days is language play. As a linguistic phenomenon, it is widely researched in the modern science of discourse analysis (see, for example, Cook, 2000). Play in general is a universal feature. Language play in particular is cognitively based on the ability of any human community to convey ideas with the help of devices which rely on connotation, ambiguity, shifts in words and violation of habitual combinations. Language play is employed in nearly every type of discourse but especially in mass media discourse. Comprehension can be a formidable task because all kinds of print media use language play in their articles, relying on their target audience's cognitive abilities to understand the ideas behind them. Even the titles of articles may require background knowledge and a set of concepts which are shared by all the members of a community.

Language play is often based on the dismantling of cognitive stereotypes. By cognitive stereotypes we mean standard ways of using clichéd expressions, quotations, titles well known to the speakers of this language and typical in national discourse.

They are associated with the habitual context of their use, and their application to other situations as well as the violation of combinations within them, which changes stereotypes in the minds of readers and listeners and often contains irony. This device is widely used both in the British and Russian press, which leads us to infer it is a universal feature of mass media communication. Some headlines allude to the titles of works of literature or films, musicals or well-known quotations from them. In this case the ability of a reader to decipher the underlying metaphors depends on the so-called shared code of sender and receiver of information.

The French Lender's Woman
(The French Lieutenant's Woman, John Fowles)

The Unbearable Lightness of Finance
(The Unbearable Lightness of Being, Milan Kundera)

Paradise Threatened in Mauritius
(Paradise Lost, John Milton)

Once Upon a Time on Wall Street
(Once Upon a Time in the West – movie title)

It is also possible to find a handful of instances of connotations, idioms, set expressions and metaphors and specific devices, such as oxymorons.

Needles in giant haystacks
(a needle in a haystack)

Of devils, details and default
(the devil is in the detail)

Unsecret agent
(secret agent)

These features characterise informed publications like *Times Magazine* and *Newsweek*. This cognitive strategy impacts the readers with sharp witty references using well-known cultural references and altering them to create a witty headline or phrase often adapted to a completely different context than was intended in its original use. Here are some more examples:

The battle after the bell
(the battle after Pearl Harbour, the Battle of Britain)

Doers and shapers
(Movers and shakers)

Schools for Scandal
('School for Scandal')

The Times, one of the most authoritative British broadsheets, used to employ straightforward predictive sentences as the titles of serious articles, now also uses this kind of language play, as in:

Romeo, wherefore art thou talking stupid?
(Romeo, Romeo, wherefore art thou, Romeo?)
Our schoolchildren are too sick to appreciate
Shakespeare, according to one of our educational
publishers.

The birth of a leg end (birth of a legend)
Our obsession with feet predates Wayne Rooney,
says Rachel Campbell-Johnston.

It is a common belief that only the quality press provides us with samples of modern speech worth analysis. But even the tabloid press and glamour magazines are rich sources for investigating linguistic means of presenting information. Popular press discourse enjoys the same enthusiasm for language play as in these *Daily Mail* headlines:

The roar of the Royals
(the roar of the crowd)

Death by snack attack
(death by drowning)

Life's a beech!
(Life's a bitch)

3. DISCUSSION

Hence, even this brief survey of the modern understanding of discourse and discourse analysis displays a diversity of approaches. Cognitive studies facilitate the process of investigation in this field. While scholars continue to discuss the set of problems worth studying within the scope of cognitive linguistics, we cannot ignore this beneficial trend in language research. It allows us not only to single out various aspects of linguistic research but also to integrate different approaches to language analysis into viewing text in its complexity as a global whole.

Summing up the discussion of the term *discourse* and its interpretation in modern linguistics it is important to mention that it involves triad of 'actors': the addresser of information, the addressee of information and the text through which the addresser's and /or the media organisation's message is passed on. Ideally, the author expects the recipient to get the message adequately. But in real life it is not always the case, and the addressee may either read in some information which the original text lacks, or considerably reduce the amount of he or she absorbs. Having analysed some examples of various types of media discourse we conclude that language play has become a pervasive device. Its forms and ways of impacting readers are based on the cognitive processes of the perception of reality and their linguistic implementation.

4. CONCLUSION

Cognitive research in conjunction with the features of discourse analysis, and applying the cognitive-discursive paradigm to linguistic phenomena are

becoming more popular in modern linguistic science. It makes it possible to review the discourse in terms of speech acts and speech events, as well as to analyse its linguistic properties and relevant extralinguistic (social and pragmatic) factors. On the other hand, it also allows us to describe structures of representation of different kinds of knowledge which determine speech strategies of communicants and the choice of exact language forms in the process of discursive activity. In doing so, understanding the national worldview and knowledge of the culture and environment of the targeted linguistic community is important. The cognitive-discursive paradigm has already proven its value in modern language studies. It touches almost all areas of language and opens up new opportunities language study. A study of the lexical and grammatical system of the language from the standpoint of its functional features, especially through the analysis of Internet materials, mobile communication, and print media discourse from the cognitive-discursive point of view makes it possible to see and understand the language in a new dimension, to trace new possibilities of speech activities and new features of the functioning of linguistic items at different levels and in different types of communication.

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Review

Teaching English literature / Shorties: Flash fiction in English language teaching (a review)

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Let me start by saying this is not just a training manual for English teachers interested in the teaching of literature in primary and secondary school or university but any language teacher interested in the teaching of literature. The examples are from English literature, but can easily be substituted by equivalent examples from literature in other languages, although the English literature examples are frequently fascinating.

The book encompasses a comprehensive comparative study of theories of literature and is divided into five broad areas: the basis (definitions of literature and why study it), competences that students should acquire through literature classes, the different genres of literature and finally the relationship between literature and modern media and how to assess students' LCC (Literary Communicative Competence).

In Thaler's opinion the study of literature is a relatively new field. Although literary criticism ('lit.crit.' to the lovers of abbreviations) has been around since the 19th century, the domain of literature has been dramatically expanded by the growth in media, offering new styles and approaches to literature and in particular the spectacular growth of online reading.

As a result literary criticism has been transmuted and to a degree replaced what scholars describe as literary communicative competence.

Thaler sees the study of literature in the classroom as an aid to support language learning. It reinforces the basic skills and competences of reading, writing, listening and speaking. It expands linguistic domains of lexis, grammar and pragmatics. Reading books from other countries

increases intercultural understanding and, above all, literature can provide personal enrichment and, as a change from classroom routine, can offer motivational value. It also allows personal expression through exchanges of opinion and preference.

Thaler is an enthusiast of reading spaces – classroom corners with bookshelves and beanbags, reading rooms and libraries. He also likes the idea of class and school book clubs where a book is chosen monthly for everyone to read and come together to discuss. It is also interesting that for Thaler, although recognising the importance of e-books and e-reading, the print book is still the most important and the library or the bookshelf is its home. For students who don't have reading resources at home, the school library can be really important.

What types of books should we read though? And do we have to read all of the book we choose? In an age of CLIL where more and more courses are being taught in a foreign language, especially English, it is important to read not just classical literature in the forms of novels and essays but also scientific works and books about geography and history. Even at elementary and lower levels more and more works are becoming available in simplified editions.

So a variety of reading linked to academic study and personal interest is useful.

However, it is always necessary to read or study a whole work in order to arouse interest in literature. As Kharkovskaya et al. point out in their article on minitexts, short texts from different sources can be just as valuable in developing reading skills in a foreign language as complete works. This is the topic of Thaler's other teacher's guide, *Shorties* which explores the phenomenon of what he calls 'flash fiction', the literature of adverts of tweets of emails and very short stories like Richard Brautigan's *The Scarlatti Tilt* (2012): *'It's hard to live in a studio apartment in San Jose with a man who's learning to play the violin. That's what she told the police when she handed them the empty revolver.'*

These 35 words can be the basis of a full lesson, discussing and analysing plot, character, location, how the police got involved and outcomes. As well as analysis 'shorties' lend themselves to other activities. Thaler uses the '12 procedures' typology outlined in Alan Maley's Cambridge University Press 1995 book *Short and Sweet*.

These include techniques like expanding by adding more sentences, reducing by removing words, drawing it, matching different short text with titles, choosing the best text for a particular outlet, comparing, re-ordering jumbled lines, rewriting in a different mode (e.g. the police report), interpretation of the unsaid, creating a new

text from the words they have studied, analysis of plot and character and language and, finally, using the story as a basis for project work (e.g. crime stories).

So far, we have looked at literature and short texts but there is also poetry. In contrast to reading there is also the art of storytelling. Thaler's *Teaching English Literature* encompasses both these skills. In doing so he explores how to develop reading skills through picture books, short and long poems and training students in how to tell stories and anecdotes out loud. Each example is supported by a lesson plan and one of the strengths of both books is the quality of these texts. Although they are in English and mainly from British and American sources it is easy to see how a teacher of French or Spanish or Russian could find similar examples in the language they teach to use in class.

One thing we have alluded to but not mentioned in detail is the influence of the electronic world on literature. Books can be downloaded and read on *Amazon* and equivalent services, poems and books can be listened to and read online. *YouTube* contains interviews, dramatic readings and features about the literature being read and studied and often students can watch the 'Film of the book', movie adaptations of major stories. All these offer support resources to readers although some teachers may criticise them as 'distractors.'

Nevertheless these are now important media in the world of literature and of learning and teaching and need to be seriously considered and exploited. Comparison between a book and its film adaptation can be a very valuable exercise.

Teaching English Literature and *Shorties* both contain practical activities with, in *Teaching English Literature*, an answer key at the end. This is a gift for English teachers, as are the extracts on which the activities are based. However, the clarity of presentation makes it easy for teachers of other languages to take the activities and adapt them to the texts they are using in class.

Like many of my colleagues I too studied set books at school. In French it was Corneille's *Le Cid, Moliere's Le Malade Imaginaire* and Madame de Sevigne's letters. What do I remember? A visit to see a performance of *Le Cid* at the Institut Francais in London and mocking Le Cid as he stomped off stage at the end of 'ô rage! ô désespoir! ô vieillesse ennemie', acting in *Le Malade Imaginaire* in the school play (I played the tailor) and nothing at all of Madame de Sevigne. Today I speak French reasonably fluently, read *Le Monde* and have spent time in France and Francophone countries but literature? Nul points! With the resources and the variety of approaches available to teachers today might it have been different? I would hope so.

At the beginning of *Teaching English Literature*

Thaler cites Christine Nuttall's dictum *'reading is like an infectious disease – it is caught not taught'* (Nuttall, C. 2005, *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language*, Macmillan Teacher Education Series, London Macmillan). As he writes, *'But teachers can create the virus and by providing a literature rich environment, make it grow.'* He sets out in both books to provide a clear structural analysis of literature teaching theory and practice and to offer examples of widely differing types of literature and activities to exploit them. As a combination of literature teaching theory and best practice for foreign language students it is clear, concise and of value as a daily reference for teachers interested in teaching literature or having to teach it as a set book. I would love to have had it when teaching Hemingway or even learning Racine.

The gift of the gab: How eloquence works (a review)
Original work by David Crystal published by Yale University Press 2016
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Although David Crystal is one of the world's most eminent professors of English, and a writer and broadcaster on language and related subjects, he is a man who wears his immense learning lightly. *The Gift of the Gab* is full of lively stories and examples which make his points live in the memory – as an eloquent speech or piece of writing should.

The Gift of the Gab is about eloquence, as Crystal describes it, *'going beyond the ordinary'*. To have the gift of the gab means to speak with eloquence. It comes from the Irish 'to gab', meaning to tell stories fluently and with ease. The book is about public speaking and presentation skills. It covers lecturing, debating and broadcasting but also more informal areas of public speaking such as after dinner speeches at a social event and best man speeches at a wedding. Therefore, how to speak successfully in both informal and formal, social and official functions are discussed. In his chapter

entitled 'Talking about Content' he covers almost every area of public speaking, even down to how to introduce a speaker and deliver a vote of thanks, with detailed but succinct summaries of duration, level of formality required and whether to use a reflective, informative, chatty, personal or emotional style. As a general guide, this is invaluable advice.

As a broadcaster and one who has had to deal with the vagaries of loudspeaker systems and technology all over the world, Crystal is excellent on things you have to look out for and the importance of checking that the technical system works, the volume is loud enough but not too loud and that you know how to turn the microphone on and off and that the microphone is not too near or too far from your mouth for you to be heard without distortion. He also emphasises the importance of checking the room you will be speaking in, making sure everyone can see the

speaker. He would naturally want to walk around the room and sit in different positions so he knows how the audience will be able to view him.

These examples of organisational best practice emphasise Crystal's two key points. First, preparation is vital. Second, focus on delivery. He cites the ancient Greek orator Demosthenes insistence on the key components of a great speech, 'Delivery, Delivery, Delivery'. Crystal also uses the ancient Greeks to define the three approaches a successful public speaker uses in making a speech, Logos (the word) persuasion through reason (using logic, clarity, evidence and coherence; Ethos (character), using the speaker's reputation, personality and expertise to persuade through credibility; and pathos (suffering), appealing to emotions and using passion to arouse sympathy and stimulate imagination; and, he adds, identifying with traditions and beliefs to get support and agreement.

The hero of the book is Barack Obama, whose speeches are analysed in some detail, as well as giving due deference to other famous orators such as Winston Churchill, Abraham Lincoln and Martin Luther King. Obama's election addresses from 2008 are dissected in detail to show how he uses repetition (the rule of three), described as 'triples' and other devices to emphasise his points. The famous repetition of 'Yes we can' is a case in point.

Crystal is one of the world's leading linguists and has spent much of his research career observing and analysing how people use spoken language. The heart of the book, six chapters entitled 'How they do it' is a detailed analysis of how public speakers like Obama use stress and intonation and the arrangement of words to get their message across and make an unforgettable impression.

The first technique is breaking down your sentences into chunks of information. Crystal cites Obama's 2008 victory speech:

'If there is anyone out there who still doubts that America is a place where all things are possible who still wonders if the dream of our founders is alive in our time who still questions the power of our democracy tonight is your answer.'

He shows how Obama breaks a long sentence into digestible chunks and uses intonation (speech melody) and stress to make sure the sentence is retained by the working memory. He breaks down the sentence into three chunks, each one introduced by the words 'who still' followed by a verb, to increase memorability. Crystal also uses the principle of '5 plus or minus 1' to indicate the number of stressed words in a chunk to aid memorability. For example in this sentence:
'It's the answer told by lines that stretched around schools and churches in numbers this nation has never seen.'

There are 6 stresses (5 plus1) in the first two line chunk and 4 stresses (5 minus 1) in the third line. Dividing your sentences into three chunks and having 5 plus or minus 1 stress points helps make your speech more memorable.

The second technique, already described, is triples or the rule of three. But, warns Crystal, be careful not to overdo it as it can end up sounding over repetitive and insincere.

The third technique is the principle of weight control. This refers to the structure of the sentence, particularly the positioning of the verb. Good weight control will place the main verb verb one or two words after the beginning of the sentence. Here is Obama once again, as cited by Crystal, with the main verb underlined.

'I was never the likeliest candidate for this office. We didn't start with much money or many endorsements. Our campaign was not hatched in Washington DC....'

The fourth technique, word ordering, Crystal describes as the importance of the order of mention. As an example, first say what happens first and say what happens next second, not the other way round. It is much easier for an audience to take in and remember a statement like *'In 1665 there was a great plague in London. The next year there was a great fire'* than *'In 1666 there was a*

great fire in London, The year before that there had been a great plague.' As Crystal reminds us, attention spans vary and are short. Don't make it harder for the listener to get the message.

The fifth technique is variation. Steve Jobs, founder of Apple computers, had a technique at the end of a speech of introducing 'One more thing'. It might be a personal story, a new product, even a band playing music but it sent the audience away with a bonus, something additional. Varying the tone at the right point with a story or a practical demonstration can compensate for a more routine part of a speech and placed at the end can become one of the most effective and memorable moments.

Finally, Crystal addresses the technique of personalising a speech, which he describes as sounding natural. One technique, which may be unconscious, is the use of fillers such as 'you know', 'I feel' to make it sound as if you are thinking as you speak and therefore what is coming out of your mouth is more spontaneous and natural. The same effect can sometimes be achieved by hesitation devices such as, 'er...' or by pausing before making an important point. This suggests once again you are thinking on the spot, reflecting on what you are going to say and being natural.

However, be careful. It can also suggest you have

no idea what you are talking about or what to say. 'Erring' and 'Umming' loudly can also be intensely irritating.

However, Crystal also shows how speakers can break the 'rules' and get away with it and how they can use intonation and voice projection to influence the audience and get their meaning across. Of particular interest to me as a cultural specialist were Crystal's insights into working with foreign audiences, particularly the reluctance to get involved in Q and A sessions in the far east due to perceived loss of face. I'm reminded of how Sir Richard Branson once overcame reticence to ask questions among a university audience in Japan by offering free tickets on Virgin Airlines to Los Angeles to the first questioners. It worked. The questions came flying. Crystal also points out the importance of not leaving immediately after a speech in China, Korea or Japan as many will come up to ask questions individually after the formal proceedings are over. He also refers to the importance of giving the full titles of important political dignitaries in the Middle East and of checking your local cultural references with your host to make sure they are still relevant and appropriate. He is excellent in giving tips on how to work successfully with simultaneous translators and interpreters. Lest it sound as if it is all getting

rather serious, the book is enlivened by many anecdotes, not a few against Crystal himself. I added to my list of 'don'ts' *'Never try and follow a performance poet'* after he describes how a barnstorming performance by a rapper, Akala, threw his own conference closing speech into the shadows.

Each of the chapters is punctuated by a short 'Interlude' giving examples of great speechmakers and great presenters and even great singers to emphasise key points. At the end of the book the appendices reproduce in full Barack Obama's victory speech in Chicago in 2008 and Martin Luther King's 'I Have a Dream' speech in Washington in 1963. A Further Reading list makes reference to Carmine Gallo's best-seller, *Talk like TED*, the guide to how successful speakers prepare and deliver TED talks. As you close the book, the back cover contains endorsements from Steven Pinker of Harvard University, author of *The Language Instinct* and Stephen Fry, actor, presenter, raconteur and British National Treasure, as well as Liverpool poet Roger McGough, presenter of *Poetry Please* on BBC Radio 4, who is a self-proclaimed 'glossophobic.' For him *'like all the best speeches, this book illustrates, illuminates and inspires'.* What better recommendation could you wish for?

ICC News

by Michael Carrier
ICC Board Member

Obituary

The ICC is sad to announce the death of Jack Lonergan, Emeritus Professor of Applied Languages at University of Westminster and former Chair of ICC. Tony Fitzpatrick, a friend and acting co-chair, and Peter McGee a close friend and collaborator at the University of Westminster, recall Jack's life and work.

Jack was born in Shepton Mallet, Somerset in 1943, of Irish parents. He was very aware of his Irish origins in Thurles, Co Tipperary. He was educated at Durham University (BA DipED) and Manchester University (MEd), was awarded honorary degrees and many other honours from several foreign universities.

Colleagues, students, and collaborators remember Jack as enormously encouraging and supportive. He was remarkable in his modesty, especially for someone so widely respected in his field. But he also had the self-confidence to pursue huge, long-term language/teaching projects until the rest of the field could see their value.

His first post abroad was with the Centre for British Teachers in Germany (CfBT, now Education Development Trust, UK), and he stayed with CfBT for eight years as trainer, head of the Materials Resource Centre and marketing manager.

He then went on to lecture in more than three dozen countries worldwide. He was author and co-author of a great number of textbooks, including the long running Video in Language Learning for Cambridge University Press in 1984.

He was one of the pioneers in the use of visual technology in language learning in the 1980s and 90s and produced audio, DVD and e-learning packages related to language learning and teaching, including a video guide for interpreters in immigration appeal courts entitled *Interpreting Matters*.

Jack was instrumental in helping set up the French language course En Train de Parler, for British train drivers on the Eurostar link between London and Paris. He also wrote several other publications in the field of English language learning and teaching.

He initiated the White Nights Teacher Training Summer Schools programme in St Petersburg Russia and also welcomed many foreign diplomats to University of Westminster's Diplomatic Academy of London. He played a crucial role in almost all the developments in the Applied Linguistics department as it grew to be a major centre for linguistics before taking early retirement in 2008.

At Westminster, he was responsible for short courses and for running projects for specialist

groups such as the Havana Medical University in Cuba and the training of the Beijing Police in liaison and communication prior to the Olympic Games in Beijing in 2008.

As Joint Chief Inspector of the British Council Accreditation Scheme, he was closely involved in systems of quality control and, combined with his interest in assessment he was Director of MODLEB the Ministry of Defence Languages Examinations Board at the University of Westminster. As Chair of the ICC Board, he further developed and extended these activities, often incorporating them into EU-funded projects.

After retiring from Westminster and the position of ICC Chair, he worked as director of his own consultancy, Language Training London, where he acted as an applied linguistics expert in a number of EU-funded projects dealing with cross-cultural understanding, communication issues, and inclusion in the workplace, with specific reference to disabled and migrant workers, including the EU sponsored Diversity and Inclusion in the Workplace series, *Diverse Europe at Work*.

For departmental colleagues, the intellectual loss is incalculable. But we will also miss his humour, his kindness to all and that warm smile with which he used to greet everyone, from established lecturers and professors to new students. A natural raconteur, Jack delighted friends and colleagues with his sharp wit and ebullient storytelling. Our thoughts are with his wife Ginny, sons Richard and John Peter and with his many friends, as they

deal with his passing. May he rest in peace.

Parts of this obituary were also published in EL Gazette.

New Members, New Links
The ICC continues to develop its network of language institutions and professionals. Recent new members include Linguae Mundi, the International Department of Coventry University, and RUDN University (Peoples' Friendship University of Russia) in Moscow.

We also add our congratulations to the joint managing editors and publishers of our new flagship academic journal, *Training Language and Culture*, and our thanks to RUDN University for their sponsorship and support.

ICC Conference
The ICC will be holding its annual conference at the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) in Graz, Austria.

EU Projects at ICC
The ICC continues to work with European Union projects engaged with language institutions across the EU. Our current project is ComoViwo, in collaboration with universities in Finland, Spain, Poland, and the UK. The project looks at the communication literacy needed by employees and managers to be successful in today's virtual mobile work environment. The project defines the skills that professionals need to communicate, collaborate, understand different cultures, and

effectively utilise technology in the workplace. You can find further information at comoviwo.eu.

Keeping in Touch

The ICC now provides a regular newsletter for members and professional colleagues, which anyone can subscribe to. To receive the newsletter, please visit our website at icc-languages.eu to add your email address to the mailing list (your details will only be used for the newsletter).

EUROLTA News

by Myriam Fischer Callus

EUROLTA Co-ordinator

EUROLTA Programmes and Their Focus

EUROLTA (European Certificate in Language Teaching to Adults) is an internationally recognised teacher training programme for people who want to teach languages to adults using up to date methodologies. It is designed for people with no or little language teaching experience and for language teachers who feel they need to upgrade their practical skills.

The EUROLTA teacher training programme is based on the learning by doing approach, and reflective practice, self-evaluation and a cooperative learning style. The programme integrates theoretical knowledge and practical examples. Above all, it provides many opportunities for self-evaluation, peer and trainer

assessment allowing room for experimentation.

Trainees who complete EUROLTA develop their teaching competence, the self-confidence in the classroom, and know how to continue their development after training programme is over. EUROLTA has now become a symbol of quality assurance for the Volkshochschule (VHS) network of adult education institutions in Germany.

In addition to the regular EUROLTA programme, there is a new programme EUROLTA Online. This is a specialised course that offers practical skills knowledge and confidence for creating and running language courses in online environments. The training incorporates online tools and techniques into teaching methods and frameworks for teaching languages to adults.

More information on EUROLTA is available at turkublogs.fi/eurovolteng.

The ICCs teacher training framework, EUROLTA, is being adopted by more and more language education institutions across Europe and beyond. New centres for EUROLTA training courses include Coventry University in UK, and Eurocsys in Mexico.

The topics and issues explored in EUROLTA are grouped into the following content areas:

- *Language & Culture*: How is culture integrated in a language course? How can the learners develop sensitivity for cultural diversity and intercultural issues?

- *Language Awareness*: How is communication competence described in the Common European Framework? How can grammar be taught in a communicative way?
- *Language Learning*: How do learners learn? How can teachers provide for individual learning styles and strategies in their teaching?
- *Language Teaching*: How can teachers help learners to learn? How can teachers make appropriate use of the media available in their institutional context?
- *Planning & Evaluation*: How can teachers plan lessons and assess their teaching? How can teachers assess learners' language competence?
- *Self-Assessment & Development*: How can teachers improve their competence as language teachers? How can teachers recognise their own strengths and weaknesses and formulate their needs for further professional development?

EUROLTA is not a language certificate but a methodological/didactic certificate open to teachers of any language. Teachers of different languages attend the workshops together providing an intercultural experience among the participants which can have a beneficial formative influence.

It is flexible and recognises the different educational environments that professionals work in. It is based on sound educational principles that apply to all environments and allows for various forms of delivery of the training programme according to the different regional traditions, contexts and conditions.

Depending on the centre, the programme can be offered as an intensive or extensive course – face to face, blended or online.

EUROLTA appeals to employers and educationists. For training institutions and language schools the scheme offers internationally validated quality assurance with regard to teacher qualification.

EUROLTA centres have testified that EUROLTA trained teachers know how to motivate their students and are extremely successful in classroom management and classroom dynamics, especially when dealing with heterogeneous groups.

Above all, EUROLTA enhances participants' employment prospects.

Many teachers engaged in the field of adult education look for opportunities to advance in their profession. They often do not have the possibility to gain certification for the tasks they are fulfilling. EUROLTA fills such a void.

There are EUROLTA centres in Finland, Germany, Greece, Italy, Mexico, Switzerland, UK and US. We need more centres.

For a list of centres to join a EUROLTA course or become a EUROLTA centre please contact Myriam Fischer-Callus at info@icc-languages.eu.

RUDN University News

by Elena Malyuga

Editor-in-Chief TLC

RUDN University Project 5-100

RUDN University provides education and research programmes in all fields of humanities, social, technical and natural sciences. As a recognition of its outstanding results, RUDN University was selected as a participant of Project 5-100 which aims to maximise the competitive position of a group of leading Russian universities in the global research and education market. Participants in the project are executing excellence programmes which will place at least five of them in the top 100 of global education rankings.

Being an integral part of the global education environment, RUDN University offers around 130 joint educational programmes run in collaboration with Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Sweden, Czech Republic, China and the CIS countries. RUDN University students get two diplomas – the Russian and the foreign university ones – and a Diploma supplement including subjects from both.

RUDN University Faculty of Economics News and Events

The Faculty of Economics is one of the oldest in RUDN University, formed back in 1995. Teaching languages for specific purposes and intercultural communication and translation are part of the Faculty.

In 2016, Faculty staff, including the staff of the Foreign Languages Dpt, participated in seven research projects financed from external sources, including the Federal Agency for Science and Innovations, the Russian Foundation for Humanities (RFH) and others. In 2016, research teams were required to publish articles in journals indexed in Web of Science and Scopus databases. All research teams fulfilled this requirement which led to a significant increase in Faculty publication activity.

Every year, the Faculty of Economics organises international, national, inter-institutional research and technical conferences and events, with international participation. In 2016, the Department of Foreign Languages held an international research conference *Topical Issues of Linguistics and Teaching Methods in Business and Professional Communication*.

The conference gathered experts in the fields of theory and practice, current trends in profession-oriented foreign language teaching and the use of new information technologies in the learning process.

It also covered translation teaching strategies at non-linguistic universities, topical issues of modern linguistics and intercultural communication as part of business communication.

The Dpt also organised the Intercultural Business Communication summer school with participation of Loughborough University London, UK. We also hold a regular interuniversity research and practical distance seminar on *Modern Trends in Applied Linguistics and Applied Translation*. Not just teachers but also students participate in our national and international events. Over the year, Faculty students participated in seven vocational training contests and eight professional exhibitions, including five international events. For details of our 2017 events including our International Conference in May please contact Prof Elena Malyuga at en_malyuga@hotmail.com or info@lspconference.ru.

TRAINING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE