TRAINING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

'Language is the most massive and inclusive art we know, a mountainous and anonymous work of unconscious generations'
– Edward Sapir

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Introduction to Issue 4(2)

by Co-Editor Barry Tomalin

Welcome to Issue 4(2) of Training, Language and Culture. Italy features strongly in this issue with two articles on the terminology used in the Italian tourist and furniture and interior design industries and the importance of loanwords in organisational naming to ensure more effective international marketing. Multicultural teams in business and students from many countries in our classrooms are an important trend in the globalisation age, and this issue explores how to teach management diversity in the workplace with teams made up of different nationalities, as well as the issues of communication in multicultural classrooms and how to manage them. This issue also explores the problem of xenoglossophobia (fear of learning languages) and how to help people, especially students in the classroom, overcome it. Textbooks are the basis of much of our teaching, and teachers have had to face the problem of textbooks which ignore local geography and social customs and behaviour. We explore this challegne and introduce the principles behind new materials for the teaching of English in local environment. Our reviews this month explore linguistics, in particular the continuing relevance of Noam Chomsky's concept of a universal grammar and the etymology of everyday words and phrases in English that we use without thinking but really don't understand how they came about. Finally, gathered together are the most relevant news about RUDN University (Peoples' Friendship University of Russia) and ICC-Languages and EUROLTA international language teacher training programmes.

Our first article in the issue titled *Intercultural communication in multicultural education space* by Elena Voeveda explores how students coming from different regions in Russia and from different countries get on in Russian universities. Using the dimensions created by Hall, Hofstede, Lewis and Trompenaars, she explores the different characteristics of students from different regions and countries in four Russian universities, interviewing students, conducting surveys and analysing the results. In doing so, she observes considerable linguistic and communication barriers between students and academic and administrative staff. The author identifies a major change in university structure as universities internationalise, and stresses how universities need to go beyond a standard one-size-fits-all view of university education and work on improving eliminating communication barriers in what she describes as the multi-ethnic education space of universities. In her research, Elena Voevoda interviewed over 280 students aged between 18 and 21 either personally or through social media and asked them to comment on 28 statements divided into three parts. Part A asked students to disclose details of their ethnic background. Part B asked them to agree or disagree (yes/no answers) with statements by Hall, Hofstede and Trompenaars. Part C contained questions focused on the Lewis model of linear-active, multi-active and reactive cultures. She then analyses the results to establish a picture of different cultural approaches to university life. What the author ultimately learns is that students experience difficulty in adapting to Russian as the main language of tuition, while teachers often fail to make allowances and do not realise that apparent lack of enthusiasm is often culturally motivated. What needs to happen is that academic and administrative staff need training to understand and manage cultural differences among their university students in order to break barriers and improve intercultural communication and, as a result, achieve stronger student engagement and better academic results.

Next, in *Anglicisms and loanwords: The contribution of English exemplified by contemporary Italian tourist terminology,* Alla Sokolova examines how English words have been adopted into the Italian international transportation, accommodation and food and hospitality industries but also notes how English words introduced into the Italian lan-

guage have morphed into authentic Italian expressions through the use of phonetic, orthographical and grammatical assimilation. One example that sticks in my mind is the morphing of *il barman* into *barista*, to describe a trained maker of coffees in a coffee bar. Although the influence of English is criticised by some linguists, given its current position of a world lingua franca in international communication, in particular through the World Wide Web, its importance as a means of filling semantic and lexical gaps in the national language where a corresponding word does not exist cannot be overestimated.

Italian business has an established reputation for quality and a hand-made feeling based on a long tradition of small family companies and regional loyalty. Nowadays the companies' family members may be long gone and the business itself international, but the name remains an ironclad guarantee of quality and workmanship. However, in international marketing, company and product names may be adapted to aid brand recognition in other countries. Using Italian company names and products displayed in trade fairs in Russia, Daria Shevliakova, in her article *Company naming strategies in the Italian interior design industry*, examines how names are simplified and loanwords, mainly from English, are adopted as part of a brand strategy. She explains the theory of 'naming' to create an acceptable brand name, looks into the sources of the brand names of a large number of exporters in the Italian furniture and interior design industry, and shows how they simplify their names using words in everyday use, focusing on one or two key words, sometimes just one, and relying on alliteration and onomatopoeia to create a rhythm and make a product or company name easier to say and remember. Daria Shevliakova identifies four main ways of adapting a company or product name for international markets and even domestic markets, most commonly encountered in Italian: proper nouns, words and phrases in everyday use, abbreviations and geographical names.

Many children (and, obviously, adults) suffer from phobias of different school subjects, but in our age of international communication, fear of learning languages, xenoglossophobia, can be particularly debilitating. This phobia is investigated and discussed by Heiner Böttger and Deborah Költzch in *The fear factor: Xenoglossophobia or how to overcome the anxiety of speaking foreign languages*. They begin by examining the neurological foundations of language anxiety and by exploring the symptoms. Xenoglossophobia doesn't just stop people learning foreign languages but it also inhibits foreign language speakers using the languages they have learned, avoiding foreigners and travel abroad. Explaining the symptoms of xenoglossophobia, the authors show how foreign language learners suffer from pounding heart, rapid breathing and stomach distress and in the classroom try and avoid speaking, participating or working in groups, preferring to stay silent. They may also find it impossible to sit still in class, playing with their pen, and cannot say sounds calmly and clearly. The authors conducted a survey of 108 prospective English language teachers in training. Although demonstrating a greater professional mastery of their subject, the English language, than most people, they were still prone to anxiety over issues like making mistakes, even if they knew the correct answer to a question being asked. Finally, the authors address the issue of how to help students suffering from xenoglossophobia. A key factor is mindfulness and emotional intelligence, discussing and exploring the psychological factors inhibiting the student and helping them to reframe their view of their language learning ability reinforce their self image as a foreign language user. The authors stress the importance of positive corrective feedback and the avoidance of criticism or sarcastic comments, emphasising the student's strengths and weakness in a balanced way and helping them adopt a problem-solving and communicative approach to avoid being locked into xenoglossophobia. This is an important contribution to the understanding of foreign language learning and finding out why some students may not be responsive in language learning classes.

Part of the ongoing intercultural debate to this day takes place in schools regarding the creation and use of textbooks. The language textbook in-

dustry is still dominated by western values both in the situations discussed in language teaching dialogues and in the types of events and exchanges and even the geographical environment in which exchanges are situated. For Tuncer Can, Sarah Frazier, Colette McManus and Alex Rey in Istanbul in Turkey a global approach to language textbooks fails to engage students and that what is needed is a localisation process. Teachers find that negotiating global projects, such as climate change, in textbooks, although important is frustrating. They find that students often shy away from exchanging ideas on global topics and fail to practise their language skills in the process. The answer is glocalisation – how to localise textbook material and make it more accessible to learners by relating the language to their own concerns and their local environment. Despite research into Turkish language education by international bodies such as the British Council and fairly high levels of exposure to English language teaching (4-12 hours per week starting at the age of 10 in state schools), students get to understand English but find they have difficulty speaking it. The answer is to produce coursebook materials which reflect learners' social backgrounds and interests. Tuncer Can and his team have developed a course which combines global themes where needed but also focuses on local life and experience, discussed in *Glocalisation in action: 'Less is More' English coursebook series*. The materials set out to teach grammar with reference to local lifestyles and put stress on student interaction and language use. The books start with local content and gradually introduce global education themes as students advance and their ability increases. The teacher's books, instead of spoon-feeding teachers with strict lesson plans, encourage them to be creative in how they use the teaching materials and adapt to the requirements of their students' local environments. Firmly based in pedagogical theory and good practice, this analysis of how to create 'localised' teaching materials is both practical and timely.

A key issue in modern business is the issue of diversity law and diversity management in organisations. Diversity law in Europe and in western countries has outlawed discrimination on the grounds of race, religion, gender, age, disability and sexual orientation, and cases may be based on the use of language, behaviour or just plain negligence. Ignorance is not an excuse. This is why diversity management training is becoming a basic training programme in international companies and also for university teachers and staff. Dr Deborah Swallow is a leading university lecturer and international trainer specialising in management and diversity issues. Her paper on *Managing diversity in the classroom* reviews the main issues and theories of diversity and applies them to higher education and adult education sectors. After defining diversity, the author shows how stereotyping, prejudice and unconscious bias result in discrimination, sometimes consciously but also unconsciously on the part of tutors and administrators. The misuse of language can also be a key factor in destroying trust and relations that are language-dependent, and Deborah Swallow explores the use of political correctness in language use and behaviour in the classroom and the institution, and discusses the legal consequences that may result from discrimination. She presents the Competency Framework developed by Spencer-Oatey and Stadler and offers a training structure to apply it to the classroom to overcome cultural differences. As the author concludes, the key to successful management of multicultural classrooms and companies lies in developing intercultural effectiveness as a core competence – not just knowing but being able to do.

Have you ever used a word or phrase in English and asked yourself, 'Now I wonder where that came from'? Maurice Cassidy's review of Simon Horobin's *Bagels, bumpf and buses: A day in the life of the English language* is a gift for teachers, students, etymology specialists and indeed anyone interested in the origins of popular words and phrases. Rather than taking an alphabetical approach, listing each term in alphabetical order, Horobin groups words and phrases according to the time of day in which they are most likely to be commonly used. To take just one example, *bumpf*, meaning irrelevant information or publicity, fits into the Work chapter. However, the origin is a re-

ference to toilet paper an abbreviation of the original 19th century description of bum fodder, *bum* meaning buttocks or a drunk. You can see why *bumpf* has a derogatory association in English today.

David Adger's *Language unlimited: The science behind our most creative power* (reviewed by Barry Tomalin in this issue), on the other hand, is more for the student or teacher of linguistics but is immensely varied and readable. Its thesis is that all live beings struggle to make sense of their environment, and the brain itself has a mechanism which allowa them to do this. The book explores human but also animals' experience of understanding and using language. Covering neuroscience, psychology, linguistics, research into animal behaviour and child language understanding and use of language, Adger supports Noam Chomsky's 1950s concept of a universal grammar and the principle of 'Merge', taking similar words and structures and combining them to produce correct sentences. A wide-ranging and fascinating thesis.

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

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Original Research

Intercultural communication in multicultural education space

by Elena V. Voevoda

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Educational migration and academic mobility have turned national universities into multi-ethnic and multi-lingual educational institutions. With international students coming from abroad and a growing number of students from the various regions of Russia, intercultural communication has become a feature of academic practices for both students and teaching staff. The paper addresses culturally determined specifics of academic communication in the multicultural education space of Russian universities. The purpose of the paper is to present the results of research carried out with the aim of defining the types of cultural indices applying classifications suggested by Edward Hall, Geert Hofstede, Fons Trompenaars and Richard Lewis, and analyse the influence of cultural and ethnic specifics on intercultural communication in the university. Implementation of research on the basis of four Russian universities included surveying and interviewing students as well as analysing the results obtained and case analysis. The key findings made it possible to classify and give a detailed description of the cultures of the post-soviet states as well as several regional cultures of Russia with regard to behavioural patterns. The paper further discusses reasons for communicative failures in the classroom, including linguistic barriers, and ways of preventing and overcoming them. The paper argues that awareness of ethnic and cultural specifics helps to break barriers in intercultural communication in the university and streamline the teaching process.

KEYWORDS: *intercultural communication, behavioural pattern, survey, interview, communication failure, misunderstanding, cultural barrier*

1. INTRODUCTION

World migration processes, including internal migration, serve as one of the specific features of the 21st century necessitating revision of priorities in university communication practices. These days, speaking about migration, we often tend to forget about academic mobility of both students and faculty at the home and international level, although it is yet another form of migration – educational, or academic migration (Weaver, 2014). It is important to stress that it is culture as a system of concepts, values and behavioural patterns that defines the vector and boundaries of behaviour of an individual in a certain environment (Dahl,

2016; Hall, 1989). Although it is common practice to help international students adapt to the new education space (Keles, 2013; Coward & Miller, 2010), preparing home-based students for facing the cultures represented by their peers from the various regions of the country and the neighbouring states is rather an exception than a rule.

Speaking about the problem of exploring regional cultures and putting to use the results obtained, Kashima et al. (2004, p. 816) rightfully point out that 'although differences in self-conception across cultures have been well researched, regional differences within a culture have escaped attention'. They further go on to say that the existing 'research tradition has not paid sufficient attention to regional variation within a country. That is, there may be regional differences in self-conceptions, which could confound the research on culture and self' (Kashima et al., 2004, p. 817). Hence, 'in a world that is still fraught with cultural prejudice it is crucial to help students to see themselves and others in a manner that will break down barriers that have been at the core of such prejudice through history' (Beaven & Borghetti, 2015, p. 5).

Traditionally, universities aimed to prepare students for intercultural communication abroad in view of further effective professional communication (Bücker & Korzilius, 2015), while today, when Russia numbers hundreds of multi-ethnic and multicultural companies and organisations both in the private and state sectors, it is necessary to train the personnel for communication within the organisations proper (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2012; Sani, 2015).

Schools and universities make no exception. The Russian Federation can boast a diversity of ethnic cultures – from minor communities in remote towns and villages (Tver Karelians, a Finno-Ugric ethnic subgroup that migrated from the Karelian Isthmus to Central Russia in the mid-17th century after the Ingrian war) to whole republics (Tatarstan, Bashkortostan, Kalmykia, Sakha Yakutia, Caucasian republics, etc.). Bearing in mind the cultural diversity of the Russian Federation itself with various, and often different types of culture, we can assume that a typical high-profile university has a multi-ethnic student body (Valeeva & Valeeva, 2017; Voevoda et al., 2016).

Most Moscow-based universities enrol a substantial number of students from the post-soviet countries (Belarus, Lithuania, Moldova, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Azerbaijan, Uzbekistan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan) and the neighbouring states (Finland, China, Mongolia, Iran, Korea, etc.) as well as numerous applicants from the regions of Russia. Traditional historical ties between the countries, lower tuition fees and the absence of negligible language barriers attract students to the universities of Russia, especially from the former Soviet republics. As for the citizens of the country, for them getting an education in the central regions of the country is not only a matter of prestige but a break away from regional and ethno-cultural isolation and sometimes isolationism.

It is often taken for granted that the people from the post-soviet states, let alone people from Russia, will follow the same cultural and behavioural patterns, no matter where they work or study. But the situation that used to exist in Soviet universities is a thing of the past. In the 20th century, university staff considered the needs of the average student paying little attention to the cultural factors in education or professional communication. That was explained by the common corporate university culture and provided for a unified communication model both for the students and the faculty. Today practice shows that those common social and cultural norms as well as social behavioural patterns have been replaced with specific cultural and ethnic traditions.

Belogurov (2002) speaks about a split in the formerly unified supra-ethnic field and, as a result of divergence, the emergence of independent ethnic fields. The stress is placed on respecting ethnocultural originality of students and faculty which helps individuals to preserve their cultural identity. Any individual's behavioural pattern is only one of a multitude of psychological typologies and the existing models of reality, but their knowledge of other cultures and the practices of co-existence are not the same as they used to be. The essential con-

dition of cultural interaction is real intercultural communication based on mutual comprehension and respect.

As a result of the changes, intercultural communication in the modern university has acquired a new aspect – teaching students and the faculty to understand the implications of communication not only with foreign students but also with their peers from the various regions of Russia. A basic precondition of successful intercultural communication is understanding and interpreting implications. Socio-cultural specifics have a direct impact on communication and interaction between students as well as between students and teachers. That concerns behavioural patterns, status and gender norms, communicative styles, etc. '*While cultural competence focuses on individual cultural icebergs, intercultural competence involves the use of a horizontal model which can predict what will happen when people of different cultures interact – when icebergs collide* (Weaver, 2014, p. 96-97). As educational migration cannot be stopped, and internationalisation of university education is on the rise, it is necessary to work out strategies for preventing and eliminating communication barriers in the multi-ethnic education space of universities.

Most universities in Russia have plenty of international students as well as students from the various regions of the country. Classes are mixed, with a multitude of cultures, and teachers never know where the students come from unless they ask. Addressing cultural diversity in the classroom is viewed both as a challenge and an opportunity to develop cultural awareness. It is necessary for teachers to overcome the existing cultural stereotypes. For that matter, it is important to know how to deal with representatives of various cultures in order to let them feel at ease and achieve better results.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The research carried out by a group of university professors and students in 2016-2019 aimed at defining the cultural imperatives of the students in multicultural universities in Russia and their im-

pact on behavioural practices in academic discourse. The cultural specifics of regional diversity have seldom or never been studied before (Naumov, 2000). Considering the various aspects of the suggested classifications, it was decided to interview students and conduct a questionnaire survey, analyse the results and see how various classifications can be used for teaching purposes and for facilitating communication between students and lecturers in the multicultural education space of the university. In total, over 280 university students aged 18-21 were interviewed – from Moscow State Institute of International Relations (MGIMO University), Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University), Yesenin Ryazan State University and the State University of Karachay-Cherkessia. That made it possible to analyse the behavioural communicative practices of the respondents and define the types of cultures they belong to. Among the respondents were representatives of Caucasian, Central Asian states, Turkey, Ukraine, Belarus and Moldova as well as the Russian, Caucasian, Kalmyk, Tatar, Bashkir and Yakut cultures of Russia.

The research rests on Edward Hall's theory of high and low context cultures, Geert Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions, Fons Trompenaars' model of national culture differences and the model of cross-cultural communication developed by Richard Lewis. Although Hall, Hofstede and Trompenaars have received criticism in recent decades (Cardon, 2008; McSweeney, 2002), there is no denying the fact that they have made a significant contribution to communicative studies and their classifications make sense. The above-mentioned theories were applied to the field research.

3. STUDY AND RESULTS
3.1. General observations

The questionnaire contained three parts with 28 questions (in the form of statements), which the respondents were asked to answer. The statements described characteristics of the selected types of culture and their applicability to the respondents. In Part A the students were requested to indicate their ethnic identity. Part B contained 17 yes/no

questions which addressed the culture types suggested by Hall and Hofstede. Their classifications describe the following indices: high and low context; power distance; collectivist-individualist; feminine-masculine, and uncertainty avoidance (which was not considered). Out of the seven dimensions suggested by Trompenaars, we took only two: individualism vs. communitarianism, which largely overlaps with the collectivist-individualist indices of the first two authors, and universalism vs. particularism. Part C contained 11 questions defining the three types of cultural norms specified in the model developed by Lewis: linear-active, multi-active and re-active.

3.2. Procedure

The questionnaire was offered to the respondents in paper form, by e-mail and social networking, in Google Forms.

The students who agreed with the statement 'I speak openly and directly' were seen as belonging to low context cultures, while their peers who marked that they used implications, polysemy and hints were ultimately grouped as high context representatives. Further on, questions 5-8 double check questions 1-3 and define their cultural affiliation more precisely (cf.: 1 – I speak openly and directly; 2 – I use hints and polysemy in communication; 3 – My words can be interpreted in different ways; 5 – My relatives and friends are fairly talkative, they freely use gestures; 6 – I can interpret statements with regard to the time and situation; 7 – I prefer to give examples supporting my viewpoint or the facts I speak about; 8 – I prefer to give evasive answers). Thus, a Kabardian student who agrees with statement 1 and disagrees with statement 2 does not belong to a low context culture as might be assumed at first glance as the negative reaction to the next six questions (3-8) overrides the indicators in the first two and gives more objective information. There may be several reasons for a positive answer to the first question and a negative answer to the second one: the majority of the surveyed Kabardians live in Moscow and are influenced by the lower context Russian culture. Kabardian students appreciate such ethnical-

'Addressing cultural diversity in the classroom is viewed both as a challenge and an opportunity to develop cultural awareness. It is necessary for teachers to overcome the existing cultural stereotypes. For that matter, it is important to know how to deal with representatives of various cultures in order to let them feel at ease and achieve better results'

ly determined personal qualities as integrity, candour and openness – that makes them give answers that are dictated by their ethnic behavioural patterns.

The students' affiliation with monochronic and polychronic cultures was defined on the basis of answers to questions 4, 9-14 (cf.: 4 – I don't like when people interrupt each other in a conversation; 9 – I think that every person should be given an opportunity to express their view, the speaker should not be interrupted; 10 – I don't like to be interrupted in the process of any activity; 11 – I usually plan my actions and try to stick to the plan; 12 – I appreciate punctuality; 13 – For me, contact with people is more important than punctuality; 14 – I can do several things at a time). It is evident that the attitude to interruptions indicated in question 4 is double-checked in questions 9-10; the attitude to punctuality is checked in question 12 and double-checked in question 13.

Affiliation with collectivist or individualist culture was defined on the basis of the answers to questions 15-16 (15 – Personal goals are more important to me than group goals; 16 – It is important to me what my friends and relatives think about me). Affiliation with high or low power distance culture was checked by question 17 (I find it important to maintain good relations with authorities, even at the expense of sacrificing my own interests).

Part C of the questionnaire contained 11 multiple choice questions aimed at defining whether the respondents belong to linear-active, multi-ac-

tive and re-active cultures. Questions 5-7 and 9-10 go back to conversation interruptions, punctuality, the use of gestures and planning (cf.: 5 – In a conversation with my friends, I often / seldom / never interrupt the speakers; 6 – In class, I often / seldom / never interrupt my fellow-students; 7 – I am punctual / not always punctual / never punctual; 9 – Representatives of my culture gesture a lot / do very little gesturing / do no gesturing; 10 – Representatives of my culture stick to the plan / change plans easily / make adjustments to plans). In this way, the respondent's attitude to planning, which first appears in question B-11 is double-checked in question C-10.

3.3. Findings

The analysis of the data received as the result of the survey made it possible to affiliate the respondents with the types of cultures given below.

3.3.1. Correlation between typological and ethnic cultures

High and low context cultures. The analysis of the data received through the survey showed that students belonging to high context cultures are Russian, Tatar, Bashkir, Yakut, Buryat, Kalmyk, Belarusian, Ukrainian, Caucasian and Transcaucasian, Moldavian, and Central Asian. They use more symbols and non-verbal cues in communication, meaning is embedded in a situational context.

Low context culture students are Karelian, Finnish, Latvian, Estonian, Polish. Lithuanians stand in-between. They assign primary meaning to the objective communication message and secondary meaning to the context. Russian culture has certain traits of low context culture that is why on the axis of high and low context cultures it stands lower than the cultures of the North Caucasian republics.

Monochronic and polychronic cultures. Monochronic cultures are Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. In Russia, these are Kalmyks, Buryats and Yakuts. These students prefer to do one thing at a time. They are task-oriented, concentrate on the job at hand and take time commitments very

seriously. They value a certain orderliness and do not like interruptions. Polychronic students will do multiple things at the same time. They manage interruptions well with a willingness to change plans often and easily. The overwhelming majority of students from Russia and the near abroad represent polychronic cultures.

Individualist and collectivist cultures. Students belonging to individualist cultures (again Finland and the Baltic states of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania) emphasise the priority of individual needs over group needs. In collectivist cultures the situation is just the opposite. These are Russians, Belarusians, Ukrainians, Bashkirs, Tatars, Caucasians and Transcaucasians, Moldavians, and Central Asians – Uzbek, Tajik, Turkmen, Kirgiz and Kazakh students. It is worth mentioning Yakuts, Buryats and Kalmyks who have traits both of individualistic and collectivist cultures.

High and low power distance cultures. Students of high power distance cultures (Russia and the majority of the neighbouring states) believe in strict authority and hierarchy while those representing low power distance cultures (Finland and the Baltic states) profess egalitarianism and shared power. This is manifested in the way low power-distance students (especially international students from the USA, Canada and France) treat the teaching staff and administration – without familiarity but with a feeling of equal opportunity to express their opinions.

Masculine and feminine cultures. The feminine-masculine dimension describes the extent to which a culture exhibits masculine or feminine attributes and the extent to which gender distinctions are maintained. Russians, Ukrainians, Belarusians, Caucasians and Transcaucasians, Moldavians, and Central Asians are traditionally masculine, or task-oriented. They recognise the importance of achievement, material possessions, success and competitiveness. Finland and the Baltic states, being person-oriented, belong to feminine cultures.

A mixture of masculine and feminine traits and traditions is observed in Tatar, Bashkir, Yakut, Buryat and Kalmyk cultures. Interviews revealed that

senior generation women belonging to these cultures seem to be gaining top positions on the socio-cultural iceberg, the lower part of which is supported by the traditional masculine community. This new placement of sociocultural priorities is now being projected onto their understanding of the organisational structure of university administration.

Universalist and particularist cultures. Russia and the rest of the post-soviet states as well as Turkey belong to particularist cultures in which the bonds of particular relationships are stronger than abstract rules. In Russia, the majority of the population, including students, considers that rules can be bent and laws can be broken. A popular phrase describing their attitude to law is 'it all depends'. It is alarming that a number of students interviewed admit that speeding is a negligible breach of rules: 'rules are made to be broken' seems to a popular phrase. Their 'universalist opponents' from Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania believe in law and order and tend to follow the rules, no matter what the situation suggests.

Linear-active, multi-active, re-active cultures. Considering Lewis's (2019) tripartite division of cultural categories, we see that linear-active students, punctual good planners do one thing at a time. Their body language is often restrained. Unlike the first type, the talkative, unrestrained multi-actives feel comfortable doing several things at a time and appreciate relationship rather than punctuality.

Re-active students are good listeners who see statements as promises and thus place priority on courtesy and respect. That is particularly evident in the classroom: promises are not to be broken and respectful behaviour is expected of both the students and the teachers.

Latvian students are primarily linear-active, while the students coming from Finland, Estonia and Lithuania, being basically linear-active, have traits of re-active culture. Russian, Ukrainian, Belarusian, and Moldavian students are multi-active with re-active traits. Armenians, Tatars, Bashkirs, Buryats and Yakuts are re-active, although Tatars have traits of multi-active culture. Most Caucasian

and Central Asian students are multi-active with Kabardian and Karachi respondents displaying re-active features.

3.3.2. Cultural traits of the post-soviet states

The cultures of Belarus, Ukraine and Moldova have many common traits: they are high context, collectivist, polychronic, masculine, particularist, with high power distance, multi-active with re-active traits. The average representative of these cultures is open and straightforward, which indicates their affiliation with low context culture. But at the same time, they often use hints and implications, which indicates high context. They joke, use metaphors, their actions are spontaneous and action planning is approximate. Punctuality runs second in importance to interpersonal relationships. Group goals are valued higher than personal goals.

Azerbaijani culture is high context, collectivist, polychronic, masculine and particularist, with high power distance. But unlike the cultures of Belarus, Ukraine and Moldova it is re-active. Azerbaijanis are sociable and loquacious, they are apt to resort to the use of gestures and implications – metaphors, polysemy, shared texts. They prefer to give indirect rejections so as not to hurt the interlocutor. That eventually may lead to misinterpretation of their intentions. Azerbaijanis are impulsive, they easily change plans and are not always punctual.

Rather a small sample does not make it possible to give reliable data on Georgian, Armenian and Turkmen cultures. The information received in interviews allows us to assume that these cultures are high context, collectivist, polychronic, masculine and particularist. Armenians are more taciturn than Georgians and are more apt to follow ethnic traditions.

The cultures of Central Asian states (Uzbekistan, Kirghizstan, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Kazakhstan) have very much in common due to their geographical position, historical past and the linguistic similarity of their languages (with the exception of Tajik), which have always promoted active regional contacts and cultural exchange.

These cultures are seen as high context, collectivist, polychronic, masculine and particularist, with high power distance and multi-active character. Although the representatives of the cultures concerned are sociable, they avoid straightforwardness in communication. Instead, they tend to be evasive, use implication, and resort to mimicry and gestures to express their attitudes. Punctuality and planning do not count for much in their hierarchy of values. In communication, Uzbeks are less patient than the representatives of the other Central Asian states, supporting an interactive conversation they can interrupt the speakers. Central Asian cultures profess social hierarchy and respect for their elders. Education is teacher-oriented and science is focused on the founders of scientific schools and heads of research institutions that are formally recognised.

Cultures of the Baltic states (Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania) are considerably different from the rest of the cultures described. They may be described as low context, monochronic, individualist, feminine and low power distance. Latvian culture is described as linear-active, while Estonian and Lithuanian cultures, although also linear-active, have re-active traits.

3.4. Limitations

The research group needs to further examine gender characteristics and carry out a more representative sample survey in each of the ethnic groups. It is also worthwhile to give more detailed and profound correlations between diverse ethnic cultures and their typological characteristics, with more detailed criteria.

4. DISCUSSION

How can the obtained data be applied to organising the teaching process in a university? The description of cultural specifics of students' cultures helped draw conclusions about the possible communication failures and conflicts in the classroom (Lukešová, 2015) and make recommendations on how to prevent them. But what is more important, it helps educators facilitate and control intercultural communication and interaction in the multicul-

'Teachers often fail to realise that students' seemingly unenthusiastic classroom performance is often culturally motivated. While preparing the class for a discussion, the lecturer can hardly expect all the students to actively participate in it – that does not depend only and solely on the student's readiness for the class, but mostly on the culturally determined communicative practice and ethnic cultural practices'

tural stratum of a modern university. In this respect, one of the guidelines is the illustrious phrase: '*When you get your 'Who am I?' question right, all of your 'What should I do?' questions tend to take care of themselves*' (Rohr, 2011, p. 31). The lecturer should be able to consider the cultural specifics of students, especially their belonging to a certain context and ethnic culture. But it is equally important to remember that teaching is a two-way process – '*the teacher also brings a range of diversity issues to the classroom*' (Du Plessis & Bisschoff, 2007, p. 246) as they belong to certain types of cultures and manifest their specific characteristics in intercultural communication. In the multicultural education space of modern universities, it is important '*to look at how participants respond to teaching contents, materials and methodologies*' (Borghetti & Beaven, 2018, p. 37), to work out strategies and tactics of interaction between students and teachers which will help to facilitate communication and prevent misunderstanding. Teachers often fail to realise that students' seemingly unenthusiastic classroom performance is often culturally motivated. While preparing the class for a discussion, the lecturer can hardly expect all the students to actively participate in it – that does not depend only and solely on the student's readiness for the class, but mostly on the culturally determined communicative practice and ethnic cultural practices.

International students and a significant percentage of regional students have to adapt to studying in the atmosphere of multilingualism: their mother tongue, Russian as the language of instruction and one or two foreign languages as part of the curriculum. In the post-soviet states, Russian is taught as a foreign language, with the exception of Belarus and Kazakhstan. Students coming from the post-soviet states and the regions of Russia speak in mother-tongues belonging to several language families: Indo-European (Belarusian, Ukrainian, Moldavian, Lithuanian, Latvian), Turkic (Azerbaijani, Uzbek, Kirgiz, Turkmen, Kazakh, Tatar, Bashkir, Yakut, etc.), Uralic (Estonian), Mongolian (Kalmyk, Buryat), and Caucasian languages embracing three language families. Coupled with the foreign languages traditionally learned at school and university, students have a combination of grammatically different languages to learn – synthetic, analytical and agglutinative.

The process of communication in a language different from the mother-tongues is a complicated process which involves information perception, decoding, processing and then encoding the response. More often than not, international students who are not proficient enough in Russian find it difficult to follow the lecturer. Trying not to 'lose face' they refrain from asking the lecturer or their peers for help and finally show poor learning outcomes. In the language class, the situation gets even more difficult when they face translation from one language into another. At the primary stage, the process usually involves deciphering the phrase into the mother-tongue and then into one of the foreign languages under study.

Besides linguistic difficulties, students' performance in the classroom is seriously affected by ethnic and culturally determined behavioural patterns.

Linear-active and monochronic Bashkirs, Yakuts, Kalmyks, Central Asian, Latvian, Estonian students, usually wait for their turn to speak and expect the teacher to ask them to do so. Otherwise they will refrain from speaking in class. For them, a discussion is an exchange of monologues. At the same time, Lithuanians and Uzbeks are more in-

'A multi-active and polychronic teacher may think that a linear-active student is not ready for the class while the situation is easily explained in terms of cultural psychology – the student is unwilling to stand out from the crowd and is waiting for their turn to speak'

teractive and will eagerly participate in a lively discussion. Bashkirs, Yakuts, Kalmyks maintain minimal eye contact, tend to answer direct questions and show no desire to develop situations, for example, in a language class.

A multi-active and polychronic teacher may think that a linear-active student is not ready for the class while the situation is easily explained in terms of cultural psychology – the student is unwilling to stand out from the crowd and is waiting for their turn to speak. The author taught a Kalmyk student who never volunteered to answer or participate in a classroom discussion. But when asked, he always spoke readily and coherently – looking sideways. The same student failed to speak about health and illnesses (a regular topic for discussion in the language class) because a Kalmyk male is not supposed to speak about ailments. Speaking about wealth, success and plans for the future is also avoided in Kalmyk culture.

Yakut, Kalmyk and Bashkir students are commonly less talkative than Tatar and Caucasian students. Kazakh students resort to subtle and allegoric criticism. Uzbeks are more easy-going and active than Turkmen and Tajiks. It is impossible for representatives of many Central Asian cultures to lose face: Uzbeks take it hard when they are publicly criticised, for example, when they get a low grade.

Linear-active students (Latvia, Poland) tend to plan their projects and write term papers in advance. They are punctual and meet the deadlines. But during the examination period it is more difficult for linear-active students to cope with several subjects at a time. Re-active cultures usually do

things in time. Multi-active students feel comfortable doing several things at a time (alas, the majority of the author's students), they appreciate relationship rather than punctuality and seldom meet the deadlines.

When a polychronic teacher asks the students to answer their homework one by one in a language class and tells the rest of the class to do another exercise at the same time, monochronics will feel frustrated.

Communication practices can be determined by ethnic cultural rules of behaviour as well. A female student from one of the Caucasian republics refused to answer in seminars and was nearing mid-term failure. When the teacher asked her for an explanation after classes she said that in their culture young women were not supposed to speak publicly in the presence of unfamiliar men – her fellow-students. The problem was that she had chosen a public profession. While working in pairs or in small groups, Caucasian students tend to seek leadership. If there are two or more Caucasian male students in the class, there may be a conflict of interests. A first-year Chechen male student was genuinely bewildered and frustrated when three female students got higher grades for the first-in-term test. He was a well brought up young man but his academic success ran contrary to his social and gender status as he perceived it. The fact that his academic status turned out to be lower than his social status led to an inner personal cultural conflict as he was not ready to face this socio-cultural challenge. This is a mixture of how masculine culture, ethnic practices and gender roles manifest themselves in the classroom.

Individualist culture students prefer to work at their own projects, while collectivist cultures are prone to develop the project in a team. More often than not, an 'individualist' student will refrain from speaking first, thinking that others will do it more eagerly (Barieva, 2017, p. 301). If the lecturer asks a Kalmyk and a Moldavian to work at a project together, they may find the situation uneasy and the result will be less effective, if not a complete failure. Individualist culture students, often with traits of high universalism (*dura lex sed lex*), will refuse

to let other students copy their homework or test, and that may lead to misunderstanding and even conflicts in the class. As Russians profess particularism (mearning that rules can be altered or broken if necessary), they find it difficult and even funny to learn that the Russian word *списывать* has no English equivalent.

Representatives of all Russia's cultures that were considered in the study profess high power distance and tend to treat their elders and administration with respect. That is why the staff are often revered. They respect other people's social status, obey their bosses and do not question what the teacher says. For them, education is teacher-oriented. That is why, the students expect the teacher to assess their knowledge and grade the answers. Low power distance cultures consider education as student-oriented. That is why the students expect the teacher to teach them critical thinking and ask for their opinion while assessing knowledge is seen as a hindrance to creativity (Kahl, 2013, p. 2611). Thus, cultural classifications and psychology do not only describe the two existing models of teacher-student relationship, but show that the teacher-oriented model is a culturally determined phenomenon and not the heritage of 'totalitarian regime' as it is sometimes claimed to be.

5. CONCLUSION

It is evident that cultural differences may lead to misunderstanding between communicants. In certain cases, the cultural clash may create barriers in academic communication and provoke intercultural conflicts between students as well as misunderstanding between students and lecturers. The success of teacher-student relationships in the multicultural space of modern university is largely determined by the teacher's readiness to consider the characteristics of cross-cultural psychology. It is hardly possible that teachers should be aware of all the subtleties of various cultures, but in the multi-ethnic education space it is imperative to expose the faculty to the types and specifics of the cultures students belong to in order to prevent communication failures. That will help to break barriers and promote intercultural communication.

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Original Research

Anglicisms and loanwords: The contribution of English exemplified by contemporary Italian tourist terminology

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The English language has enriched Italian with numerous words and expressions that complement existing Italian lexis. Many linguists perceive the extent of English influence as a potentially overwhelming and dangerous tendency. However, the percentage of English lexis in Italian remains relatively low if compared to the language's overall structure and is noticeable mostly in the sphere of politics, pop culture, mass media, journalism, sport and tourism. Borrowing is regarded as one of the major means of enriching language vocabulary that often engulfs foreign elements in its structural patterns. The adaptation process incorporates the borrowed structure as a natural part of the borrowing language. This study attempts to examine and exemplify in chronological order the progressive development of such an influence demonstrating modifications and nomenclature of English loanwords in the qualitative and quantitative aspects. The key findings are exemplified by contemporary tourist terminology.

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper attempts to analyse the impact of the English language on Italian both in the linguistic perception and the influence of Anglo-American culture on the modern Italian language and society. Borrowing from a foreign language occurs either out of necessity or luxury, with the purpose of filling semantic or lexical gaps (lacunas) in the target language. Some of the borrowed terms do not have a corresponding word in the Italian language, while the majority exhibits the tendency to replace an existing or pre-existing Italian word. When a target language attempts to assimilate terms and expressions in order to bridge a semantic or lexical gap, borrowing out of necessity is commonly applied out of neccesity. This usually happens when a new object or a concept is introduced from another culture, language or country. For example, most IT words used in contemporary Italian or sport-related lexis originated from foreign countries. On the other hand, borrowing as a luxury may be applied to the words and expressions

from a foreign language or culture though the target language already has equivalent terms perfectly expressing the same concept, e.g. words such as *weekend, display, babysitter, manager* are widely used instead of their Italian equivalents *fine settimana*, *schermo, bambinaia* and *dirigente*, correspondingly. Lately, there has been observed an ever-growing trend in excessive unjustified use of English borrowings in contemporary Italian, in particular among government officials, ministers and experts at various levels of authority. They unceremoniously use the words like *review, jobs act, devolution, spending* or *stepchild adoption* when these terms can be clearly expressed by the Italian words *revisione, legge sul lavoro, devoluzione, adozione de figlio*, respectively (Burke, 2006, p. 108).

To introduce the topic and give a social, cultural and political background of the linguistic exchange between English and Italian languages, we commence our study with the coverage of the interlanguage contact in historical perspective. To give a general overview, the profound exposure to the English language commenced after World War II, and has led to the expansion of the Italian vocabulary as well as syntactic changes in economic and business spheres.

This paper tries to examine and exemplify in chronological order the progressive development of such an influence demonstrating modifications and nomenclature of English loanwords in their qualitative and quantitative aspects.

From the linguistic perspective, the starting point is to make a comparative analysis of both languages in terms of phonological and writing systems. Speaking of the morphological level, the study considers the additions brought into Italian lexis mainly through borrowing, paying further attention to the process of loanword incorporation, where applicable. Lexical blending in Italian could be seen as a conscious wordplay comprising ongoing processes of contact-induced language change. The numerous forms of blending include borrowings, adaptations, hybrid blends, pseudo-Anglicisms, foreign-sounding word formations, and others (Görlach, 2001, p. 35).

The previous studies have also shown that the patterns of English borrowing in contemporary written Italian vary on a regional basis and give a picture of their geographical distribution (Asnaghi, 2017, p. 128).

The effect of English can be noticed on a syntactic level as well, especially in certain areas such as the economy and business. Syntactic changes are most vividly manifested in casual youth jargon, everyday conversations and media. Anglicisms are thoughtfully picked to attract the attention of the readers, viewers or listeners in the spheres of marketing and journalism, while the greatest influence is clearly observed in politics, technology, science, sport, tourism and culture. To sum up, English lexis could be found in all social Italian strata, which makes the English language the most influential as a source of borrowing.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The object of the study is Anglicisms (borrowed or loan words) and lexical neologisms with the borrowed elements that are widespread in the lexis of the Italian tourist industry. The main sources of material are the official Italian website on tourism, the websites of Italian travel agents, travel sections of the online version of the Italian periodical *La Repubblica*, travel online resource *Tripadvisor*, the corpus of Italian language, as well as the course book *La Guida Turistica* by Giorgio Castoldi (Castoldi, 2012) recommended for the undergraduate students majoring in tourism. This material was used to analyse Anglicisms in contemporary Italian tourism terminology, and the peculiarities of their phonetic, orthographic and morphological assimilation. Evaluation and analysis of the data were backed by quantitative methods of research that helped present systematically the information obtained.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
3.1. English-Italian language contact in its historical overview

Linguistically speaking, the Italian language is considered a member of the Italic subfamily of the Romance group, i.e. it is a romance language, spo-

ken mainly in the Italian peninsula, San Marino, Corsica, Sicily, the southern part of Switzerland, in the north of Sardinia, part of Croatia, and due to the 20th century immigration wave, in North and South America, though the Italian-speaking community there is not very numerous.

Italian could be seen as a direct offspring of the Latin language obviously imposed by the Romans throughout their dominion. However, despite its similarity with other Romance languages, Italian has the strongest resemblance to Latin of all the major Romance languages. Following the reunification of Italy in 1861, Italian is regarded as one language comprising many different dialects that have sprung up during its long language evolution. Throughout its history, the diversity of dialects has always presented a difficulty when selecting a particular version reflecting the entire peninsula in its cultural entity. In the 10th century, the earliest written documents were produced in dialects, and throughout subsequent centuries, this tendency has prevailed and has created a number of literature schools competing in their skills in native dialects.

The English language, as an effective mediator, has not only produced 'native' English words diffused into Italian, but also created some foreignisms and lexical items, i.e. terms used by the inhabitants of the former British colonies, neologisms retaining Greek and Latin morphology and roots, and – last but not least – internationalisms. English also served as a productive and fertile source of new borrowings thanks to the surrounding linguistic policy and the unique structure of English vocabulary.

During many centuries, English has continued the adoption and assimilation of words from diverse languages and has been always prone to external impact, predominantly French and Latin. The presence of Romance elements in English is also essential and cannot be neglected. Vulgar Latin, a form of spoken Latin, with the course of time, evolved into the Italian language, however, numerous regional variants of the vulgar speech have developed into the vast number of Italian dialects existing nowadays.

In the 14th century, domination of the Tuscan dialect in the Italian language was observed due to Tuscany's central position and the aggressive commerce carried out by Florence, its most significant and influential city. More to say, the Tuscan dialect, out of all the Italian dialects, retains the greatest resemblance to morphology and phonology with the classical Latin language, synchronising best with the Italian traditions of Latin culture. Eventually, Florentine heritage gave the world culture Dante Alighieri, Petrarch and Boccaccio, who best summed up the Italian culture and thought of the early Renaissance period.

La Questione della Lingua, or the 'question of the language', engrossed writers of all persuasions in their attempt to codify the language and to establish linguistic norms. During the 15th and 16th centuries, grammarians conferred upon the syntax, vocabulary and pronunciation of the Tuscan dialect the status of classic Italian speech. Finally, this classical approach has been widened to insert some organic changes inevitable in a living tongue and has not converted Italian into another dead language. Compromises between classical purism and living Tuscan usage were successfully implemented in the dictionaries and publications of the year 1583. However, the most important literary event of that time did not occur in Florence but in Venice. Influenced by the creations of the modern classics of Petrarch and Boccaccio, the Venetian, Pietro Bembo (1470-1547), set out his proposals (*Prose della volgar lingua*) for standardisation of the language and style.

With the course of time, promotion of the regional variant originated in Florence by famous scholars, academicians and poets has led to constructing a language common for the Italian territories. That is exactly the language we know today as standard Italian or *Italiano Standard*, i.e. the language created by the classical poets and scholars for establishing, unifying and synchronising grammar rules. Despite its roots in Vulgar Latin, standard Italian is considered a fully-fledged language of literature and the arts and then a national language following the consolidation of different states of the Italian peninsula into the Kingdom of

'Vast and rapid development of trade, technology and craftsmanship served as another principal factor in language contact as new products and cutting-edge inventions had to be named somehow. Here, commerce steps in as one of the major reasons for borrowing.'

Italy (*risorgimento*, meaning 'resurgence') in 1861. The process of unification commenced with the revolution of 1848, which was inspired by rebellions in the 1820s and 1830s and was completed when Rome became the official capital of the Kingdom. This event had a profound impact not only on the political scene but led to dramatic social, economic and cultural transformation. The literacy rate increased immensely with the introduction of compulsory schooling, and many native speakers abandoned their dialect in favour of the national language.

Not surprisingly, a large part of the Italian vocabulary can be traced back to Latin roots. At the same time, the results of previous studies (Cacchiani, 2016, p. 320) have demonstrated that neolatinisms came from other languages, such as English and French, and can be detected by their phonological form, or appeared by means of linguistic reconstruction of Latin. Comparing pairs of Italian and English words, one can observe the similarities of forms and meanings, so-called true pairs. However, it might be interesting to look at some illustrative examples of how the words' meanings could be confused due to misleading similarities in two languages. Occurrences of false friends and wrong semantic interpretation could impose some difficulties for translators and lead to communication breakdown. Ferguson (1994, p. 118) emphasises that *'accurate translation, as well as the proper appreciation of advanced Italian texts, hinge on the confident handling of the key words'*. He illustrates this statement with the examples such as *attuale* ('present, 'topical', never 'actual') and *eventuale* ('possible' but not 'eventual'), being false friends of

the English words resembling them in form. In a similar way, translating the English *luxurious* with the Italian expression *lussurioso* would be committing a big faux pas. In this case, the correct translation would be *lussuoso* but not *lussurioso*, which has the same meaning as English *lascivious*. Some vivid examples of wrong semantic interpretation and false friends' occurrences will be illustrated later in the current analysis.

Throughout world history, cross-influence of the languages developed as an inevitable phenomenon. With the invention of writing, the analysis of such an influence has become easier. Geographic proximity of neighbouring interacting countries has had a significant impact on the systematic influence of one language on another. In its essence, language is regarded as a means of conveying and codifying messages, and with the invention of writing, storing and codifying information across space and time has become more practical. This opinion explains the primary cause and the nature of borrowing as cross-influence is not intrinsically an intrusive occurrence. If a language is studied as an extension of a society, researching the spread of language we can identify the amount of prestige it may bring to its users. Vast and rapid development of trade, technology and craftsmanship served as another principal factor in language contact as new products and cutting-edge inventions had to be named somehow. Here, commerce steps in as one of the major reasons for borrowing.

Launching new products and naming them could have two possible outcomes: the society created a product and is attempting to name it in its own native language; or the name is borrowed from a more powerful and influential language, e.g. English, in order to reach a much wider audience of consumers. The borrowing language is most likely to ultimately adopt a foreign word if it has no lexical units to express new notions or objects. In the course of time, this borrowed word can establish itself as a native item functioning in compliance with the rules of the borrowing language and can sound natural to native speakers. In the words of Görlach (2001, p. 89), *'loanwords*

from English can be integrated beyond recognition or lost altogether'. The second scenario comes on the scene when an appropriate semantic translation can be found which substitutes for the foreign word. As a result, the lending language fills the gap in the semantic inventory of the borrowing language and enriches it in this manner. This type of borrowing cannot be described as invasive from the pragmatic-linguistic perspective as a native term does not exist in a language.

Even though Italian and English have been in contact since the 13th century, this exchange was not so fruitful for either nation until the 18th century and after the World War II. The only scarce early linguistic exchange was reflected in the appearance of such words as *sterlino,* for 'pound sterling'. This word could be traced in the earliest documents accompanying contact and trade between diplomats and merchants.

Historical works are another invaluable source for Anglicisms comprising cultural and political terminology. Here are some examples listed in *Enciclopedia dell'Italiano*: *parlamento* (from the English 'parliament'), *coronatore* (from the English 'coroner'), *alto tradimento* (transformed by means of calquing from the English 'high treason'). English borrowings commenced their permanent embedding in the Italian language only in the 18th century. Moreover, the Industrial Revolution and later on the American Revolution facilitated the spread of English-American influence. Before the 18th century, English was treated mostly as a barbaric language by the Italian nobility. However, the situation dramatically changed when many Italian intellectuals and academicians started travelling to England. This led to the emergence of a new phenomenon called *anglomania* in English or *l'anglomania* in Italian, referring to excessive admiration of English customs. This historical period is characterised by the numerous translations of major works from English literature into Italian, and the urgent need to possess good command of English for commercial purposes. Another interesting factor that contributed to the sudden growth of English language popularity was the appearance of bilingual dictionaries, e.g. Giuseppe Baretti's (Italian literary critic, poet, writer, translator, linguist and author of two influential language-translation dictionaries) bilingual dictionary, which was reissued six times in the 18th century.

Nevertheless, throughout the 18th and 19th centuries, an extensive corpus of borrowings came into Italian not directly from English but through the French language (Sergio, 2014, p. 167). This could be explained by the dominance of French as the most influential foreign language on the Italian territory until 1945, when it was victoriously dethroned by English. Still, the 18th century is regarded as the period when the first true English borrowings started to become embedded into Italian. These so-called angolatinisms represented easily integrated calques from the political sphere, such as *autodeterminazione* ('self-determination'), *coalizione* ('coalition'), *comitato* ('committee'), *legislatura* ('legislation'), *opposizione* ('opposition'), *senso commune* ('common sense'), and many others.

Another major sphere of borrowings in this historical period relates to commerce and navigation and could be exemplified by the words *biglietto di banco* ('bank cheque'), *importare* ('to import'), *brick* ('brick'), *cutter* ('cutter'). Due to the rise of mass media, many loan words appeared in the sphere of communication, news and everyday life, namely *bar*, *manager*, *dandy*, *fashion*, *festival*, *boss,* s*cout, camping, shopping, gangster, killer,* etc.

Notably, the borrowed word 'manager' originated from the verb 'to manage' that appeared in the English language in 1560s, with the meaning 'to handle, train, or direct (a horse)', from the now-obsolete noun 'manage' (a modern revival of it is *manege*), from Italian *maneggio*, from *maneggiare* meaning 'to handle, touch, to control a horse'. The latter ultimately can be traced back to the Latin noun *manus* ('hand').

3.2. The new pipeline for word borrowing

New technological advancements and scientific inventions that had to be named were adopted into the Italian language. The examples are numerous, such as *locomotiva* ('locomotive'), *vagone* ('wagon'), *tunnel, cargo, ferry, yacht, bus, cinema,*

cartoni animati ('cartoons'), *film*, *cast*. Especially fruitful was the semantic area of sport that was enriched by the words *goal, cross, dribbling, fuori gioco* (calque from 'offside'), *ring, knock-out, tennis, derby, outsider* and many others.

However, the period of extensive borrowing ceased in the wake of the First World when the Italian Fascist Party led by Benito Mussolini came to power. This period of Italian history is described as an era of linguistic purism when any foreign elements were deemed unnecessary and excessive or corrupting the Italian language. The policy imposed by the Fascist regime was to 'cleanse' the language and to replace all borrowed words by Italian equivalents, e.g. *gioco* or *ludo* instead of 'sport'. However, this attempt ultimately failed as the newly invented replacements and substitutions never caught on in actual practical use regardless of the hefty fines that people would have faced for their usage.

The dominance of the French language has declined gradually since World War I and following the economic boom of the 1950s, English has prevailed as the most influential foreign language on the Italian territory (Pulcini, 2019, p. 130). Later on, when the USA had gained economic supremacy and the political power, the diffusion of American English has facilitated the spread of ideas and cultural influence, in particular in the youth and pop culture sphere. The boost for intercultural contacts occurred when Italy joined the international organisations such as NATO and the EU, with the USA and the UK as the most powerful and influential members in both organisations. The phenomenon of this historical stage in the development of language contacts is quite specific, as it includes not only the elite of the society but all the social strata.

The effect has been amplified by the development of cutting-edge technology and scientific advance as English has become the means of communication and information diffusion. In the most recent wave of borrowing, the most noticeable proliferation of Anglicisms has occurred in the spheres of information technology, marketing, politics and sports (Laviosa, 2007, p. 124). This phenomenon had taken place in most European languages and has led to the appearance of various forms of the so-called 'pseudo-English', e.g. Chinglish, Franglais, and Itangliano. The Italian version, sometimes referred to as *Italiese*, is a form of simplified or corrupted English used by Italian native speakers. Many linguists (see e.g. Vettorel, 2013, p. 270) consider the use of *Italiese* largely condemned, as the frequent excessive use of mispronounced words is regarded as unnecessary exhibitionism, in particular in mass media, social networks and journalism.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS
4.1. Expanding the Italian lexis by means of borrowing

Many linguists consider lexis or vocabulary as the backbone of a language. At the same time, this part of language is greatly affected by outside influence providing the link from the human's mind to the external world while grammar, being a crucial part of language, is much more rigid in form and, as a result, more resistant to the impact of foreign languages. Moreover, grammar is the least conscious and the most habitual part of language. However, this scenario does not work for foreign learners taking their first steps in language acquisition. In their understanding, grammar appears automatically to some degree when certain patterns of language reproduction have been internalised and the ideas have been conceptualised.

Changes into Italian grammatical construction do exist in certain registers; however, they represent only a miniscule part. To sum up, while lexis links words and the real world, grammar regulates the relations between words. The situation with phonology related to the native language reproduction patterns is very similar. While introduction of new phonemes is present in some cases, nevertheless, it occurs rarely.

The term 'borrowing' is widely used to describe the adopting of linguistic structures aimed at expansion of the language vocabulary. Borrowing could be seen as an attempt to reproduce patterns previously found in another language (Sobrero & Miglietta, 2006, p. 254).

It is worth mentioning that reproduction is rarely done perfectly thanks to contradictions between the graphological and phonological systems of the languages in contact. This phenomenon is manifested when comparing the English and Italian language systems. This process is described by some linguists (see e.g. Cacchiani, 2016) as adaptation or transportation, when the speakers attempt to use borrowed linguistic structures typical of a foreign language but uncommon or just non-existent in their mother tongue. Borrowing also demonstrates how by filling up the gaps it enables the creation of new vocabulary patterns and items in the borrowing language.

4.2. Classification of the Anglicisms related to tourist terminology

The lexical items we have researched relating directly to the tourism industry could be divided into the following thematic subgroups (Table 1):

Table 1

Classification of tourism-related borrowings

NO.	CATEGORY	EXAMPLES
1	Notions and terms describing individual or group accommodation	hotel, motel, B&B, hostel, spa, bungalow, resort, reception, all inclusive
2	Means of transport, carriers and passengers transportation	charter, voli low-coster, business class, il check-in, connection time, duty free, eurocity, il pullman, intercity, hostess, jet, lo shuttle, ticket, autobus, minibus, lounge, car sharing, backpacking, car pooling
3	Notions and terms associated with meals and catering facilities	American breakfast, catering, il cocktail, il welcome-drink, self-service, happy hour, lo snack, fast food, bar, slow food, continental breakfast, banqueting, party, reception, il minibar, il bartender, la barmaid
4	Notions and terms related to sport, recreation and leisure	Il mountain bike, la canoe, fare tarzaning, il trekking, praticare numerosi sport outdoor, il birdwatching, city sightseeing, kayak, il rafting, lo shopping, special event, banana boot, yacht, race, lo hiking, surfing
5	Travel agent services	Online booking, package tour, tour operator, city package, travel agent

4.3. The principal types of assimilation of Anglicisms in the Italian language

In this section, the main types of loanwords assimilation are considered, such as phonetic, orthographic and morphological (grammatical) assimilation (Trifone & Palermo, 2014, p. 278).

Phonetic assimilation plays the most insignificant role seeing that many English phonemes are pronounced in a similar manner to Italian ones, for instance [æ] > [ɛ] (*snack*), [æ] > [a] (*fan, manager*); [ʌ] > [a] (*fast food, transfer*). The consonant 's' at the beginning of the word preceding a voiced consonant is always vocalised, as in *snowboard* ['znobɔrd], *slogan* ['zlɔgan]. Another specific feature of Italian phonetics is the absence of reduction, therefore usually reduced vowels and consonants (phonemes expressed by the letters 'r', 'ng', 'e') are pronounced very clearly, e.g. *boarding pass* ['bɔrding], *tarzaning* ['tardzaning]. Some Anglicisms retain their spelling but they are to be read according to the Italian pronunciation rules, i.e. *reception* [re'tʃepʃon], *receptionist* [re'tʃepʃon ist]. Italian 'h' does not correspond to any sound, and this rule is also applied to the borrowed words: *hotel* [o'tɛll], *hostess* ['ɔstes].

Orthographic assimilation occurs very rarely as both contact languages are based on the Latin alphabet. In the materials studied, only two cases of

orthographic assimilation have been identified, as in *mountain bike* which has been substituted by *mountain byke*.

In the TV advertisement of the 'all inclusive' tariff, the elderly TV-presenter recommends *scelga olìnclusiv* (the stress is on the second syllable). Then a male voice in the background gives comments on the tariff calling it *olinclùsiv* (the stress is on the third syllable). Mostly likely, advertisers have chosen the form with the third syllable stressed due to hypercorrection, as both in English *in-*

clusive [ɪn'clu:sɪv] and in Italian *inclusivo*, the stress is in on the second syllable from the end of the word.

The most popular type of assimilation is morphological (grammatical) one. Thus, it has always been of great interest for researchers. Considering the fact that in the English language the category of grammatical gender of nouns is absent, their morphological (grammatical) assimilation is implemented in correspondence with the following principles (Table 2):

Table 2

The principles of morphological (grammatical) assimilation

NO.	PRINCIPLE	EXAMPLES
1	The category is given as of co-referent word gender	il barman, la barmaid, il travelblogger / la travelblogger, la hostess
2	The category is given in accordance with the gender of hyperonym of the borrowed word	la banana boat (la barca) la email (la posta elettronica)
3	Suffixes and inflexions in the English borrowed words (usually masculine)	lo shopping, il hiking, il tarzaning, il rafting

In the process of adaptation, English verbs acquire some features of Italian regular verbs of the first conjugation. They are generally related to the Internet communication sphere and could be found on tourism websites, forums, blogs designated for sharing comments and reviews, e.g. *chattare* ('to chat'), *cliccare* ('to click'), *monitorare* ('to monitor'), *filmare* ('to film'), *postare* ('to post'). Ever more often one can come across the verb *piacciare* derived from *mi piace* ('to like', meaning to show that you think something is good on a social networking website by clicking on a symbol or the word 'like').

5. DISCUSSION

Loanwords can form compounds that never existed in English and become quite productive in the borrowing language. As mentioned above, the principal ways of grammatical assimilation are administered by adding suffixes or even lexical morphemes or so-called borderline suffixes. Thus, the use of the suffix –*man* is appropriate thanks to the

need to express agency in words that are mainly used in collocations but are not subject to derivation in English. The second element is rendered by the suffix –*man* in Italian, e.g. *barman* (130 search results in Corpus dell'Italiano), *salesman* (6 search results), *chairman* (66 search results), etc.

Another way of rendering the second element is by adding the suffix –*ista*, also denoting agency, e.g. *tassista* (340 search results). In the touristic terminology, the most frequent example is *barista* (519 search results) with quite a curious etymology reminding of a similar process with the word *manager*. *Barista* originated from the word *barman* obviously borrowed by Italian from English around 1908. However, in the 1940s, the word *barista* became widespread and gradually replaced the borrowed version. It is disputable that the initial Anglicism *barman* had undergone a process of Italianisation by means of morphological transformation, i.e. the English suffix was substituted by an authentic Italian equivalent. The second wave of popularity of the word *barista* was around 1990,

regardless of the change in the meaning. The example demonstrates how the impact of English language on Italian ultimately led to the reciprocal effect of Italian influencing English. Finally, the word *barista* has become international and is popular all over the world thanks to globalisation.

Words of a language different from English are often pronounced or spelt as though they were truly English. This phenomenon has led to the appearance of the so-called pseudo-English words, i.e. non-English words by origin but created from English morphemes. These words should not be confused with false friends that do exist in English, but possess a different main meaning between English and Italian. As far as the entertainment industry is concerned, a good example is the Italian word for *the joker* in a pack of cards – *il jolly* (259 search results). Throughout the 19th century, the English word for this was the *jolly joker*, but as time went by, the Italians dropped the second part and native English speakers dropped the first one.

Also the word *afterhour* bearing the acquired meaning 'until well after the sun comes up' seems rather odd to English ears. For example: *Nello stesso periodo scrive per il disco di Roberto Dellera (bassista del gruppo after hour) il singolo AMI LEI AMI ME che riceve l'attenzione di moltissime radio e sempre per lui compone i testi di alitri brani contenuti nel disco di prossima uscita.*

A relatively significant transformation occurs in English compound borrowed words as well. In Italian, formation of words via the compounding method (*parole composte*) is less frequent than English, as in *telecommando, telespettatori, autostrada*. In addition to this, in English the common pattern is a modifier accompanied by the head noun. On the contrary, in Italian it is noun + modifier, as in *fermacarta* ('paperweight'), or *pastasciutta* ('dried pasta'). Therefore, the latter component of English compound words could be wrongly taken for a modifier that results in the head noun being omitted or eliminated. Thus, the lexis is enriched with such words as *dancing* instead of *dancing hall* (102 search results), *parking* instead of *parking lot* (31 search results), *night* instead of *night club* (264 search results).

'Having studied the specifics of borrowed words assimilation into the newest tourist terminology, we have concluded that English loanwords are blended and adopted according to the norms of contemporary Italian language, while the mechanism of Anglicisms' activation is based on the interaction between referring words of the recipient language and their equivalent and hyperonyms'

6. CONCLUSION

The unprecedented influx of Anglicisms into the contemporary Italian language and the subsequent influence on Italian lexis has revealed the issues connected with the structural assimilation of those loan words. Once the loanword has travelled beyond the restricted province of the individuals having a proficient command of English pronunciation and grammar, there comes the problem of how it can function in the framework of the phonological and morphological systems of the Italian language.

Having studied the specifics of borrowed words assimilation into the newest tourist terminology, we have concluded that English loanwords are blended and adopted according to the norms of contemporary Italian language, while the mechanism of Anglicisms' activation is based on the interaction between referring words of the recipient language and their equivalent and hyperonyms.

Notably, the use of borrowed words, especially from English, is more about sounding cool, openminded, global and international rather than filling a linguistic gap between the two languages (Variano, 2018, p. 270). Excessive use, if not abuse, of Anglicisms in the contemporary Italian language seems unjustified in the majority of cases as substituting existing words with loanwords leaves an overwhelming majority of Italians (84% as concerns English) in the dark. The average number of Italians speaking proficient enough English accounts for only 16% of the population.

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Original Research

Company naming strategies in the Italian interior design industry

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The study focuses on naming etymology and semantics used by Italian interior design companies (manufacturers of furniture, light fixtures and accessories), represented in the Russian market. This involved examining the extent to which the names of Italian interior design companies corresponded to the established naming practices of companies, identifying the strategies used therein, as well as developing a classification of names based on etymological and semantic analysis. The most common naming strategies were grouped into four categories that appear the most productive: Proper Nouns (54.4% of all names studied), Words and Phrases in Everyday Use (26.6%), Abbreviations (13.1%), and Geographical Names (5.9%). The research outcome will be the identification of the most efficient way of naming companies in the interior design industry, as well as a linguocultural analysis of the most frequently used types of names. The analysis of the material offers the opportunity to speculate on the relevance of national identity to the process of design company naming.

KEYWORDS: *naming, branding, marketing, interior design, Italian*

1. INTRODUCTION

In the early 21st century, the number of Italian companies manufacturing furniture, light fixtures, and other interior design objects has been estimated to exceed 36,000. The modern-day design industry is comprised of a wide range of enterprises: engineering companies, architectural firms, design studios, furniture and lighting stores as well as factories and craft workshops that produce interior design objects. Italy's interior design industry provides over 231,000 jobs, playing an important role in the state's economy (Lojacono, 2007, p. 11-29).

In 1979, Italy became the world's number one exporter of furniture and interior design objects, a status which it held till 2003. After that there followed a dip in export volume, with another surge starting in 2006. The main export category of the Italian interior design industry is furniture (78%), followed by light fixtures (13%), and other accessories (9%). Russia is one of Italy's main trade partners and was the fourth largest export market in 2015 for Italian interior design goods after Germany, France and the United States (ICE, 2020). In 2005, in response to requests from the traditional

participants in Milanese trade fairs, *Federlegno-Arredo* and *Cosmit* joined forces in order to present a group of Milanese fair products on several foreign markets, including Russia. This initiative, dubbed *iSaloni WorldWide*, led to highly successful trade fairs in New York and later in Moscow.

Another indicator of success is the growing number of visitors at the *iSaloni WorldWide* trade fair in Moscow, which includes many designers, architects, and furniture and interior design specialists. *Cosmit* puts the total number of visitors in 2005 at 13,199. By 2008, the number had more than doubled, with a total of 28,748 visitors. Such a positive dynamic is yet another sign of the constantly growing interest in Italian design, which is considered by Russian consumers to be an example of high standards of quality.

Manufacturing enterprises form the basis of the interior design industry, and a comprehensive study of their names from a linguistic and historical perspective can be a rich source of data that provides insight into the Italian national identity. This study will not discuss the commercial success of individual companies, since that is a topic for market research, and will instead focus on the linguistic component of company names in all their diversity.

Italian companies account for the majority of interior design industry enterprises, and as such have to maximise the distinctiveness of their brand names to ensure they are recognisable and memorable in both domestic and international interior design markets (Bhat & Reddy, 1998). Research in the field of naming strategies is relevant because it provides the opportunity to monitor whether a linguistic (usually etymological or semantic) component can, on its own, become an effective tool for branding and marketing and, by extension, for the company's success on the market (Bhat & Reddy, 2001). In other words, the subject matter of this article is the analysis of the linguistic component as manifested in a particular professional field in a certain country during a particular period of time – namely, in the Italian interior design industry from 2000 to 2010. The purpose of the study is to highlight the distinctive features of names used by Itali-

an businesses in the interior design industry during the aforementioned period. This aim dictates addressing the following objectives: establishing the key linguistic strategies for company naming in the Italian interior design industry during the above-mentioned period, and determining and justifying the most productive company naming strategy. The hypothesis of the study states that national identity is relevant to naming design businesses: in theory, naming has to follow the general branding and marketing laws of the international market targeted at the average global consumer, in addition to being culturally neutral (Keller, 2013).

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Humankind had been inventing names since the dawn of its existence, yet there was no theory that would explain the process until the early 20th century. Technological breakthroughs, expansion of production, scientific development, growing competition as well as an increasing interest in human psychology and ways of influencing it – all these factors eventually enabled the development of naming theory in 1976 in the US. In general terms, it can be defined as the creation and giving of names to new products, services, brands, and companies (Sood & Keller, 2012).

Naming is the art of defining and embellishing an object in as few words as possible. It is also the science of finding a memorable and attractive name in order to position the object in the consciousness of the consumer in a particular way (Makkar & Yap, 2018). Nowadays, naming has become a separate field of research, which includes elements of linguistics, psychology, marketing, and other sciences.

Finding a striking and effective name is important both for emerging enterprises and new brands launched by established companies. Of all the characteristic features of a company, its name will be the first to elicit an emotional response from the consumer, and if that response is 'correct', then the name itself – and the product and its producer – will be sure to achieve success and better competitive performance (Grewal et al., 1998). Furthermore, names provide legal protec-

tion for products, services and companies, and play an important role in market promotion and effective communication with international partners (Chen & Bei, 2018).

In modern times, naming theory has become an area of great interest for a wide range of researchers. New naming methodologies are being developed, books and articles on the essence of naming are being published, existing names are being analysed, and strategies for effective name creation are being suggested. However, the goal of professional naming as a creative science is the creation of names themselves. It is a creative science and not simply an act of creating, because a name must not only be striking and memorable, but must also reflect the essence of what it represents (Myung-Soo, 2007). A name is not created on a whim, but is developed through the joint efforts of psychologists, linguists and marketing experts. Only then will it not simply sound nice, but also reflect the nature of the product and the philosophy of the company (Bao et al., 2008).

The Latin expression *Nomen est omen* epitomises the significance of naming. The information that a word carries is reflected on a number of levels: mental and emotional, conscious and subconscious. Apart from its direct meaning and emotional and stylistic connotations, a word also has history (etymology), structure (morphology), and aesthetics (euphony, graphics, rhythm). All these details are factored in when creating a company or product name. Associative fields also play a role in the naming process (Botton et al., 2002; Keller, 2013).

As for the linguistic criteria for choosing a company name, these can be divided into two types: phonetic criteria and semantic criteria. Within the phonetic criterion of naming, the word in question is examined from the perspective of its phonemes, the speech mechanisms involved in producing them, and how they correspond to the phonetic structure of a particular language. According to the phonetic criterion, a name should be easy to pronounce and be in line with the phonetic structures of the language, meaning it should consist of syllables set together in a fashion typical of the

'A name is not created on a whim, but is developed through the joint efforts of psychologists, linguists and marketing experts. Only then will it not simply sound nice, but also reflect the nature of the product and the philosophy of the company'

language in question (Dwivedi & McDonald, 2018). This naming parameter is also defined as the psycholinguistic naming criterion: any combination of sounds will evoke in the recipient a set of associations with the source of the sounds and their meaning. Associations between certain sounds and corresponding meanings are mostly stable and definable. The sound of the word should not produce any negative associations or emotions – a requirement that is especially relevant for made-up names (Lowrey & Shrum, 2007). For instance, traditional phonetic stereotypes suggest that the presence of vowels (especially *a* and *i*) is pleasing to the ear. It is preferable to avoid sibilants and the sound *r* – these convey a sense of alarm and threat. Names that start with the letters *C, S,* and *B* are seen as traditional and classic, whereas the letters *X, Z, Q,* and *V* have more of an innovative air. Moreover, the letters *L, V, F,* and *W* are perceived as feminine, whereas *X, M,* and *Z* tend to be associated with masculinity. These are only a few of the conclusions that experts at the brand naming company *Strategic Name Development* had come to in their research (Kapoor & Heslop, 2009). Their experiments showed how associations created by certain sound combinations influenced text perception. Phonosemantic analysis of words and texts is the cornerstone of the modern-day approach to naming theory. Thus, the phonetic criterion has to do with the unconscious descriptive associations evoked by the sound of the word (Fenko et al., 2016).

The lexical (denotative) criterion for choosing a company name directly involves the meaning of a word, seeing as a name requires a certain semantic image. In the naming process, all established

meanings of a word are uncovered, and if even one of those definitions does fit the idea that the creators want to attach to the name, that word will get turned down. That is the semantic aspect of the lexical naming criterion. Etymological dictionaries must also be consulted, since the meanings of words tend to change over time, and their original meaning might not be found in modern dictionaries any more. That is the etymological aspect of the lexical (denotative) naming criterion (Arora et al., 2015).

The third important aspect of the lexical (denotative) naming criterion is the associative aspect. A brand manager must examine which associations the new name produces. The main goal of such an analysis is to ascertain that there are no negative associations in play. It is also important to avoid unnecessary associations that do not relate to the key values of the target audience (Francis et al., 2002).

The name of a company is also important for entering the international market and for its global development, which is why the process of creating a new name goes together with the concepts of internationalism and cross-cultural communication (Candi et al., 2017). The same words or sound combinations can have varying connotations depending on the country and culture, which is why an important part of the naming process is making sure that the name in question does not evoke any negative or inimical associations. A poorly chosen name can have a devastating effect on business, alienating both consumers and potential partners.

The theoretical basis for this research relies on a number of publications on branding (Botton et al., 2002; Keller, 2013). According to their studies, the most widespread naming strategies are based on the use of neologisms, words in everyday use, proper nouns and geographical names, borrowings from other languages, abbreviations, alliterations, onomatopoeia, analogies, metonymies, compounds (word blending), oxymorons, and metaphors.

Naming through neologisms means using words that do not actually exist in the language. The main advantage of this method is that these

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words have no previous 'history', no established meaning, allowing the owners of the company to imbue these words with whatever meaning they choose (Rahman, 2013). This strategy is not without drawbacks: a word with an established meaning can be more easily memorised, whereas a neologism still needs meaning. To come up with a suitable neologism, one will have to consider the principles of word formation in different languages to create a word that imitates a language and function within a unique context.

Words in everyday use are implemented to create names that reflect the company's line of business or the application area of the product. This naming strategy limits the consumers' associations and gives them direction.

Proper nouns and geographical names were a very popular naming strategy up until the early twentieth century. Before that, company owners had no need for unusual and original names – they would simply give the company their first or last names. This strategy underlined the idea of continuous family lineage – even with no actual descendants left, the family name would live on through the company name.

Old companies that are still on the market have, at some point, borne the names of their founders, and this naming strategy is among the most popular for modern companies as well. An undeniable advantage of proper names is that they instil trust and are associated with quality, with a real person and their life story (Michel & Donthu,

2014). When a company uses the last name of its owner, the consumer gets the impression that the owner is personally responsible for the quality of the product. However, there are also drawbacks to this naming strategy: firstly, such names can be hard to memorise, and secondly, if the company is sold, the name of the previous owner will no longer be a valid biographical reference (Fu et al., 2007).

As for geographical names, these are used when a company wants to denote the region of production, provided the current or historical location of the company can be used to the advantage of business. For example, *Fiuggi* mineral water reminds the consumer of the famed resort in central Italy, and the *Montblanc* brand, named after the highest mountain peak in Europe, is known as the leading producer of luxury writing implements.

If a name consists of a foreign word that is unknown to the customer, they will perceive it simply as a combination of sounds, regardless of its actual meaning. Perfume manufacturers often use borrowings from French in the names of their products, lending them an air of romance due to particular phonetic associations. Restaurants often choose names that will be associated with the type of cuisine that they serve. Another reason for using words from another language in company names is the desire to expand business beyond the domestic market (Samu & Krishnan, 2010). In this case, borrowings from English occur more often, since English is the current global Lingua Franca.

The use of abbreviations in the names of companies and products was rather fashionable in Europe in the 1960-70s, but this strategy can present serious flaws. Abbreviations are not always meaningful, or the meaning of the abbreviated words does transpire; oftentimes, abbreviations are simply difficult to memorise.

Alliteration is a naming strategy that involves the repetition of syllables or phonemes in order to create rhythm and rhyme (Lowrey & Shrum, 2007), making it easier to remember new words – an important feature for young companies. Examples of alliterative naming include *Criss Cross*, *Peg-Perego*, and many others.

Similar to alliteration is the onomatopoeic naming strategy, which uses already existing or made-up words whose sound is reminiscent of certain features of the product which the name denotes. Onomatopoeic names like *Schweppes* are rather widespread.

Naming by analogy basically involves using a well-known word, concept, or name without introducing any changes. Often these are names from myths or history, names of stars, archaic words, names of literary or movie characters, names of plants and animals, or simply euphonious words that evoke the appropriate associations (Del Rio et al., 2001).

Naming by adjacency, where a part is made to represent the whole or the whole is reduced to one of its parts, can be characterised as metonymical. Examples include wines that are named after their region of production, for instance, *Chianti* or *Valpolicella*.

The compound name strategy involves blending different parts of several words or adding part of a word onto another word by: adding roots or endings from old words to a root of a modern word; giving the root of a word affixes and/or endings from another language; blending existing words in order to create neologisms; blending semantic and phonetic elements; blending different parts of speech; blending morphologically different elements (e.g. a numeral and a part of a word) (Carrol, 1985).

An example of a rather effective use of the compound name strategy is the Swiss watch brand *Swatch*, whose name is a portmanteau of two parts of speech: the adjective *Swiss* and the noun *watch*.

Oxymorons – combinations of words with opposite meaning – are also used in the naming process, as in *True lies*.

Naming through metaphor involves using an established word or term in the name in order to attract attention to something new. Neologisms can also become metaphors, provided they are imbued with an easily inferable meaning. Examples of company names created by means of this strategy include *Coldrex, Dr. Mom,* and *Whirlpool*.

'The upsurge in the Italian furniture industry, along with a substantial increase in the number of large, small, and medium-sized companies operating in it, corresponds to the years of the Italian economic boom and the subsequent decade'

Thus, both linguistic and cultural factors need to be considered when developing a company name. This process follows a set of rules and conforms to one of the many naming strategies that modern-day naming theory has to offer. The process of naming will exhibit differing features depending on the particular sector of industry.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

This study aims is to examine the extent to which the names of Italian interior design companies correspond to the established naming practices of companies, to identify the strategies used therein, and to develop a classification of names based on etymological and semantic analysis. The classification proposed by Cellotto (2005), who studies Italian company names in a wide range of industries, has served as a foundation for our own nomenclature of interior design company names:

(1) proper names: last name (*Barilla*), first and last name (*Giorgio Armani*), mythological name (*Mercurio*), historic name (*Napoleone*), character name (*Ariel*), geographical name (*Montblanc*);

(2) words in everyday use: nouns (*Vespa*), adjectives (*Perugina*), verbs (*Nevica*), adverbs (*Avanti!*);

(3) words with no lexical meaning: pseudonames (*Xelion*), compound names (*Swatch*), onomatopoetic names (*Tic-tac*);

(4) composite names: short expressions (*Mangiaebevi*), mottos (*Forza Italia*), collocations (*Mulino Bianco*), compounds (*Palmolive*), adjective + geographical name (*Bella Napoli*), proper noun + common noun (*Acqua di Gio*);

(5) abbreviations (*FIAT*).

The study has used the following reference sources to analyse the names of Italian interior design companies:

(1) *iSaloni WorldWide Moscow* exhibition catalogues, with a complete list of exhibitors and links to homepages of Italian companies;

(2) *iSaloni Milano* exhibition catalogues;

(3) Italian Trade Agency (ICE) statistics and publications, which is responsible for promoting trade exchange and business cooperation between Italian and foreign companies;

(4) Italian interior design periodicals such as *AD*, *Interni*, *Abitare*, *BravaCasa*, *Showcase*, *Lightdesign*;

(5) information provided by the Italian National Institute of Statistics (Istat).

We were able to analyse 342 companies that manufacture furniture, light fixtures, fabrics, and other design accessories. Our selection criteria included the frequency with which a company is mentioned in Italian and Russian specialised periodicals, minimum ten years of participating in professional trade fairs in Italy as well as participation in major exhibitions in Russia including *MEBEL* and *iSaloni WorldWide*.

Using continuous material sampling and quantitative analysis (the figures are presented as percentages), we created a classification of naming strategies for Italian interior design companies. We have also conducted an etymological and semantic analysis of company names across the Italian design industry.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS

Over the centuries, furniture, light fixtures, and other interior design accessories in Italy have been primarily crafted by hand. As our analysis of Italian companies that are branch leaders and long-time participants in international exhibitions has demonstrated, only 9 out of 342 factories date back to the 19th century, such as *Modenese Gastone di Modenese Renzo e Francesco* (1818) or *BetaMobili* (1890). They are pioneers of the interior design industry in Italy, possessing traditions and secret manufacturing techniques handed down from father to son. Starting in small work-

shops where skilled craftsmen were manufacturing traditional hardwood furniture, lamps of brass or forged iron, curtains and lampshades made with pure fabrics, by the mid-twentieth century they had expanded into large-scale businesses, while preserving and reinforcing traditions of previous generations of skilled professionals (Lojacono, 2003).

The upsurge in the Italian furniture industry, along with a substantial increase in the number of large, small, and medium-sized companies operating in it, corresponds to the years of the Italian economic boom and the subsequent decade. 31.8% of factories reviewed in this study were founded in the 1960s; it is during this period that major companies such as *Passeri International* (1961), *Zanaboni* (1967), *Grande Arredo* (1969), *Swan Italia* (1963) and many others emerge. 22.3% of all businesses examined were created in the 1970s, also indicating an upswing. Such companies as *Flexform* (1970), *Poliform* (1970), *Provasi* (1978) were established during this decade. 18.2% of the companies examined have emerged over the last three decades. The economic upswing saw the formation of Italy's key manufacturing regions for furniture, light fixtures, and textiles, the leading ones being Tuscany (e.g. *Passeri International*, 1961), Lombardy (*Provasi*, 1980), and Veneto (*Casamania*, 1984). These three Italian regions account for 304 out of 342 Italian interior design companies that we have studied. This is due not only to their heritage, but also to their aggressive marketing policies.

Italian businesses have never turned to branding agencies to come up with company names, seeing as it was not common practice in Italy during the years when the most prominent interior design companies emerged. Names were suggested by their respective founders, and the most favourable option was to give the company their family name. Such names proved to be a good choice as they were familiar to everyone who knew the owner of the factory. At that point no consideration was given to how a family name would be pronounced in another language (Lojacono, 2003, p. 60).

The structure of the company name also became relevant. Generally, longer names are harder to memorise than those comprised of a single word (Bresciani & Del Ponte, 2017). According to our analysis, 33.4% of Italian interior design company names have only one word in them. Names that contain two words account for 34.1% of the total number of companies studied; the remaining 32.5% are names that have three or more words. Thus, these groups are effectively equal in the number of names in each. In our research, we did, however, encounter an interesting phenomenon: if a company's name is a combination of two or more parts, it is the shorter part (not necessarily the first part) that is more likely to be remembered and therefore reproduced in the course of communication. We can see full names in interior design magazines and on websites, for instance, *Riva Mobili d'arte*, but the name is shortened to *Riva* for marketing campaigns.

Analysing the denotative component of naming strategies, we had to modify the classification presented by Cellotto (2005), singling out the following naming categories: Proper Nouns, Geographical Names, Words and Phrases in Everyday Use, and Abbreviations. Firstly, the study only included companies bearing names of actual people in the Proper Nouns category and singled out Geographical Names as a separate naming type for the Italian interior design companies who find regional labelling important. We propose that the categories 'words in everyday use' and 'composite names' be merged into one group which we call Words and Phrases in Everyday Use, seeing as they vary in form, but not in substance, making use of the same naming methods. This group includes company names that do not have a proper noun in them. Moreover, we have found that the naming category 'names without lexical meaning', proposed by Cellotto (2005), is only seldom present in the interior design industry, so we do not place them in a specific group, but rather examine them as part of other naming strategies.

Naming via proper nouns is the most widely-used and versatile naming strategy among Italian interior design companies and is found in 54.4%

of all names studied. The branding practice of a company using a proper noun, singled out by Cellotto (2005) and others as the leading branding method, is one of the earliest and most common practices to date. The family name preserves traditions passed down from one generation to the next, so it is unsurprising that the same trend can be clearly traced among names of Italian interior design companies (Bresciani & Del Ponte, 2017).

Approximately one third of names with proper nouns contain the last name of the individual who opened a workshop for handling wood, iron, or glass several decades ago. Among the many examples are factories such as *Bernini, Scavolini, Zanotta,* and others. Factory names are created either by using only one last name or by combining two last names (*Tettamanzi e Erba*).

In some names of factories – for example, *Agostoni Figli di Isacco di Agostoni Marco* – we find the word *figli*, which means 'children'. This underlines the continuity of generations, a feature that is very important for Italians. Another group that stands out incorporates companies whose brand names use, alongside their last name, the word *fratelli*, i.e. 'brothers' – another important concept for Italians. Such names amount to 5% of all the company names studied herein (e.g. *Fratelli Allievi, Fratello Citterio*). The name in this case becomes a reflection of historical features, namely the fact that the company was founded by none other than brothers – relatives who preserve the secrets of craftsmanship within the (extended) family. Today, usually only family members work in factories that proudly bear the name *Fratelli*. Keeping production within the family is a characteristic feature of the Italian furniture industry as a whole.

The mid-20th century saw the appearance of a tendency to expand company names that include proper nouns. This is done by adding a word describing the company's line of work to the last name of the founder or current owner of the company (a pattern observed in 19.8% of names studied, e.g. *Pigoli Salotti, Bontempi Cucine, Poltrona Frau, Solari Illuminazione*). Adding a reference to the company's product makes the name of the manufacturer more specific and functional.

The words used to characterise a company's product or style are often borrowings from the English language (e.g. *Fendi Casa Club House Italia, Vismara Design, Facondini Contract & Home Division, Rugiano Interiors Decoration, Morelato Contemporary*). These examples demonstrate how the name of the founder acquires an 'international' connotation while remaining the main communicative element.

Thus, we have examined the Proper Nouns category that offers company names that inspire confidence in the consumer, infer quality and exclusivity, and suggest that the company is personally responsible for the hand-made product they sell.

In Cellotto's (2005) typology of names, the 'geographical names' naming strategy is merely a subdivision of the 'proper nouns' group. We, however, propose to classify it as a separate category, given how clearly it can be traced throughout the names of Italian companies in the interior design industry. 5.9% of all the company names that we have studied contain a geographical name that indicates the region or city in which the factory is located. Among the main approaches used to form this type of name are blending (*Pataviumart*), including borrowed words (*Florence Collection*), or combining a geographical name with another part of speech (*L'Antica Bassano, L'Antica Deruta*).

The second most productive naming strategy is Words and Phrases in Everyday Use. Such company names make up 26.6% of the total number of enterprise names studied. This group makes use of everyday words instead of proper nouns (e.g. *Stella del Mobile, Arte di Murano, Maestri Artigiani, Forme di luce creattiva*). It is in this name group that the semantic aspect becomes particularly relevant. For example, the name of the factory *La vecchia marina* refers to an interesting story depicting love of tradition. The founder of the company, a skilled craftsman and expert in naval architecture, was once walking along the seashore in the port city of Livorno after a severe storm when he saw a ship's wheel half-buried in the sand. He brought it to his workshop and restored it to its former beauty. After some time, his workshop decided to devote themselves to interior design projects that would make

use of furniture from ancient ships. Thus, a small workshop eventually turned into a large company which is credited with creating a unique and original interior design style known as Antique Maritime Style (Lojacono, 2003, p. 84).

Another way of forming names of this type is using borrowings. Our analysis has shown that the tendency to use foreign words, mainly of English origin, in the names of Italian companies in the interior design industry had gradually increased by the middle of the 20th century. Of all the company names included in this study, 18.8% feature a borrowed word or phrase. It is no coincidence that English becomes the main source for borrowings – the companies use them because they wish to enter the international market (Buschgens et al., 2019). Often a borrowing from another language is used as a more prestigious and fashionable alternative to a similar word in Italian. Such English words as *style, collection, interiors, international* are often used in company names instead of the corresponding Italian words *stile, collezione, interni, internazionale* (e.g. *Florence Collections*, *Gamma Arredamenti International*).

The economic boom in Italy saw the emergence of many small and medium-sized enterprises that produce modern-style furniture, lamps and design accessories for the home and office. Their names tend to reflect the company's product while giving it a certain English air (e.g. *Milano Bedding*, *Poliform*). In addition to English borrowings, one can also find some French words (*Epoque, Désirée*) in the names of interior design companies.

Another notable feature of company names that becomes apparent in the interior design industry in the mid-1970s is abbreviations – they are present in 13.1% of company names analysed, making them the third most productive naming strategy amongst the ones identified in the study. Almost all of these abbreviations contain an encoded proper noun. This once more confirms the observation that the majority of factories in Italy are family-owned, and that the preservation of family traditions is paramount to Italians. The use of acronyms is also observed as part of this strategy (*G.T. di Gianni Tonin*).

'It is no coincidence that English becomes the main source for borrowings – the companies use them because they wish to enter the international market'

Another group of Italian companies in the interior design industry, comprising 6.4% of company names studied, creates their names by attaching the English abbreviation *& C.* to a proper noun. As a rule, these companies also hire workers, thus not keeping production strictly within the family – a fact that becomes reflected in the name (e.g. *Angelo Cappellini & C.*). One should note that the abbreviation *& C.* in this case does not constitute a legal term.

One particular type of abbreviation that can be distinguished is that in which the words abbreviated provide information about the company's product, making the brand name easier to memorise. For example, *A.C.F.* (*Artistiche Ceramiche Fiorentine*) – a company from Florence – manufactures chandeliers and ceramic design objects.

Thus, the typology of names proposed by Cellotto (2005) is generally applicable to the names of Italian interior design companies; however, we have found that the most productive naming strategies are the ones that involve proper nouns.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The hypothesis of this study is that there is a relationship between the names of Italian companies in the interior design industry and the traditions of the Italian people. Indeed, the concept of 'home sweet home', of continuous home improvement that is inextricably linked to the idea of procreation, is clearly traceable in the names of Italian interior design companies. This is evidenced by the fact that the vast majority of companies include the name of their founder or current owner in the brand name. Most importantly, the use of a last name suggests a direct involvement of the owner in the manufacturing process; therefore, they are presumed to be personally responsible to the consumer for the products and services provided.

'Manufacturers of furniture and other interior design objects conceptualise each of their products to be a work of art that has been made according to tradition, balancing antiquity with modernity, and luxury with style'

Using a proper noun in the name of a company thus becomes a form of evidence for positive character traits of the owner. The abundance of last names, proper nouns and words like *fratelli* and *figli* in company names shows that family-owned production is typical of the Italian furniture and interior design industry as a whole.

Words from foreign languages have spread more and more through different fields of human activity in Italy, having their effect on the interior design industry as well. Our study has shown that in the 1960s-80s there was a tendency in Italy to use borrowings in company names, to rename companies accordingly, or to replace some of the Italian words in company names with equivalent words from another language (mostly English). Italy, as a member of the global community, thus enters new markets and finds new business partners. The use of this naming strategy creates an image of Italians as responsible businesspeople who set very particular strategic goals and wish to take a leading position in their field, while preserving a distinctively Italian 'flavour' for their brands.

Regional identity, being an important part of the Italian worldview, is also reflected in company names across the interior design industry. Putting the city or region of production in the company name indicates the owners' wish to underline their place of origin as well as the Italians' affection for their home regions in general.

Italians tend to have a strong emotional connection to art and history, which might explain the frequency of words such as *arte, maestri, vecchia, antica* in the names of Italian interior design companies. Manufacturers of furniture and other interior design objects conceptualise each of their products to be a work of art that has been made ac-

cording to tradition, balancing antiquity with modernity, and luxury with style.

By examining the etymological and semantic aspects of Italian company names in the interior design industry, we have been able to group the most common naming strategies into four categories that appear the most productive: Proper Nouns (54.4% of all names studied), Words and Phrases in Everyday Use (26.6%), Abbreviations (13.1%), Geographical Names (5.9%). The use of proper nouns prevails within Italian interior design companies – in contrast to the classification proposed by Cellotto (2005), in which this naming strategy is considered to be only the third most frequent. However, in cases where the first and last names of the owner (founder) are 'encumbered' with a string of other words, the company name will inevitably undergo reduction to ease the process of communication. For example, *Paolo Lucchetta Multipli d'Arte per L'Arredamento* becomes simply *Paolo Lucchetta*.

The Words and Phrases in Everyday Use category turned out to be the second most productive, suggesting that what the consumer wishes to buy is more than just an interior design product. It is a concept, an image created by the manufacturer. A concept is more easily expressed by using a common noun with a descriptor – a qualitative or relative adjective. Concepts expressed in a single word proved the most effective and therefore the most persistent, whereas structurally complex company names are fully preserved in the communication process only in cases when their reduction makes no sense (*La vecchia marina*). This strategy also involves borrowings, mainly from the English language, but with individual borrowings from French as well. Using borrowed words gives company names additional connotations that provide associations with fame, world-class quality, and following trends.

The significant difference in the usage frequency of the naming strategies Proper Nouns (54.3%) and Abbreviations (13.2%) is due to historical circumstances. The first type was in use continuously throughout the whole of the 20th century, whereas the second type only started forming in the 1970s.

Besides, most abbreviations are simply the initials of the founder or current owner of the company, and do not provide any information to the potential buyer.

The Geographical Names strategy turned out to be unexpectedly unproductive – this type of company naming is mainly present in the Italian food and winemaking industry. Having studied the main Italian regions for furniture, lighting, and textiles production that emerged in the mid-twentieth century, with Tuscany, Lombardy, and Veneto in the lead, one must note that toponym-based com-

pany names bear a clear relation to these regions, as in *Tosconova*. The geographical name will in most cases correspond to the region or city where production is located.

Notably, a neologism as a part of a company name has only been observed in one example, even though Cellotto (2005) considers it to be the most productive type of brand naming. This is primarily because this naming strategy is mainly used to name trademarks, brands and individual products rather than the manufacturing companies themselves.

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Original Research

The fear factor: Xenoglossophobia or how to overcome the anxiety of speaking foreign languages

by Heiner Böttger and Deborah Költzsch

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The article approaches a ubiquitous as well as a rarely adequately addressed problem area of learning and teaching foreign languages. It concentrates on xenoglossophobia, the fear of speaking foreign languages. Why do avoidance strategies as well as phobias develop during childhood especially in the foreign language classroom whenever it comes to the productive usage of the English language? Psychological, pedagogical, didactical as well as language related and neuroscientific findings are analysed and interpreted in order to help answer central questions like the above. The theoretical indications are further supported by a fundamental pilot study based on the productive language usage of foreign language students (n=108) and the according reflective and prospective analysis. The second part of the article brings all these findings together and outlines language didactical, meaningful, positive preventive, diagnostical, and therapeutic opportunities for intervention in the foreign language classroom.

KEYWORDS: *xenoglossophobia, language anxiety, amygdala, language learning, didactical intervention*

1. INTRODUCTION
1.1. Neurobiological home of anxiety
The human brain is a highly complex organ. It allows humans to think, act, feel, laugh, speak, create, and love. Yet, the core mission of the brain is to sense, perceive, process, store, and act on information from the external and internal environment to ensure survival. In order to do so, the human brain has developed an efficient and logical bottom-up organisational structure. The bottom regions (e.g. brainstem and midbrain) control the ba-sic vital functions such as respiration, heart rate, and blood pressure regulation. The top areas (e.g. limbic and cortex areas) monitor more complex functions such as thinking and emotional regulation. During infancy and childhood, the development of the brain follows this bottom-up structure: The most regulatory, bottom regions of the brain mature first, followed by adjacent but higher, more complex regions. The developmental process is mainly guided by experience. The brain develops and modifies itself in response to each and every

experience, good as well as bad (Perry & Marcellus, 2020; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000): Neurons and synapses, the connections among these brain regions, change in an activity-dependent way. This very early use-dependent developmental process is the first key to understanding the impact of fear on the process of language acquisition, especially foreign language learning (Engels et al., 2007).

The more a certain neural system is activated, the more it builds an internal representation of the experience corresponding to that specific neural activation. This is the basis for learning and memory. Age, however, makes a difference – due to the plasticity or receptiveness to environmental input: The sensitive brain of a child is more malleable but also more vulnerable to experience than a mature brain. In order to develop normally, different regions of the brain require specific kinds of experience, e.g. visual input while the visual system is organising. These times during development are called critical or sensitive periods. In all, with optimal experiences, the brain develops healthy, flexible, and diverse capabilities.

Disruptions of timing, intensity, quality or quantity of normal developmental experiences, however, cannot be avoided and are common, as well. Nonetheless, it might have a devastating impact on the brain's development and function, when occurring too often, regularly, and not falling back below a certain intensity level. It then can insidiously create bad feelings like fear, anxiety, or worry.

Fear is an emotional, physical response or reaction to a clear foreseen and present danger of harm and affects the ability to focus and think. Anxiety arises as a negative emotional response to anticipated events and has cognitive as well as controlling elements (Horwitz, 2010). The cognitive aspect is what interferes with academic performance. Therefore, the ability to concentrate, focus and think are also affected. Worry generates potential negative outcomes, often as a result of an elaborate cognitive process. It has more to do with thinking than with feeling and negatively influences the ability to concentrate and think. In this paper, worry as a clearly subliminal, non-dangerous, and normal but also only temporal human state of mind can be neglected and will not be further addressed.

1.2. The pre-frontal cortex and the amygdala
Two neural systems are mainly involved in language related fear and anxiety: the prefrontal cortex and the amygdala (cf. Figure 1).
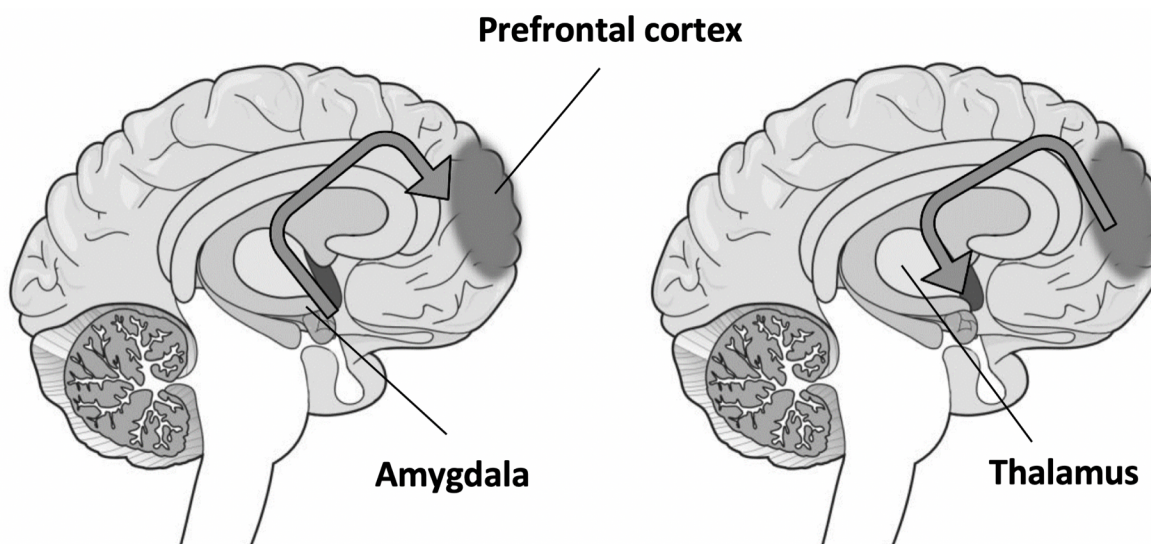

Figure 1. Sources of fear and anxiety in the brain and their interdependence (Böttger & Sambanis, 2017)

By introducing the Amygdala first, it can be summarised that this part of the brain creates, maintains, or modifies anxiety and fear responses. Situated within the limbic system, the amygdala works from a less conscious part of the brain. The amygdala makes way for the direct impact of fear and anxiety: it receives information from the thalamus before the cortex does and can activate the sympathetic nervous system due to triggers that might be unknown to the cortex. This, for example, can be a stimulus that has been previously associated with emotional reactions and is therefore a part of the emotional memories. When anxiety starts there, interventions based in the cortex, like logical thinking and reasoning, will not help reduce the upcoming or existing feeling. Amygdala-based anxiety can mostly be identified by certain characteristics: It occurs suddenly, creates strong physiological responses, and seems to leave the borders of the proportion to the situation. Ultimately, the amygdala does not need any involvement of the cortex, which makes the whole process so difficult to comprehend. The prefrontal cortex, the so-called Thinking Brain, is responsible for cognitive action like reasoning, conscious memories, awareness, detailed information, and concentration. From a functional point of view, the differences towards the amygdala are big, the connections yet close: Anxiety responses can also be initiated in the cortex by alerting the amygdala to potential or imagined dangers. And, what is more, amygdala reactions can – with a little time gap – be relativised by the cortex, when the danger turns out to be harmless on a second glance. The cortex, however, provides another anxiety pathway, independent of external information: Thinking or ruminating hypothetically about a prospective, but unreal future along with a bad case scenario is often the basis of a self-fulfilling prophecy. What one imagines to possibly go wrong combined with catastrophic images in one's mind, will probably happen.

The two areas in a contrastive nutshell as in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Contrastive overview of language related fear centres

AMYGDALA	PREFRONTAL CORTEX
– responsible for emotions – generates, receives, or changes anxiety and anxious reactions – operates unconsciously – physical alarm system, perpetually scans for incoming signals of danger – affects the nervous system, hormones, and the prefrontal cortex (PFC) – generates anxiety without the influence of the PFC and even overrules it – anxieties are 'learned' and negatively connoted	– Thinking Brain – responsible for cognition – responsible for consciousness – functions as executive (evaluation and analysis) – promotes reasoning and logical thinking – conscious memory (retrievable) – contains detailed information – capable of learning to control the amygdala (aim of prevention and therapy) – produces hypothetical bad case scenarios

1.3. Age plays a crucial role

Age, again, plays an important role in the development of the two areas' relationship: the prefrontal cortex is not completely developed until the age between 20 and 25, so that it cannot precisely suppress emotions such as fear or anxiety yet (cf. Figure 2). That has to do with a process called myelination: The communication velocity between the neurons is determined by the thickness of the myelin sheaths around their connections. These are nerve fibres, known as axons, 1 millimetre to 1 meter long, which transmit electrical nerve stimuli between each other with an average speed of approx. 250 mph. Myelination, the gradually coating of the axons, allows brain areas, that are far apart, to connect – e.g. the limbic system and the cortex. This development has a designated direction, from back to front all the way to

'Therefore, teenagers usually prioritise their emotional processing over their cognitive processing due to the fact that they use their limbic system more strongly during their adolescence as it has already developed further. The mind is literally not capable of controlling the rest of the brain, which can be fruitful for creative language processes'

the cortex (cf. Figure 2) (Gogtay et al., 2004). Similar to the development of the prefrontal cortex, myelination is a maturation process that continues until the age of around 27. Only then all functions in the prefrontal cortex are fine-tuned, connected, concentration and focusing are fully available, and emotions can be controlled in most cases.

Therefore, teenagers usually prioritise their emotional processing over their cognitive processing due to the fact that they use their limbic system more strongly during their adolescence as it has already developed further. The mind is literally not capable of controlling the rest of the brain, which can be fruitful for creative language proces-

ses (Böttger & Költzsch, 2019). However, strategic, long-term as well as short-term planning and interventions are not or only to a limited extent possible (Böttger & Sambanis, 2017). This has an impact on the handling of fear and anxiety – children and teenagers are hence especially vulnerable and require a special form of protection.

1.4. The importance of understanding

Generally understanding where and how fear and anxiety begin, i.e. knowledge of the language of the amygdala, is the first means of taking correct steps to interrupt the process of increasing amygdala activation and negative bodily responses (cf. Pittman, 2015). A mental intervention is possible, when fear and anxiety signals (beginning in the cortex with uncomfortable thoughts) provide only little but nonetheless precious time in order to change mental predispositions oneself. This presupposes already learned, self-effective mental and physical strategies like self-programming, self-talking or taking deep breaths. This in turn may help in preventing the activation of the amygdala and decrease upcoming cortex-based anxiety at the same time. Repetition and experience concerning this procedure is essential for being successful sustainably.
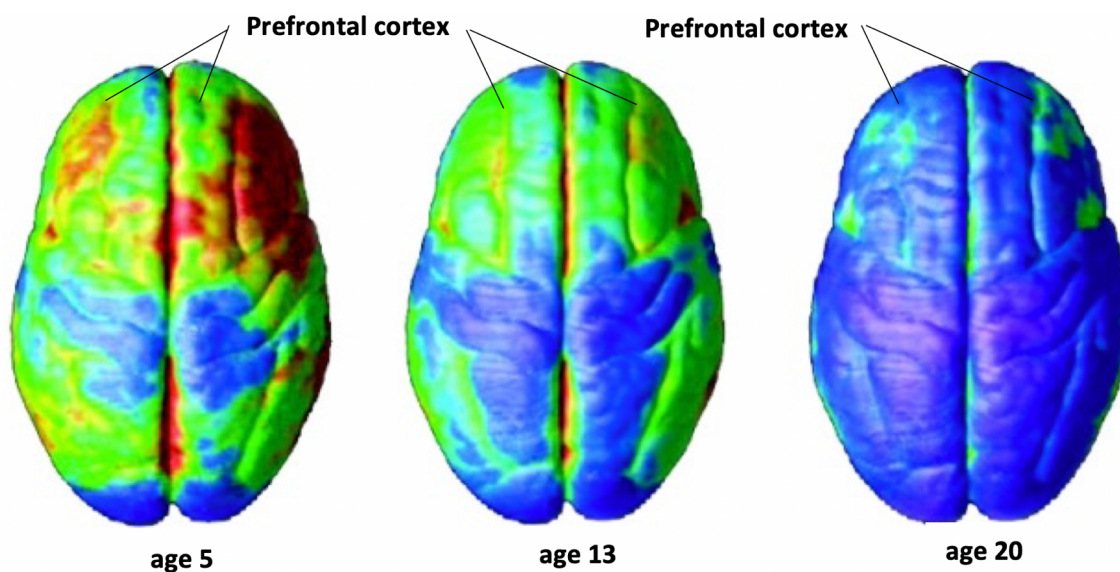

Figure 2. Development of the cortex' functions: The PFC

2. XENOGLOSSOPHOBIA: A SPECIAL CASE OF ANXIETY

2.1. Definition and description

Anxiety can produce physiological responses interfering with the ability to concentrate and learn – especially languages. Specific thoughts or preoccupations can suddenly – dependent on individual triggers – invade learning processes and redirect attention to a parallel and negative world of thoughts. Anxiety is capable of motivating avoidance strategies which in turn can lead to self-exclusion from the learning community, to a delay of studying and simply the avoidance of doing homework or class assignments. Anxiety can, as a result, interfere with the teacher's professional ability to accurately assess a student's knowledge or skills. If the affected learning process is language learning, it is a matter of a very specific type of anxiety, xenoglossophobia – the fear of speaking foreign languages.

Xenoglossophobia derives from the Greek: *phobos* meaning 'fear', *xeno* meaning 'foreign', *glosso* meaning 'language' or 'tongue'. Psychiatrically speaking, xenoglossophobia belongs to the group of specific phobias (Horwitz, 2001). It describes the abnormal and exaggerated fear of foreign languages. In the course of the sickness, people tend to avoid not only the studies of foreign languages but also speakers of said languages. They feel embarrassed when they have to speak English in classrooms. Travelling to foreign countries is also refrained due to similar reasons. Hence, xenoglossophobia restricts daily life constantly and can lead to the development of more in-depth states of anxiety or even depression. This can be seen in form of physical reactions or experiencing stress response symptoms like a pounding heart, rapid breathing, stomach distress etc. The effects for the language classroom are multiple: For example, when students cannot sit still on their chairs in a classroom, when they nervously play with their pens, when they cannot utter sounds calmly, naturally and clearly in classroom conversations, they show anxiety. They are also often not willing to start any conversation or even don't like to participate in communications, they remain silent in discussions, speak fast and finish quickly facing large audiences like in front of their classmates.

2.2. How xenoglossophobia develops

Xenoglossophobia does not arise by itself. Speaking is a very complex neuromuscular activity, which needs to be learned over years and must constantly be practiced, especially regarding foreign languages (Böttger, 2014). The phonological production or rather the articulation can be taken from the image below (cf. Figure 3). It begins in Broca's Area (1) and moves on to the motor cortex in which the motoric process of the articulation (2) and the motoric operational control (3) take place. The auditory feedback and the phonological monitoring, a type of cognitive self-control and correction of one's own speaking, occur in the upper temporal lobe (4). In addition, there are a number of smaller muscles that are required to enable speech production through the human lips. That such a long way contains various sources of error goes without saying.
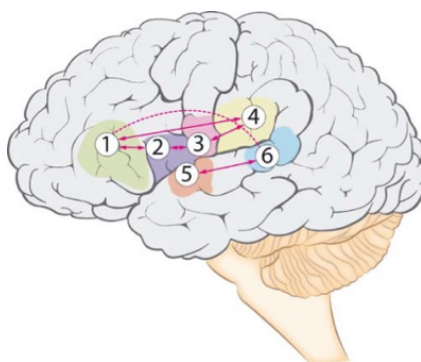

Figure 3. Oral language production in the brain (Böttger, 2014)

A process simultaneous to speaking, namely speech perception or much simpler listening, is decoded in the language-processing and listening centres of the brain. The sound – also one's own voice – arrives in the ear and reaches the primary listening centre in the auditory cortex (5). From there the vocal message is sent to Wernicke's area (6) for phonological, grammatical, and semantic detection as well as decryption. Besides the neuronal processing, non-linguistic factors are also involved in a decryption process, i.e. conditions and information from a situation in which a statement is made. Redundancy plays an important role in decoding spoken language. It describes the difference between the amount of information a message could theoretically have and the amount that it actually possesses. Spoken language has a very high level of redundancy; it is generally estimated at around 50 percent of what has been said. During phone calls and in face-to-face communication, parts of the phonological information are often disturbed, drowned by external noise or even not transmitted at all, in parts or as a whole. Native speakers are so familiar with the coding system of their language that they can reconstruct a message from an incomplete transmission. However, anyone who learns a foreign language from early on must first acquire this ability. It is most important for receptive communication, particularly essential when understanding translated TV programmes, listening to recordings or information transmitted through loudspeakers (e.g. at airports) and telephone calls in the foreign language. For non-natives, nonetheless, the decoding process in a foreign language, carried out automatically and simultaneously to speaking itself, poses various risks due to even more sources of error and thus possible causes of anxiety.

Speaking requires memory capacity as well as specific strategies. Both the amygdala and the pre-frontal cortex are involved in this remembering procrss. Memorising and reproducing language is highly communicative and especially the ability of being able to remember something has further significance as an own speech strategy: Only those who can recall what the interlocutor has said are able to establish actual communication in conversation, which, apart from the exchange of content, also contains intercultural and affective components, for example, initial conversation strategies of asking questions, agreeing, and the like. Memorising means to memorise and retain language material such as words, sentences, etc. The linguistic content which is to be recalled must firstly be understood in order to be able to deal with it. Although the brain is quite capable of memorising even without knowledge of the content, this is not sufficient for participation in communicative situations. Communicative speaking altogether is a very complex structure consisting of the sub-competences hearing/listening, understanding, remembering, and speech production.

3. A PILOT STUDY: XENOGLOSSOPHOBIA AND ITS IMPACT ON PROSPECTIVE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

As said above, xenoglossophobia is not only a phenomenon experienced in childhood or teenage years but rather remains up until adulthood (also cf. Fondo, 2019). What is more, the fear of speaking foreign languages is not only found in certain social groups but, interestingly enough, also in those which tend to be viewed as free of these anxieties, e.g. foreign language teachers.

A fundamental pilot study examined 108 prospective foreign language teachers studying English. As there are scarcely any findings regarding anxiety among foreign language speakers or learners respectively and especially little among experienced foreign language learners as well as speakers, the aim of this study was to take initial steps into this specific field of anxiety in order to give first indications. In the realm of a quantitative online survey, the participants were asked rudimental questions concerning their use of the English language as well as feelings, concerns, or fears connected with the matter. Below is the complete question catalogue of the survey questionnaire.

1. Do you have to think before speaking English? 2. Do you make plans before speaking English, e.g. in class? 3. Up until the present day, are

you scared to make mistakes while using English? 4. In general, have you avoided communicational situations in English? 5. Have you ever avoided an English-speaking phone call by not calling, by not answering, or by writing a text message instead? 6. Are there English words that you avoid in conversations? 7. Are there parts of a sentence that you avoid while speaking? 8. Up until the present day, are you sometimes nervous before coming into a class held in English? 9. Do you notice physical reactions (e.g. blushing, perspiration) while speaking English in front of a group? 10. Do you sometimes condition yourself (e.g. pep talk) before speaking English in class or before giving a presentation in English? 11. Looking back, did you feel uncomfort-

able speaking English at school, especially when called upon suddenly? 12. Are you scared to say something wrong in English? 13. Do you avoid speaking English in class to prevent making a mistake even though you might know the correct answer? 14. Do you sometimes shorten your sentences on purpose in order to avoid verbalising long sentences in English? 15. Do you know someone who would have answered the previous questions with yes?

Remarkably, even the students, who tend to feel confident while speaking English due to their field of studies, experience xenoglossophobia equally. The answers of the pilot study are shown in the graphs in Figure 4 below.
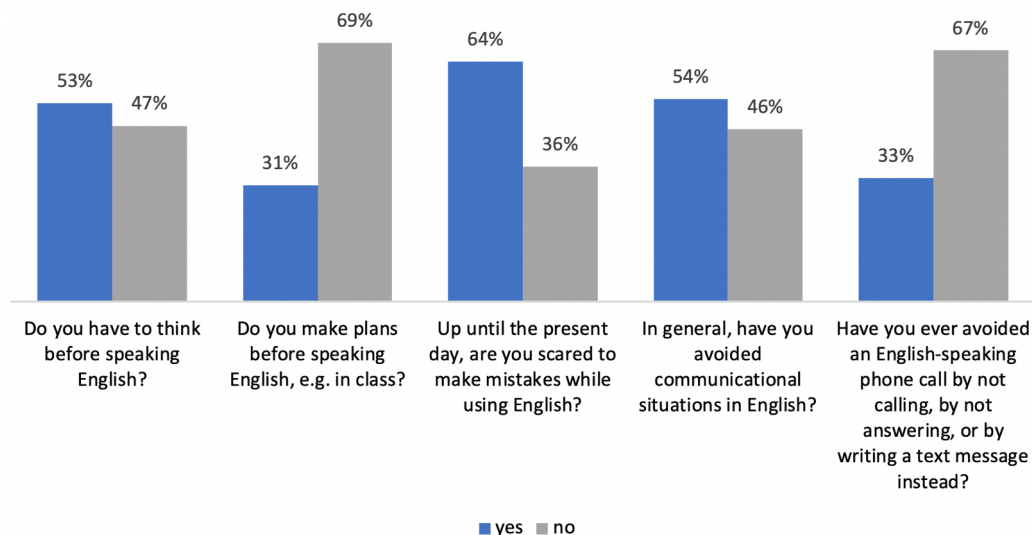

Figure 4. Pilot study: Xenoglossophobia regarding foreign language students (n=108), questions 1-5 (left to right)

53% of the students that participated in the study conceded that they have to think before speaking English. This is fully in line with contemporary language acquisition theory findings, which state that non-bilinguals learn and/or use a foreign language after the age of 6 only against the background of their first or mother tongue (Böttger, 2020, p. 37). The internal 'language plan' before the act of speaking in the foreign language is thus generally slightly delayed. Fears reinforce this 'lag'. Moreover, this aspect is reinforced by a se-

cond finding: 31% acknowledged that they additionally had to make some kind of plan before using the foreign language. The third survey result also substantiates parts of the language acquisition theory: the great fear of making mistakes among two thirds of all respondents (64%) makes them weigh up whether or not to say something for a much longer time, communicatively actually too long. However, not only did these prospective English teachers overthink their use of the foreign language but over half of them also admitted to

avoiding situations in which they needed to use it. Avoiding speech acts, or simplification of speech, is not only considered a source of error (Böttger, 2020) but is also the maximum negative fear reaction. While 54% of the students stated that they had already avoided communicational situations in which English was necessary, 33% did not pick up the phone but instead wrote a message due to the oral foreign language barrier. The lack of any communicative support through non-verbal signals such as gestures and facial expressions has an anxiety-increasing effect (Figure 5).
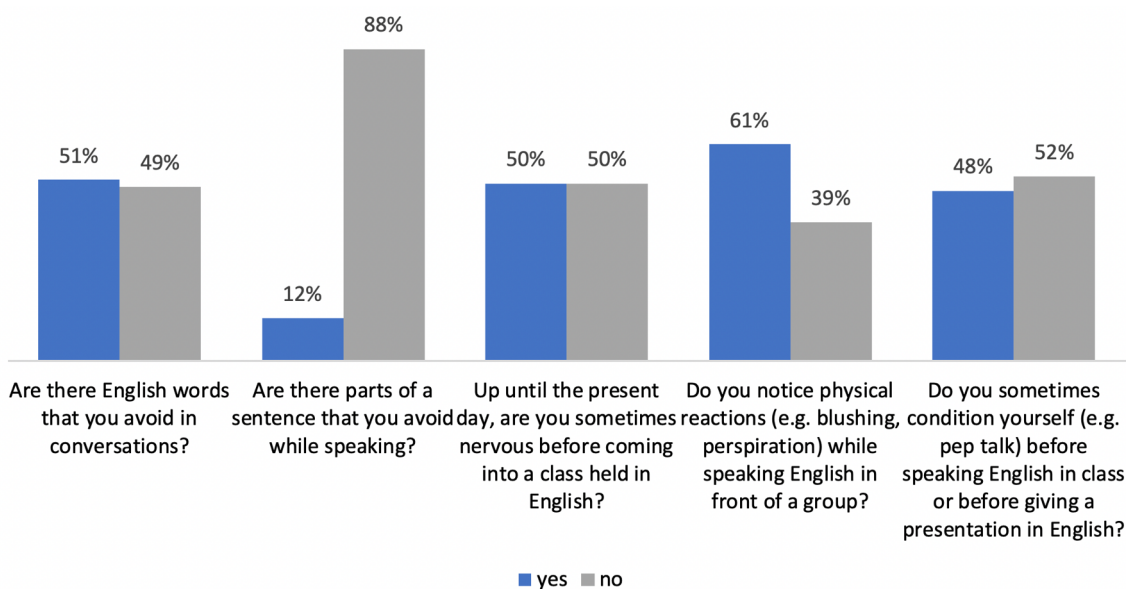

Figure 5. Pilot study: Xenoglossophobia regarding foreign language students (n=108), questions 6-10 (left to right)

51% of all students acknowledged the fact that they avoid certain English words during English conversations. This is mostly due to personal uncertainty regarding the correct pronunciation or meaning of the word. Nonetheless, only 12% confirmed the avoidance of complete parts of a sentence while speaking English. With regard to longer linguistic language units, the previously described effect is significantly enhanced when there is even more uncertainty with respect to the correct sentence structure or the correct grammatical structure. Additionally, half of all students surveyed stated that they are nervous before coming into a class held in English and 61% noted that they had perceived physical reactions, such as blushing or perspiration, before speaking English in front of groups. The physically measurable excitement, which can certainly be a still subliminal fear or positive excitement similar to the 'pre-start feeling' as known from sporting competitions, is positively influenced by self-conditioning in almost half of the respondents (48%) (as shown in Figure 6).

When taking a closer look into the classroom, the so-called 'cold calls' negatively influenced approximately half of all respondents. The fact that 47% of the students admitted that they had felt uncomfortable speaking English at school might confirm the assumption that the fear of speaking a foreign language stems from their previous education during their childhood or respectively their teenage years. Hypothetically, this number is likely to be much higher for learners who are not as English-affine as those interviewed. This could possibly be traced back to the fact that students are scared to say something incorrect, which 69% of the participants in the study admitted. 62% confessed that they did not answer certain questions in class even though they knew the correct answer due to the fear of being grammatically or linguistically incorrect. Even 28% confessed to shortening
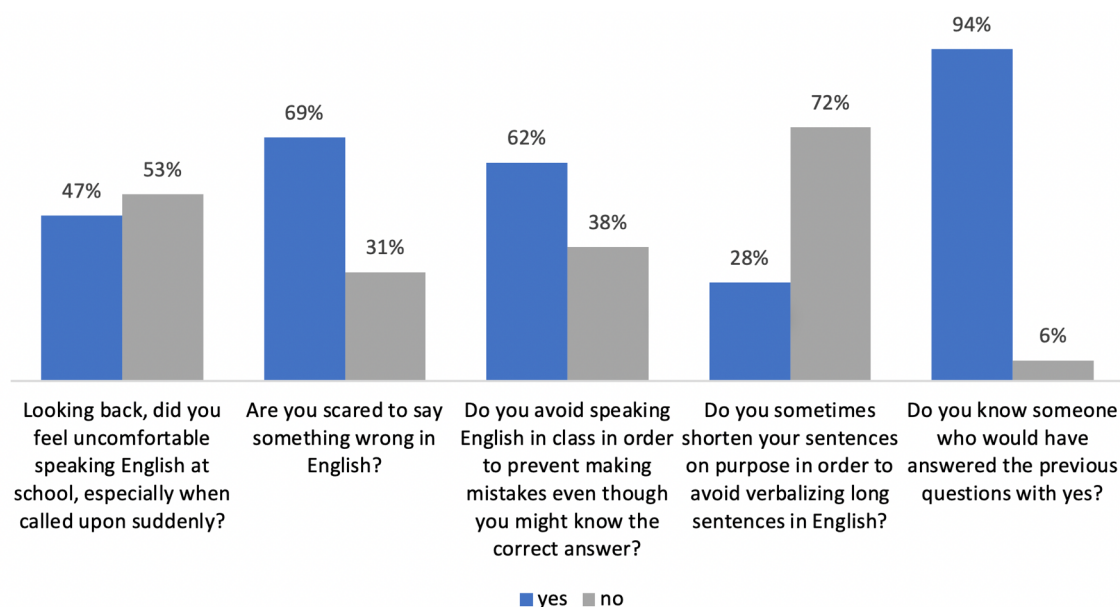
Figure 6. Pilot study: Xenoglossophobia regarding foreign language students (n=108), questions 11-15 (left to right)

their sentences on purpose in order to minimise their number of errors in verbalisation of the foreign language. The last question shows the iceberg-effect: 94% of those questioned conceded to knowing somebody anxious concerning their oral use of the foreign language English. This circumstance must be investigated in more depth in follow-up examinations as the fear potential seems to be much greater than previously assumed. This first pilot study to explore the scientific field will be followed by a second in-depth study in the year of the publication of this article. This will involve a significant expansion of the group of respondents in all aspects (number, learning experience with foreign languages, etc.) (cf. Figure 6).

As reality therefore shows, xenoglossophobia does not only relate to a certain group of people but is on the contrary a type of anxiety which everyone is affected by, even those who should feel more confident in the foreign language. Interestingly enough, the participants of this study are in general highly aware of their language proficiency and are capable of reflecting upon their language skills more in-depth due to their professional training. Hence, it is of interest to explore the matter further regarding non-language students as

well as people who do not work in any language-related contexts. One the one hand, it can be assumed that the level of anxiety rises even further as the subjects would not be as experienced in the foreign language and would therefore be more fearful to make use of it. On the other hand, it is probable that the level of anxiety would drop due to the fact that future language teachers possess a high standard of critical self-reflection and are also used to comparing themselves with other experienced language-users in turn damaging their personal linguistic self-confidence. The results of this study therefore only depict the anxieties of this specific social group, which is why prospective studies are highly required in order to shed more light on the precise reality of xenoglossophobia.

4. DISCUSSION
4.1. Sources of xenoglossophobia

Language anxiety and foreign language learning are interrelated. Many factors lead to xenoglossophobia in teaching, learning or even related situations (Li & Wang, 2019). The following table was created following the categories of Turula (2002) (cf. Buitrago et al., 2008, p. 28) – academic, cognitive, social, and personal reasons – and was

created by the authors after interviews and informal conversations with neuroscientists, psychologists, psychiatrist as well as academic language teaching staff of universities, teacher trainers, teachers, and students in 2020. It doesn't claim to be complete and is to be expanded continuously.

In order to deal with the effects of language anxiety on a didactical basis focusing on possible anxiety prevention precautions, therapy interventions, and also methodological task formats, it is necessary to first identify in-depth and – as a second prospective step in order to draw pedagogical, didactical, and even methodological conclusions – deeply analyse the source of it (Alnuzaili & Uddin, 2020; Abinaya, 2016). The latter, however, is far beyond the scope of this study and will be the main topic of an authors' book forthcoming 2021.

Turula (2002) summarises the sources of xenoglossophobia as shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2
Sources of xenoglossphobia in the ELT classroom (Turula, 2002 – adopted and expanded)

PSYCHOLOGICAL SOURCES	METHODOLOGICAL SOURCES	COGNITIVE SOURCES	SOCIAL-AFFECTIVE SOURCES
– lack of affective support – false perception of emotions – frustration – stressful, negative, nearly hostile environment – lack of self-confidence, low self-esteem – adolescent, peer-related behaviour – restrictions due to schools and teachers – time pressure – loss of cognitive control – feeling of being observed and evaluated – individual expectations – unresolved conflicts – feeling of excessive demands – lack of mindfulness	a) Motivational: – monotonous lessons – boring topics and learning content – little student involvement – difficult tasks b) Pedagogical: – promotion of competition – calling up of students in class ('cold calling') – lack of speaking practice – classroom organisation – evaluation and grading – negative, non-supportive feedback – negative linguistic experiences/failures – disencouraging learning context	a) Metacognitive: – indifference to the learning process and learning formats – excessive testing and evaluation b) Cognitive: – lack of linguistic capacity – lack of contentual/subject-specific competences – lack of lexical and grammatical skills – complex structures and long sentences in task descriptions and dialogues – lack of planning and goal definition – continuous monitoring of personal speech – grammatical difficulties – deficiency regarding vocabulary – lack of competences in the mother tongue/first language – linguistic interferences – perfectionism – neurobiological or mental diseases	– prejudice of peers and teachers – hypothetical judgements by speaking partners (native speakers) – risk of public embarrassment – lack of interest regarding the opinion of the speaker – social-affective isolation – cultural background – negative experiences

The table contains psychological, methodological, cognitive, and social-affective aspects of the topic. These are interdependent as well: psychological effects can also be found within the methodological area (feedback) as well as in the cognitive column (self-monitoring of one's own speech), and, additionally, may influence socio-affective matters like the risk of exposure through mistakes. Another cross-connection could be a lack of self-confidence (psychological) (Ferreira Marinho et al., 2017) and mindfulness (Böttger, 2018), the lack of speaking experience (and opportunities) in English (methodological), vocabulary deficits (cognitive) and cultural background (social).

4.2. First steps towards overcoming xenoglossophobia

From a psychological perspective, proven treatments to overcome the fear of speaking English are two kinds of therapies: cognitive behavioural therapy and confrontation therapy.

The first option is one of the most modern psychotherapeutic methods. Here, negative attitudes, thoughts, evaluations, and convictions are identified and slowly but sustainably changed. An example of this is the inner negative belief that 'I don't speak English well enough' can be replaced by a new, much more positive self-belief, such as 'My English is perfectly sufficient for what I want to accomplish'. Other possible coping conceptions for preparing a communication situation can be: I can get through this. This won't last forever; I've handled this before; Just remember to breathe; Take your time. There's no rush. Time is on my side; I will learn from this. It will get easier each time; I'm doing the best I can; Staying calm shows that I am in control.

Single helpful words to be repeated over and over for self-programming are relax, peace, calm, or breathe. This, however, requires several thera-peutic steps and at least the support by a psychologist. The negative conviction then takes a back seat and is literally overwritten by the new conviction.

The second option, the confronting procedure (regarding English), takes place in a protected setting, also mentored by a psychological specialist. Being confronted with the anxiety-causing situation those affected can endure fear and, very crucially, that there are no negative consequences at all. As a result, the fear of speaking English can be forgotten again over time.

4.3. Resolving xenoglossophobia

Ideally, the influence of foreign language teachers accompanies either process. The anxiety and fear references mentioned above must be discussed intensively in the future in order to approach a didactical pattern of anxiety-free teaching and learning action. In the meantime, the most important task is to track down these fears in their entirety, to record and discuss them, put them in a suitable order of importance, and thus to produce first cornerstones of a fear-free foreign language didactics, as illustrated in Figure 7 below.
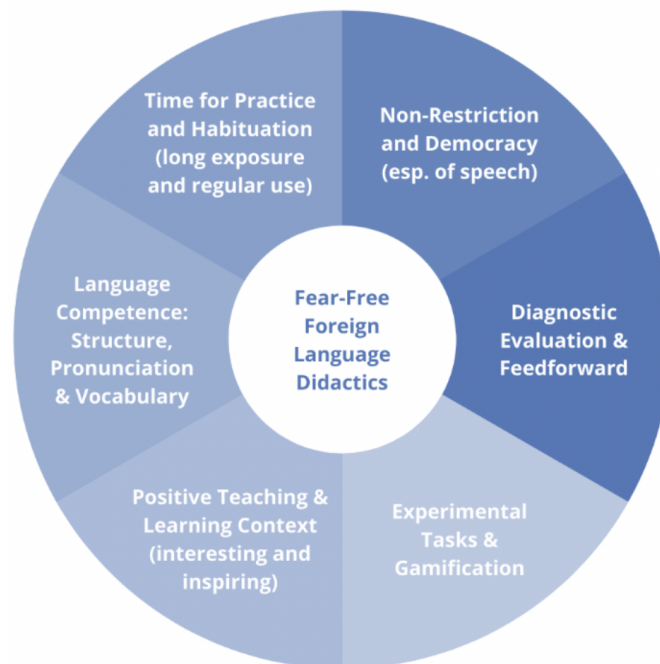

Figure 7. Didactical action pattern of anxiety-free teaching

'In a nutshell, providing enough time to speak avoids or reduces stress and anxiety'

4.4. Things to consider

In order to prevent xenoglossophobia three fundamental didactical insights and basics must be considered.

1. Teachers must acquire obligatory knowledge about the difficult speaking procedure, in order to be able to professionally, sensitively, and fairly analyse and evaluate an oral performance. It is necessary to understand that mother tongue and foreign language learning – apart from a few points of contact – are fundamentally different. The main distinction is that learning to listen and speak, to assign phoneme series and supra-segmental elements such as prosody and intonation to meanings of use, social, and later individual life happens very early in life. Along with acquiring the mother tongue, awareness, and concept development take place. This natural process can never be fully repeated later on, when people learn all other languages literally on top of their mother tongue – if not having grown up bilingually. From then on, approximately with the age of five, what should be said is planned in the mother tongue and translated internally, which in turn takes some time of thinking and getting ready to talk. The time factor when learning the mother tongue is significantly different from when learning the first foreign language. This is actually a self-explanatory fundamental idea of English teaching and learning mostly not considered in institutionalised language educational systems with narrow schedules, learning progressions, and linearity. In a nutshell, providing enough time to speak avoids or reduces stress and anxiety.

2. Speaking is dependent upon experience, more specifically upon exercise and rehearsal. Intensive pronunciation training is an important and yet often neglected aspect of English instruction that leads to self-confidence in speaking. Successful pronunciation includes emphasis, intonation, sounds as well as fluency. Even in an early phase of vocabulary learning, the words to be repeated must be imitated correctly in order to face and avert fossilisation. Fossilised word pronunciation is extremely difficult to relearn correctly. Deficits in this respect can later become communication barriers. For instance, the meaning of a word can vary, if a single sound in it is pronounced differently. If it is spoken generally in a vague manner, this can impede the communication partner's attention so strongly that the content of what has been said cannot be understood or can only be understood through inquiries. Failure, again, may first lead to avoidance of communication, subsequently to fear and anxiety.

3. Last but not least, the role model offered by the teachers themselves as professional personalities is of importance. Ultimately, their English-speaking competence determines their learners' success regarding their speaking capabilities.

5. CONCLUSION

All in all, it seems that emotional learning as well as academic learning has to be considered, when it comes to language learning. On the one hand, xenoglossophobia can be decreased through positive exposure provided by, for example, non-restrictive speaking opportunities, enough time, or a lot of practice. Positive language learning experiences with neutral or rewarding learning outcome, opportunities for successful oral performances, and less seemingly and subjectively threatening assignments have to be built on. On the other hand, this form of anxiety can in many cases be simply avoided by abandoning punitive and harsh communicative responses and instead focusing on aspects, such as: (1) corrective feedforward instead of feedback, presented in an informative, not instructive way, avoiding indirect or direct ridiculing or teasing of students through irony or even sarcastic language; (2) a high ratio of positive to negative comments; (3) an effective communication and social problem solving; (4) emphasising strengths and weaknesses in language use in a balanced way. These aspects are the non-negotiable building blocks of xenoglossophobia prevention.

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Original Research

Glocalisation in action: 'Less is More' English coursebook series

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Globalisation has been a powerful force taking over every field for a very long time, including the field of language education. Any discussion of globalisation cannot be held in isolation without extending it to include its counterpart, localisation. Teachers of English as a foreign language have long been aware of the fact that global coursebook providers enhance global culture in their coursebooks. However, getting students to identify with these global topics within their local contexts often proves challenging. Teachers experience the frustration of mediating between the global information and the local context. As has been observed, students experience the foreignness within the lessons and shy away from exchanging ideas and practising their language skills and, thus, they cannot engage with the language work. One solution to this could be merging the two concepts of globalisation and localisation, called glocalisation. This study aims at presenting good practices of glocalisation, starting from local culture and local background awareness and extending to global topics and information. In the search to ease the teacher's mediating role and student's motivation, and embedded in global 21st century skills, our study reveals strategies to use in English coursebooks for the successful application of glocalisation in language learning with reference to ELT in particular.

KEYWORDS: *globalisation, glocalisation, culture, coursebook, ELT, Turkey*

1. INTRODUCTION

Globalisation has a significant impact on all areas of modern life, and language learning and teaching is no exception. Language learning is the exchange of global culture, and the resources and materials used, particularly with English language teaching, reflect that process. As with any other area of globalisation, the role that globalisation has played in language learning has come under scrutiny (Robertson, 1995; Ritzer, 2003; Salimi & Safarzadeh, 2019). One of the chief complaints about globalisation is the undermining of one cul-

ture by another, resulting in an imbalance which can impact local values, traditions and cultures (Robertson, 1995; Ritzer, 2003). In education in general, major world institutions and organisations have had a significant impact on curriculum and syllabus in a range of countries, and some have argued that the materials that have been encouraged and used in curriculums, influenced by major organisations and institutions, undermine the local values in education (Jarvis, 2002; Hamilton, 2014; Preece, 2013; Salimi & Safarzadeh, 2019).

This paper presents the case for glocalisation in Turkey and highlights that conventional coursebooks that are in use in Turkey do not take into full consideration the local needs of the learners in the Turkish context. It also details the response to this lack of consideration which involved the design of a new coursebook series, written by a multinational team of authors based in Turkey, with experience of teaching Turkish learners.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND IMPLICATIONS FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

2.1. Globalisation and glocalisation

Globalisation is the compression of world cultures into a single culture, and within some discussions has been linked to imperialist motives and elements of cultural domination and subordination (Ritzer, 2003). With that concept of globalisation in mind, an increasingly popular concept was one that united the benefits of global sharing with local integration, and this was termed 'glocalisation' (Robertson, 1995; Salimi & Safarzadeh, 2019). Ritzer (2003, p. 190) defined glocalisation as '*the interpenetration of the global and the local resulting in unique outcomes in different geographic areas*'. Glocalisation can be thought of as a kind of micromarketing, that is to say '*the tailoring and advertising of goods and services on a global or near-global basis to increasingly differentiated local and particular markets*' (Robertson, 1995, p. 28). Glocalisation can easily be seen when looking at international businesses. For example, a fast food company expands past the borders of the country in which it was founded. It has become a global corporation. The next thing it does is alter

its menu to cater to local tastes, and now it has glocalised. When applying this idea to language teaching, it can be thought of as including a local context alongside the culture of the native country. Mainstream teaching materials have, necessarily, globalised content and include cultural context from the country or countries where the target language is spoken as a native language. But as Tomlinson (2003, p. 163) says, '*one of the main reasons why global coursebooks are not normally humanistic is that in trying to cater for everybody they end up engaging nobody*'.

2.2. Importance of local cultural knowledge

Culture is an essential part of language learning. Ellis (2000) states that students can learn a language easier when they have an interest in the culture and the society of the native country. Widdowson's (1990) claims that first language acquisition happens in tandem with cultural knowledge are significant because that suggests that cultural knowledge should be taught in tandem with any additional language. The conflict happens, however, when the cultural topics provided are not of interest to the student. Salimi and Safarzadeh (2019) discussed the concepts of glocalisation within the wider context of moving from American or British English to a more representative global English – one that represents the glocal nature of English in the 21st century – and stated that understanding Iranian English teachers' perceptions of glocalisation would provide useful indications for the most appropriate way to design both teacher education programmes and help Iranian EFL teachers to find their genuine role in the teaching of English in Iran.

Glocalisation has implications not exclusively for learners, but also for teachers, particularly with the tools and materials that teachers use. This view has been supported by Rhedding-Jones (2002), who argued that understanding the nuances of English-based curricula needs to be understood within the framework of local contexts and that local differences be recognised, thus enabling and empowering both students and teachers as agents of globalisation, rather than being objects.

2.3. Global and local coursebooks

This struggle between the local context and dominance of global organisations and coursebooks in use has caused problems in a variety of countries. We have found that this is a particular problem in a country with a vastly different culture. Often, as teachers in Turkey, we end up either teaching not only the target language for the lesson, but also the cultural significance and background of the topic, or we find ourselves in a classroom where the students aren't interested in the topic and don't have the language to express why or what would be more engaging for them. When İlter & Güzeller (2000) asked Turkish students about their attitudes towards culture when learning English, they found that although 62% of the students they surveyed wanted to learn the culture of the target language they were learning, more than 58% of respondents said that they didn't like or understand the language involved, and nearly a quarter of the students surveyed said that English coursebooks didn't give importance to Turkish culture. This study was important for us, as all of the surveyed students over 25 said that unknown words related to the native culture bothered them, which, as the authors suggested, indicates that older students are less tolerant of other cultures. The study's conclusion was that a cross-cultural (glocal) approach would be best suited for Turkish students. After years of teaching in Turkey, this was our conclusion as well. This highlights the need for an open discussion regarding glocalisation in Turkey and will be discussed in detail.

3. GLOCALISATION IN TURKEY

3.1. Grammar and vocabulary vs skills development

Turkish education system has gone through significant changes in recent years (Solak & Bayar, 2015; Savaskan, 2016). Turkish government has been working closely with international bodies, such as the OECD, the EU and the British Council to identify the needs of Turkish learners in general with the aim of working towards targets set in 2020 and 2023 (West et al., 2015). Despite this, English language education continues to be prob-

lematic in Turkey, for a variety of reasons (Kizildag, 2009; Solak & Bayar, 2015; Dulger, 2016; Savaskan, 2016). In the Turkish context, a lot has been written on the challenges faced by Turkish learners of English, as well as those of teachers in Turkey, however an important point, which has received less attention, is the content used to teach English and the approach used in the presentation of the English language.

Turkish learners are exposed to English from the age of 10 in the state school education system and receive around 4-12 hours per week of English language education from grade 4 onwards (Kizildag, 2009; Uztosun, 2011). Despite this high exposure to English from a relatively young age, this education tends to be focused on grammar points and vocabulary sets, limiting the student's potential to develop skills (Uztosun, 2011; Solak & Bayar, 2015). A typical complaint by Turkish learners of English is that they understand, but can't speak English, which is the result of years of exposure to language but very limited practical use (Kizildag, 2009; Solak & Bayar, 2015). Another factor affecting this is the focus on passing exams, which are based on grammar and vocabulary, prioritising accuracy over skills development. Learners, teachers, materials and syllabi in turn make these aspects of English the focus, leading to complaints about syllabus content and coursebook content over reliance on grammar knowledge (Kizildag, 2009; Uztosun, 2011; Solak & Bayar, 2015). Previous studies of Turkish English language learners have recommended designing coursebooks which consider learners' social backgrounds and interests (Kizildag, 2009; Kiziltan & Atli, 2013).

3.2. International vs local coursebooks

In Turkey it is common for students at the school level to be exposed to coursebooks prepared by MEB qualified teachers, yet this content tends to have a main focus on grammar and lexical sets rather than dealing with helping students develop the skills needed to succeed (Kizildag, 2009; Uztosun, 2011). In contrast, at university level English language education rarely uses coursebooks created by qualified teachers, instead utili-

sing the coursebooks in the market produced by large, international publishing houses, predominantly British or American (West et al., 2015). Whilst it is not the intention of this paper to discredit the value of these resources, what is clear is that the content, in terms of culture and information away from the language points being presented, is often not engaging for students. Students do not connect with the content that is being presented and this in turn affects their engagement with the language being presented (İlter & Güzeller, 2000; Solak & Bayar, 2015; Dulger, 2016). Studies into factors affecting English language teaching in Turkey have identified that inappropriate textbooks play a significant role in the issues affecting effective language learning and teaching practices in Turkey (Kizildag, 2009; Solak & Bayar, 2015; Dulger, 2016).

3.3. Dependence on the coursebook

Coursebooks are an integral part any language-learning classroom and are a valuable tool for any teacher, as well as students. The British Council found that in Turkey there is an overdependence on the coursebook in the classroom environment, with very few teachers breaking away from the content presented in the units (West et al., 2015). This highlights the important role the coursebook plays in the Turkish EFL context and why finding the correct coursebook, which is appropriately designed, is imperative to help students in their learning. Another report by the British Council identified that unsuitable coursebooks were ranked higher than large classes and unsuitable teaching methods as an issue affecting language learning in Turkey (Özen et al., 2013).

3.4. Cultural appropriacy of coursebooks

A study at Akdeniz University into the views of students of English language coursebook content by İlter and Güzeller (2000) identified some interesting points. They found that students tended to feel as though coursebook cultural content prioritised the culture of English-speaking countries, particularly American and British culture, and that many students did not want to engage with con-

tent as much. They noted that students felt that books generally take no interest in Turkish culture but would prefer a cross-cultural approach where Turkish culture, as well as the target language culture, was integrated into the material. A cross-cultural approach would lead to better motivation to learn the language being presented and would take away from the feeling that books are presenting a superior culture. It is clear that coursebook content, which is influenced by American or British cultures, does not consider cultural or local issues. A coursebook unit which showcases or even celebrates regionally controversial political figures, such as Winston Churchill, for example, may not be appropriate for a particular classroom context, and may even present an obstacle and shows a lack of cultural understanding of appropriate content. Only language teachers, content producers with knowledge of the local context, can understand these kinds of issues and implications.

Dulger (2016) identified that in general English teachers in Turkey are satisfied with the coursebooks in use in the classrooms in Turkey, however there are issues in terms of coursebook content. Dulger (2016) states that a good coursebook needs to be appealing to both teacher and student and be of interest to both. He highlights that a well-designed coursebook can help aid motivation, and that coursebooks should be designed with the teachers' and students' needs in the local context in mind. All of the authors involved in the production of the *Less is More* series have multiple years' experience teaching in Turkey, at various levels, but predominantly at the university level. It is this experience that teachers drew on to work towards a glocalised coursebook series which aims to present students with English language content with familiar cultural concepts, or with identifying Turkish individuals as part of a global community, thus promoting a cross-cultural approach that will be beneficial to the majority of students in Turkey (İlter & Güzeller, 2000; Solak & Bayar, 2015; West et al., 2015).

More details will be given later in this paper as to what the exact process was, but this is the underlying ethos behind the *Less is More* English

coursebook series; a cross-cultural approach that presents 21st century skills, drawing on the knowledge of an international team of authors, with local experience, presenting language points with cultural references that can help students develop the skills they need to succeed. Previous studies into English language learning in Turkey have highlighted the need for textbooks and coursebooks in use in Turkey to factor in the realities of the local context (İlter & Güzeller, 2000; Kizildag, 2009).

When considering the socio-economic issues related to language learning in Turkey (İlter & Güzeller, 2000; Solak & Bayar, 2015) it is also hoped that the *Less is More* series presents a high quality, yet economically sustainable alternative to the very expensive international series which are otherwise available. Across Turkey, particularly in university preparatory programmes, there is an issue with students using original copies of books in class. Whilst this does not affect the students in terms of the content being received, it can have implications for institutions who struggle to meet the publishers' demands and should be an avoidable issue. Higher education institutes are not in a position to directly influence whether students are buying original copies of books, and given that in the state university system in particular many students do not come from comfortable economic backgrounds, it would be unfair to expect families or students to spend potentially limited funds on expensive English language coursebooks. With its local production and local availability, it is hoped that the *Less is More* series will also provide students and institutes in Turkey with a financially viable alternative.

4. METHOD

This study aims to design and develop a localised English language coursebook based on the needs analysis of students and teachers at Istanbul University's Language Centre. This study has benefited from comprehensive research into the field of materials development for language learning and various proposals for future progress. We began this process by doing an in-depth literature review

'Previous studies into English language learning in Turkey have highlighted the need for textbooks and coursebooks in use in Turkey to factor in the realities of the local context'

in the area of materials development in general and more specifically the argument for adopting a more glocalised approach to coursebook writing. We continued this process by researching and analysing similar projects in other countries, such as Japan and Saudi Arabia, where teams had developed their own localised coursebook for their students' specific needs. In addition, we conducted a comprehensive review on the design and development process of coursebook production. We reviewed both the big international publishers and the smaller 'local' projects, and taking some influences from these decided upon a design and structure that would work well in our context. We used the CEFR as a guide on what we needed to include and then we decided on a unit structure but we did not restrict content based on what the levels defined. We wanted to create a book that flowed well in terms of both grammar and themes in harmony with our learners' needs and abilities as Turkish students. The constructivist learning theory framework has been followed to introduce the language and build grammar and language skills.

5. THE 'LESS IS MORE' ENGLISH COURSEBOOK SERIES
5.1. Global and local content

We decided upon the sufficient amount of local versus global content. We wanted to write a book that students could relate to with local references that they could recognise, intertwined with global topics. We also wanted to make sure that the students and teachers did not feel restricted by an uncompromising adherence to grammar and pronunciation principles. We wished to create a space for conversation in the classroom and facilitate a capacity for critical thinking. In addition, we wanted to make the language and material authentic and

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functional for the learner. It was in this frame of mind that *Less is More* was born. As is reflected in the title, we want to give more room for the student and teacher to create, instead of bogging them down with systematic rules and content that they can't relate to. The *Less is More* coursebook series is intended for adult learners with a focus on local, Turkish culture and reference. It is designed to give students, primarily Turkish students, experience of learning a language with references that they can relate to.

The book encourages the empowerment of both teachers and students in the process of classroom-based language acquisition. The teacher becomes empowered by having the freedom and the space to use, adapt and reflect on the material and lesson, while the students become empowered by having the freedom to use the language in their own terms without having to focus on being completely grammatically accurate or focus on precise pronunciation. The glocal angle allows the student to connect with the material in a meaningful way, engage with the subjects and feel relaxed in communicating through their own context of the English language. Embracing a local framework that does not require absolute perfection, learners can express themselves in English *'more flexibly and in any way they feel at ease using it to achieve their communicative objective'* (Salimi & Safarzadeh, 2019, p. 1640). The series also emphasises 21st century skills and facilitates exploratory learning, which encourages students to engage with critical thinking through the medium of English.

5.2. Using own materials

Throughout the years it has been common practice for institutions and teachers to replace or supplement coursebooks with materials they had created themselves in order to engage and connect within their teaching environment. We ourselves as teachers have been no different, constantly feeling as though the material in the books we were using were not engaging or relevant for the students. They were learning about things that they felt no connection to and they felt frustrated and stilted by the dense rules and phonological sounds that were prescribed by the book. We felt that most mainstream coursebooks placed grammar at the centre of learning and that the publishers often opt for safe, middle-of-the-road, global coursebooks (Tomlinson, 2013) that did not fit the needs of our learners. We also felt that there was too much of a focus on English as spoken by native speakers as opposed to the concept of English as a Lingua Franca. We did not assume that our students would only be communicating with native speakers, nor did we want to make them feel restrained by trying to attain perfection from the beginning. Many people believe that *'inability in producing native-like accents is no longer felt inferior by non-native speakers'* (Salimi & Safarzadeh, 2019, p. 1640). We try to reinforce this for students in our book by having Turkish characters and Turkish accents in our listening activities.

As many other teachers, we frequently adapted books for the needs of our learners. This, of course, is a common part of teaching, but students then often questioned why some pages were being skipped and why we were not spending more time on the grammar sections. And, they asked, what was the point in buying these books at all if they weren't going to use them. We, of course, are not anti-coursebook and we can understand the benefits and even necessity of using a coursebook. As Tomlinson (2012) relates, they provide comfort for learners, teachers and administrators. They serve as a reference and a guide for learners' progress, a rich source of material and lesson plans for teachers, and help plan the curriculum and maintain a level of standardisation among the teaching staff.

5.3. Meeting students' needs

It was all agreed that a coursebook is a valuable resource and guide but we wondered if we could find one that better relates to our students' needs. One that does not disempower both student and teacher, but allows them the space to use their initiative by not overcrowding the pages with reductionist language functions and rules. This led us to wonder if we could create our own coursebook that would better suit our learners' needs and help them acquire the language in a more relevant way. Tomlinson (2013, p. 8) believes that it is possible to reconcile the wants and needs of all involved and that *'they can best be satisfied by localised projects which consult learners, teachers and administrators before, during and after the materials writing process'*. We discussed less grammar teaching, more local context, a larger focus on speaking skills, and working with a descriptive model of language as opposed to a prescriptive one. We identified key areas that we could address in our classrooms in order to help our students succeed. As Tomlinson (2013, p. 7) states *'there is a tendency to underestimate learners linguistically, intellectually and emotionally'*. López-Barrios and de Debat (2014, p. 37) argue that *'when teachers use materials produced for international markets (so-called global coursebooks), they adapt them to fit their students' needs, to comply with curricular demands, to supplement any missing information, to provide extra practice, and so on. This is also true of locally produced materials'*. Thus, in this study the authors did not want to underestimate the ability of the students. They organised the language topics, grammar points and vocabulary into units, trying to arrange them in a way that flowed as seamlessly as possible but they did not oversimplify or over explain the language.

5.4. Text types

There has been much debate about what types of text to use in materials design and whether they should be authentic or specially written and simplified for the reader. With one side arguing that simplified texts are too contrived while the other believing that they facilitate learning. As Tomlin-

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son (2012, p. 148) believes a true authentic text is *'one which is produced in order to communicate rather than to teach'*. In the A1 and A2 books, most of the texts were created by us specifically to suit our learners' needs and abilities while always attempting to maintain a natural and authentic style with functional language chunks and a glocal context. Then moving on into B1/B2 we selected authentic material to adapt and create engaging activities around. As you reach the higher levels, the amount of local references is reduced: this reflects the natural process of how language can be developed as the students become more confident in their skills. By meeting and collaborating frequently, we continued to inspire each other and maintain creative motivation. We checked and gave feedback on each other's material and suggest ways of improvement when necessary.

And so, we ended up with a book that consisted of ten units. We decided to open every unit with *The Big Picture*, an introduction to the unit and the topics that are covered along with a unit title and a commonly used idiom. This serves as a lead in for the teacher to progress into the unit. This is then followed by the *Global Knowledge* page, which is designed to help students link any grammar or vocabulary with previous knowledge to make meaningful use of it throughout the unit. We aim to help students build on previously acquired language and help them to build on it. The content of the book – its reading and listening activities – introduces a Turkish identity that students can identify with. It is created with real life expe-

riences in mind and often has a connection to Turkish culture and dialogues between people with Turkish names. For example, there is a text about clothing and shopping that includes a reference to a popular Turkish designer, and a listening comprehension activity about a holiday at a favourite Turkish resort. Food shopping texts discuss universally known food intertwined with Turkish favourites.

5.5. Skills practice

In an effort to cut back on time spent solely on grammar, each grammar point is introduced as a 5-minute grammar with examples that reference Turkish society. As the student progresses to B1 and B2 levels, they will notice that any revised grammar is presented as a 2-minute grammar point. We have created some special features that are seen in every unit such as the task and vlog. These features aim to increase the opportunity for students to practise their skills. The tasks often require the student to write or create something, such as an interview, and then the vlogs allow the student to speak extensively on a topic related to the unit. This aims to give the learner a chance to increase their fluency without focusing too much on grammatical accuracy. There is a page devoted to the different vocabulary and useful chunks that were used in the unit along with a game or activity aimed at helping the learner to retain the language. Finally, the reflections page at the end of the unit allows the student the space to think about what they have learned. This involves some extra information in *That's Good to Know*, where we give sociolinguistic knowledge about language covered in the unit. This is to reflect a more descriptive attitude towards the language and empower the teachers by motivating them to bring their world knowledge into the classroom. *English Expressions* includes some commonly used chunks and phrases related to the topic. The students then get to reflect on and evaluate on what they have learned with the *Can I Do It?* box. The last section, *My Takeaway*, is a space for students to contemplate on what they learned and to make a note of what really stood out for them in the unit.

5.6. Reflection

We thought it was important to add a section at the back of the book for students to practise and reflect on the skills that they had learned. As a result, we have the *Outside the Box* section which consists of *My Vocabulary* pages where students note down new vocabulary from each unit that stands out for them. The grammar reference offers extra support, and the *Creative Tasks* section allows students to practise their new language through an enjoyable game or task.

As we believe in the empowerment of the teacher, we wanted to design and create a teacher's guide that reflects that. We like to encourage continued professional development; with that in mind, we designed the Teacher's Guide as a type of diary, with an emphasis on teacher reflection so that the teacher can learn from and build on each lesson. We found that many teachers' books tried to spoon-feed teachers but we have faith in the teacher's ability to be creative and therefore instead of being a collection of wordy instructions, the Teacher's Guide offers suggestions for how pages are taught, but encourages the teacher to explore their practice and reflect on their teaching. Space is provided in the book for note taking and lesson planning, for reflecting on class experience and content.

6. DISCUSSION
6.1. Cultural appropriacy

Gray (2002) posits that throughout the 1990s coursebooks *'were instrumental in stimulating a considerable degree of soul searching within the ELT profession. What these books had in common was a belief that the global spread of English was inherently problematic, and inextricably linked to wider political issues, and that ELT practices were neither value free, nor always culturally appropriate'* (Gray, 2002, p. 152). In this respect, the *Less is More* English Coursebook series aims at normalising these in the use of Turkish context. By allowing local topics and cultural constructs within the English language coursebook, it tries to achieve the harmonious and equal relationship between local and global constructs.

According to López-Barrios and de Debat (2014, p. 38), *'different labels have always been applied to refer to types of coursebooks according to their context of use'*. Distinctions like *international, global, local, glocal, imported, regional, in-country, localised,* and *adapted* have all been used in the literature (Tomlinson, 2012; Gray, 2002; Arnold & Rixon, 2008; Dat, 2008). The *Less is More* English coursebook series intends to teach English to Turkish speakers with the approach of starting with more local content and extending the more global aspect as the students' language proficiency increases. The series is specifically designed for the Turkish higher education market and is very sensitive to learners' backgrounds, taking the Turkish language into consideration and comparing and contrasting Turkish and English in order to present easier access to the English language. Thus, the series has a glocalised approach and could be labelled as a glocal coursebook.

Basabe (2006, p. 68) stresses that *'the production of textbooks can also be posited to be an ideological enterprise'*. Basabe (2006, p. 66) finds that in the textbooks he examined *'the people from the target culture are characterised by at least three traits that make them distinct from that of the source and international cultures. They are technologically advanced, culturally rich and geographically expansionistic'*. The *Less is More* English coursebook series, however, does not follow hegemonic discourses. On the contrary, it leans towards more humanistic values and realistic facts, topics and values. Topics are chosen on the premise that all human beings are entitled to live with dignity and to freely navigate throughout the world.

6.2. Meeting curriculum requirements

Hasmiati et al. (2015) state that the existing English language course materials are far from the competency target curriculum and they did not meet the students' needs, which was based on the content standard of the school curriculum. The development of local coursebooks in return could meet the needs of the students and be easily in line with the local curricula. Tan (2003) believes

'The series is specifically designed for the Turkish higher education market and is very sensitive to learners' backgrounds, taking the Turkish language into consideration and comparing and contrasting Turkish and English in order to present easier access to the English language'

that *'in countries where English is taught as a foreign language, corpora can be a useful source of information for teachers who are non-native speakers of the language. Corpora can be used as valuable resources of linguistic reference and for materials design'* (Tan, 2003, p. 98). The *Less is More* English coursebook series has also made use of the corpora available online for the vocabulary sections as well.

7. CONCLUSION

The collaboration between the local and global is golden as is the collaboration between the native English-speaking teachers and the non-native speaking local teachers. *Less is More* has been created with such a golden collaboration in mind. The coursebook series in question also aims to empower the teachers in their pursuit of excellence in teaching as well as empower the learners in their quest to learn English to become fully functioning and harmonious global citizens of the world. The series has also aimed at recognising the importance of the local culture in the learning process both as a way of diminishing the foreignness of the English language and granting smooth access into the global culture for the learner by helping construct a balanced glocal identity. The series has sparked new studies into developing glocalised skills and development of new products to meet that need. We are also aware that this type of venture needs further studies to be verified by the users and to be able to bring disruptive innovation to the ELT field/market that is too often criticised as largely dominated by giant global players.

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Original Research

Managing diversity in the classroom

by Deborah Swallow

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In his analysis of the qualities of a good international manager for the EU financed INCA (Intercultural Competence Assessment) Project, Professor Michael Byram of Durham University in the UK identified 'respect for otherness' as one of six key areas. In his INCA Framework he identified proficiency in this area at three levels of competence, basic, intermediate and full. At the Basic level managers and teachers decide too quickly what is good and bad but develop tolerance and learn gradually to adapt. At the Intermediate level they accept that values, norms and behaviours may be different and accept the difference provided their own cultural assumptions have not been violated. Their motivation is to put others at ease and ultimately avoid causing offence. At the Full level they work to ensure equal treatment in the workplace or classroom and can deal tactfully with any issues raised. This paper explores the issues raised by cultural diversity in the workplace and in the classroom, both in terms of behaviour and the use of language in training, and suggests ideas and strategies that teachers can use to manage diversity positively in the classroom.

1. INTRODUCTION

Increasing exponentially this century, people are mixing to a greater extent than ever before, both internationally through the movement of people both on business assignments and through migration, and nationally, through the proliferation of multinational teams incorporating people from different backgrounds. Additionally, we live in a world where intercultural organisations have become more complex (Mahadevan et al., 2011). Globalisation has been accompanied by increased migration and increased international remote communication via ICTs (information and Communications Technologies) (Urry, 2000). Consequently, there is increased interaction between people from different cultural backgrounds both 'face to face' in the context of one's work and personal life.

The higher education and business training sectors are experiencing a period of rapid and competitive internationalisation. The market for adult learning and higher education, both at undergraduate and post-graduate levels, is now truly global, where the choice of study destinations spans an enormous range of institutions in any of the five continents. Additionally, there is a multitude of international conferences in every disci-

pline vying for global participants. The growth of the major Asian economies has led to greater diversification in student bodies and business training audiences.

This paper supports the value of developing diversity and intercultural competence in learning institutions to better understand, create and manage productive and enjoyable relationships with both students, colleagues and other institutions. Data from a wide range of research in disciplines as diverse as applied linguistics and international management support intercultural competence in the classroom as enhancing learning outcomes of students. Unfortunately, a major obstacle in using current knowledge and guidance on intercultural competence is the very fact that it is dispersed across a large number of very varied disciplines (Reid et al., 2009). Consequently, there is a disparity between the conceptual models and terminology employed. It is within this context that this paper attempts to explore the issues around diversity management and to draw together some key concepts, with the objective of providing knowledge and practical ideas that will support those in the Higher Education and Business Training sectors who work with international colleagues and students. This paper aims to identify the key issues potentially facing educationalists at the 'coalface' dealing with colleagues and students and suggests ideas and strategies that teachers can use to manage diversity positively in the classroom. This study, therefore, has high potential value for a wide range of professionals engaged in international and cross-cultural education. However, any insights need to be brought together in a way that practitioners from any field can access them without specialist knowledge and in a way that stimulates awareness-raising and encourages reflection on current practices and available resources.

2. RATIONALE

2.1. The value of developing diversity and intercultural competence

The global education and business environments demand a new skill set with the need for participants to be aware of various differences em-

bedded in national, regional or local cultures. This demand has been driven by a number of factors; the need for more profitable international trade, a fascination with other cultures, a desire to create empathy between peoples and to build bridges of understanding recognising the interconnectedness of nations in the industrialised world. Consequently, educationalists as much as businesspeople are having to adapt their individual style to operate in an international environment. Unfortunately, there is a gap between the aspirations of organisations and the abilities of the people who staff them (Reid et al., 2009). When confronted with intercultural differences, organisations expect their teachers and managers to 'miraculously' obtain instant multi-cultural communication and management skills.

Kavanagh and Kelly (2002) state that the business management literature is full of cases of relationships soured, deals lost and mergers undermined through a lack of cultural sensitivity (cited in Reid et al., 2009). Citing a case study of international business practice, Rugman et al. (2006) state: *'All this proves is that going global is hard work. Not all of these problems could have been foreseen, but a real lack of awareness of cultural differences did lead to many of the organisation difficulties and people problems with a real impact on the bottom line'* (Rugman et al., 2006, p. 29).

A large body of business management literature states the importance of intercultural competence in operating effectively across cultures. Outcomes of this sensitivity to diversity has been seen in two distinct ways: *'in its ability to engender positive outcomes (e.g. the reduction of prejudice; the building of trust; the generation of creativity) and to minimise the potential negative consequences of mishandling intercultural interaction (low cohesion; high levels of miscommunication; personal stress)'* (Reid et al., 2009, p. 9).

We are all internationalists now. It is time to develop the intercultural skills that will serve us through our working adult life. Taking time to understand how others think, feel and behave helps to create a more harmonious and inclusive workplace, increases productivity and empowers global teams. Understanding how those from other cul-

tures have been taught to learn and respond creates a less stressful classroom and engenders better learning outcomes. *'The most ordinary thing in the world is to see things through your own eyes. The most extra-ordinary thing is to see things through the eyes of others'* (Swallow & Milnes, 2013, p. 20).

2.2. Diversity and intercultural competence in higher education and the adult learning sector

According to Reid et al. (2009), little is written about cross-cultural differences and the competencies to handle them, derived from the higher education sector. What there is tends to be in the domains of linguistics and anthropology, where cultural diversity is seen as a core element in scholarly research.

With significantly increasing levels of international activity in the higher education and adult learning sectors, Middlehurst and Woodfield (2007) argue that institutions will need to rely on the establishment of sound, long-term relationships with counterpart institutions overseas. Therefore, these institutions will need to invest in developing and improving skills in the complex matter of achieving intercultural competence.

Additionally, and it can be argued more importantly, educational institutions have a duty of care to their foreign students and have a responsibility to manage their experiences in a more culturally sensitive manner. Therefore, it makes sound sense to develop an increased skill in handling intercultural encounters as a core competence of the organisation. *'Our main conclusions identify a need for cultural sensitivity in the orientation and support of students, continued monitoring of students' needs and expectations throughout their relationship with the institution, as well as the need to consider issues of integration among students'* (Middlehurst & Woodfield, 2007, p. 57).

2.3. Embedding intercultural competence in the adult learning and higher education sectors

The overwhelming message of the literature is that skills for working across cultures, sectors, nationalities or even academic disciplines, are not intuitive, although some individuals appear to have innate abilities and to be 'culturally savvy'. Others have experiences that make it easier for them to work with cultural diversity. These specific competencies need to be acknowledged and developed. Unfortunately, many academicians, used to collaborating in the international lingua franca of English with the shared vocabulary of an academic discipline, assume this is enough to guarantee successful intercultural interactions. However, as the business management literature amply evidences, just because everyone is speaking one language does not ensure shared understanding even at the most basic level. Indeed, educationalists are beginning to find that very fundamental issues, such as academic autonomy and models of pedagogy, are emerging as potentially contentious lines of division across cultures (Reid et al., 2009). The function of diversity management is to train staff to appreciate different approaches based on different cultural backgrounds, to make the workplace more inclusive and to avoid or resolve operational problems arising from cultural differences. It is particularly important for teachers and trainers to understand and apply these principles to business language, management and culture courses.

3. METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

3.1. What is diversity and diversity management?

The primary objective of this article is to draw on published research findings in a variety of academic fields to provide both a sound argument for the need to invest in training intercultural competence for those teaching in the higher education and adult learning sectors and, also, to identify pragmatic ideas of usability in the classroom. It is not intended to be a comprehensive literature review of material on intercultural competence.

Camerer and Mader (2012) define diversity as *'regarding every individual as unique, but at the same time recognising differences in e.g. race, nationality, language and religion as well as gender, sexual orientation, socio-economic status, age, physical abilities and beliefs or ideologies'* (Came-

rer & Mader, 2012, p.188). Hurn and Tomalin (2013) define diversity management as the policy of promoting equality in society generally and in the workplace in particular. In practical terms, diversity management is the competent handling of diversity and inclusion, where diversity is the mix and inclusion is making the mix work; with the aim of producing better cooperation, motivation, engagement and productivity, and more inclusiveness in international dealings or intercultural engagements (Swallow & Milnes, 2013).

As Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) state, one of the problems we encounter in intercultural relations is the management and perception of impressions. In asking and answering questions, attending a job interview, or taking part in an online conference call, the impression we try to convey may be misinterpreted by others. Misinterpretation may involve a negative reaction to language used and also behaviour, but ultimately any misinterpretation is based on pre-judgement.

3.2. Discrimination, stereotyping, prejudice and unconscious bias

Chryssochoou (2004, p. 36) defines discrimination as *'the treatment of a person or a group of people unfairly or differently because of their membership of a particular social group'*. Cameron and Mader (2012, p. 189) distinguish, in particular, gender discrimination as the *'fixed ways of thinking about gender features and how genders are supposed to behave and communicate'*. Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) examine the role of stereotyping as focusing on certain types of evidence, whilst overlooking other evidence that contradicts it. To explain this, they cite the research undertaken by Birkner and Kern (2008) into job interviews involving West Germans and applicants from what used to be known as East Germany. They noted that the applicants, although clearly able to deal efficiently with conflict in the workplace, showed deference to the West German boss, which the West Germans interpreted as lack of assertiveness. In this case the applicant's respect for the boss was interpreted as submissiveness (Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2009).

This example shows how harmful stereotyping can be in intercultural interaction. Schneider (2004) defines stereotyping as *'a positive or negative set of beliefs held by an individual about the characteristics of a group of people. It varies in its accuracy, the degree to which it captures the degree to which the stereotyped group members possess these traits and the extent to which the set of beliefs is shared by others'* (Schneider, 2004, p. 39). He distinguishes between three categories of description: essential features (characteristics which objectively represent an individual); identifying features (characteristics which help us identify people but not always reliably); and ascribed features (what we think of people but are in no way integral and may be inaccurate).

The lesson to be learned is that national stereotypes must always be questioned as people are a mix of a variety of cultural influences – national, regional, professional and societal, and personal – and may be completely different from their supposed national character (Hurn & Tomalin, 2013). Stereotyping on the basis of nationality is 'essentialism' as Zhu (2014) describes it, although nationality is a useful shorthand from which you can dig down to a person's character and cultural identity (Tomalin & Nicks, 2014). Prejudice, essentially pre-judging, can arise from many factors and may be based on stereotypes or on personal experience and received opinion. Schneider (2004, p. 27) defines it as *'a set of affective reactions we have towards people as a result of their category memberships'*. Comparing it with stereotyping, Smith and Bond (1998) state that *'stereotyping is a group of beliefs about persons who are members of a particular group whereas prejudice can better be thought of as an attitude, usually negative, towards members of a group'* (Smith & Bond, 1998, p. 184-185). The active result of prejudice is discrimination. It must be remembered that one can have prejudice against someone but also in favour of someone, and this is normally called bias.

Everyone holds unconscious beliefs about social and identity groups, and these biases stem from one's tendency to organise social worlds by categorising. The term used to describe this trait is 'un-

conscious bias'. Unconscious biases are described as social stereotypes about certain groups of people that individuals form outside their own conscious awareness.

3.3. Language as a tool of discrimination

One of the most important skills highlighted in the literature, and one that is emphasised particularly strongly in the field of applied linguistics and communication studies, is the skill to communicate effectively and efficiently in intercultural contexts (Reid et al., 2009, p. 40). Comfort and Franklin (2008) emphasise the importance of language in a diverse team. Following their analysis in one international organisation they concluded about a third of the problems encountered by international managers were due to language difficulties, a third to cultural differences and a third to task complexity. Henderson (2005) highlights that a major challenge for teams composed of speakers of different languages is the building of trust and relationships that are language dependent. His findings indicate that language diversity *'has a significant impact on socialisation processes and team building, influencing both communication acts and mutual perceptions'* (Henderson, 2005, p. 66). He emphasises that the term 'language diversity' refers not only to the fact that team members speak a variety of mother tongues but to the fact that they also hear in a variety of different ways. This is because they tend to use different interpretive mechanisms due to their diverse backgrounds. According to Henderson (2005), compared with cultural diversity in international teams, language diversity has received little attention and is often overlooked, generally being treated as just one ingredient of culture.

The capacity to catch and correctly interpret contextual clues or signals is a skill required in international teams (Gumperz, 2003) since notions of competence of what constitutes *'a good public speaker, a good conversationalist, a constructive participant in a meeting, or a good team leader, differ greatly between individuals of different national cultural groups and, therefore, language communities'* (Henderson, 2005, p. 75).

The fact that different challenges have been identified in the literature concerning when team members resort to a shared language evidences that management should address the consequence of language diversity.

Another challenge facing diverse teams is political correctness, which raises barriers to developing constructive, engaged relationships at work. In cultures regulated by political correctness, according to Ely et al. (2006), people can feel judged and fear being blamed. They feel inhibited and actually afraid to address even the most banal issues directly, consequently resentments build, relationships fray, and performance suffers.

Legal and cultural changes that have taken place over the past 40 years have ushered in an emphasis on using language to show respect and consideration for different cultural identities and minorities. Principal among these has been language used in gender identity. Making comments about women or men which are considered emotionally inappropriate has become increasingly taboo. Even the title identifying the difference between a married woman (Mrs) and an unmarried woman (Miss) has been combined in the word Ms and when writing *he*, increasingly it is written *he or she* or *s/he*. In the same way, the use of *businessman, chairman* and other phrases using the word *man* as a generic term have been altered. *Businessman* is now better referred to as *business executive*, and *chairman* is better referred to as *chair*.

Blatant prejudice and discrimination in the workplace, previously condoned by society, especially towards women and people of colour, are not acceptable today. Underrepresented groups are now protected from blatant discrimination by laws. In the workplace these cover hiring practices and promotion, with political correctness having reset the standards for civility and respect in people's day-to-day interactions (Ely et al., 2006).

We now refer to speech in English as 'PC' (politically correct, meaning neutral) or 'non-PC' (politically incorrect, meaning discriminatory). Non-PC or politically incorrect language is definitely disapproved of in English speaking countries.

The focus is not just on language but also behaviour, which has been increasingly subject to political correctness. Despite the progress toward greater inclusivity and a better experience at work, political correctness is a double-edged sword. As Ely et al. (2006) state, the PC rule book can hinder employees' ability to develop effective relationships across potentially divisive group differences. Companies need to equip workers with skills – not rules – for building these relationships.

One of the dangers in management is the use of what Young (2003) describes as negative micro-messages. Also known as micro-equities, they *are a cumulative pattern of subtle, semiconscious, devaluing messages which discourage and impair performance, possibly leading to damaged self-esteem and withdrawal and can erode organisations'* (Young, 2003, p. 90).

Effective leadership in culturally diverse contexts needs to engender constructive engagement of differences where everyone develops a mindset and skills that many currently lack. All this has implications for education and training in modern languages and management, where students need to understand and know what politically correct language/behaviour they should use and what they should avoid.

3.4. Legal provisions affecting diversity issues

The key relationships in any workplace are between employer and employee and between employees themselves. In the UK, USA and Western Europe this relationship is usually based on contract, enshrined in laws and directives with the objective of stopping employment issues and controversies that may arise over concerns about the abuse of child labour, excessive working hours, lack of security of permanent employees, sexual harassment and gender, age, race or religion affecting employment or promotion.

As Lunheim (2008) explains, *'in some countries, diverse employment practices, with regard to gender and ethnicity, are enforced through equal opportunities legislation, which might include quotas and other forms of affirmative action. In other settings diversity is not enforced but expected as*

ethical business conduct. In either case, organisational diversity is a matter of maximising the potential of human resources and building capacity for education and change' (Lunheim, 2008, p. 13).

For EU member states, their working practices come from the five enshrined principles of the European Union: the commitment to democracy; the commitment to citizens' and human rights including the free-flow of EU citizens within the European Union; the solidarity of the EU; security; and the right to freedom of EU citizens. These values are upheld by national courts, and the European Court of Justice and the European Court of Human Rights.

In 1999, the EU identified six key areas of diversity, infringement of which would be against the EU law (Treaty of Amsterdam of 1999) and subsequently voted into national law by the member states' own country parliaments. According to the legislation, discrimination against people is outlawed on the grounds of religion, race, gender, age, disability and sexual orientation. The consequence of this is that many countries have become more litigious and organisations have put into place policies and procedures governing the behaviour of their employees to safeguard themselves from being sued. These workplace practices are also intended to safeguard the employees in their undertakings to ensure an inclusive, safe and accountable environment.

4. CAPACITY BUILDING: DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT & INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE
4.1. The organisational level

The challenge in any organisation is to build a unified society or culture without uniformity (Swallow, 2011). In this regard, diversity must be embraced for employees to feel their organisation is inclusive. Building intercultural capacity and competence in an organisation has to be both a top-down and bottom-up approach for diversity management to be successful. Engagement and learning has to take place at every level of the organisation.

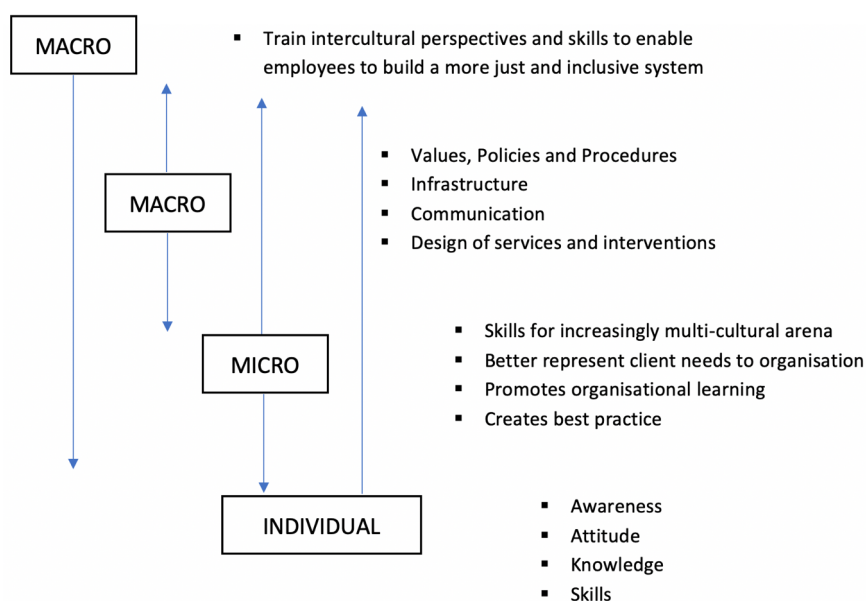Swallow (2011) presents this concept in the framework below:

Figure 1. Intercultural competence and capacity building framework in organisations

French (2011) writes that diversity management can incorporate the management of cultural difference but more importantly, it emphasises the sharing of knowledge and experience to be gained from a diverse workforce with the aim of securing added value for all parties. The principles of multiculturalism and the value of embracing diverse views needs to be accepted not just at corporate policy level but throughout the organisation.

4.2. At the team level

Adler (1997) identified three stages of progression in a successful diversity management programme: Entry (building trust and cohesion in the team), Work (creativity on agreeing aims, organisation and action planning) and Action (team convergence and working together in harmony to achieve targets). She presents the stages in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Managing diversity based on the team's stage of development

STAGE	PROCESS	DIVERSITY MAKES THE PROCESS	PROCESS BASED ON
Entry: Initial team formation	Trust building (Developing cohesion)	More difficult	Using similarities and understanding differences
Work: problem description and analysis	Ideation (creating ideas)	Easier	Using differences
Action: Decision Making and implementation	Consensus building (agreeing and acting)	More difficult	Recognising and creating similarities

In the third column Adler (1997) assesses the difficulty involved in each stage in a diverse workforce. She ultimately considers the entry and initial trust building and action, decision-making and implementation to be the most difficult. In Table 2,

Adler (1997) looks at the difference between effective and ineffective diversity management. She focuses on three areas – the task, the stage and conditions – and assesses the differences between effectiveness and ineffectiveness.

Table 2

Effective and ineffective diversity management

	EFFECTIVE	INEFFECTIVE
TASK	Innovative Divergence (earlier)	Routines Convergence (later)
STAGE	Differences recognised Members selected for task-related abilities	Differences ignored Members selected on basis of ethnicity
CONDITIONS	Mutual respect Equal power Super-ordinate goal External feedback	Ethnocentrism Cultural dominance Individual goals No feedback (complete autonomy)

'Diversity must be embraced for employees to feel their organisation is inclusive. Building intercultural capacity and competence in an organisation has to be both a top-down and bottom-up approach for diversity management to be successful. Engagement and learning has to take place at every level of the organisation'

Looking at her characteristics of effective diversity management, Adler (1997) stresses the importance of opportunities for innovation through the early recognition of difference. She also stresses the importance of tailoring tasks to team members' task-related abilities. Above all, she emphasises the importance of showing mutual respect, focusing on the 'super-ordinate' goal of the company rather than individual agendas and the value of being open to external feedback and introducing changes as needed.

4.3. At the individual level

At the level of the individual, an extensive literature exists on the competencies required to be effective in intercultural interaction. There appears to be much agreement on the core competencies displayed by a person who is culturally proficient. Chief among these are self-awareness, cultural knowledge, language proficiency, openness, flexibility and communication skills.

As Reid et al. (2009) point out, the literature on intercultural interaction competence in the fields of applied linguistics, foreign language education, intercultural studies, psychology, and international business and management focuses predominantly on the following aspects: generic competencies for intercultural effectiveness; personality traits and acquired skills; and communication skills. The international business and management literature adds professional skills and personality traits to the overall picture. Marx (1999) mentions the importance of both professional excellence and of self-reliance and independence. Schneider and Barsoux (2003) mention a related factor, which they refer to as ego-strength, the possession of a strong sense of self. These factors are critical to a person's well-being when in a new cultural environment, where resilience will help them cope better with change.

4.4. The competence framework

In their landscaping study concerning competencies for effective intercultural interaction in the higher education sector, Spencer-Oatey and Stadler (2009) drew up their Global People Competency Framework. This framework explains the competencies that are needed for what they term 'effective intercultural interaction' and are grouped into four clusters: knowledge and ideas, communication, relationships, personal qualities and dispositions. They detail how the competency can be displayed in behaviour and what problems may occur when the competency is not present.

Table 3
Global People Competency Framework Cluster 1: Knowledge and ideas (Spencer-Oatey & Stadler, 2009)

INFORMATION GATHERING	– aware of the need to gather information about unfamiliar cultures and interested to do so; – uses a range of strategies to gather relevant information, including: seeks out and finds helpful books and documents, observes behaviour, asks explicit questions, asks 'cultural informants'.
NEW THINKING	– open to new ideas; – seeks new insights and ways of understanding issues; – challenges conventional thinking; – extends thinking beyond own field of knowledge; – regularly updates and modifies opinions in the light of new information or evidence.
GOAL ORIENTATION	– interested in other people's goals and seeks to find out about them; – maintains a focus on own goals and does not compromise too easily; – willing to take other people's goals into account and to balance own and other's goals when needed.
SYNERGISTIC SOLUTIONS	– shares and surfaces the different perspectives that people have about a problem; – facilitates group members in reconciling and integrating different approaches; – stimulates creative and synergistic solutions and procedures.

Table 4
Global People Competency Framework Cluster 2: Communication (Spencer-Oatey & Stadler, 2009)

COMMUNICATION MANAGEMENT	– attends to the choice of working language(s); – chooses modes of communication that suit the particular communicative purpose; – establishes suitable communication networks; – establishes and agrees communication protocols, takes steps to deal with communication problems.
LANGUAGE LEARNING	– motivated to learn and use other languages, and willing to invest time and effort in this; – confident in the ability to pick up and use foreign languages; – tries out words and expressions in unfamiliar languages.
LANGUAGE ADJUSTMENT	– adopts use of language to the proficiency level of the recipient(s) to maximise comprehensibility; – pays attention to, and adopts where necessary, aspects such as speed, frequency and length of pausing, complexity of sentence structure, vocabulary, use of idioms, colloquialisms, dialects.
ACTIVE LISTENING	– listens attentively and signals that listening is taking place; – regularly checks and clarifies the meaning of important words and phrases, to ensure that all participants attach the same meaning to them, even when they are well known; – notices potential misunderstanding and seeks clarification / negotiates meaning until common understanding is reached.
ATTUNING	– adept at observing indirect signals of meaning, such as intonation, eye contact and body language, and at picking up meaning from them; – pro-actively studies indirect signals of meaning, asking about them in order to deepen knowledge at a conscious level; – learns to interpret indirect signals appropriately in different cultural and communicative contexts.
BUILDING OF SHARED KNOWLEDGE AND MUTUAL TRUST	– discloses and elicits background information that is needed for mutual understanding and meaningful negotiation; – structures and highlights information by using discourse markers to 'label' language, by using visual or written aids, and by paying attention to the sequencing of information; – exposes own intentions by explaining not only 'what' s/he wants, but also 'why' s/he wants it.
STYLISTIC FLEXIBILITY	– pays attention to the different styles of communication (e.g. formal/informal, expressive/restrained); – builds a repertoire of styles to suit different purposes, contexts and audiences; – uses different language styles flexibly to suit different purposes, contexts and audiences.

Table 5
Global People Competency Framework Cluster 3: Relationships (Spencer-Oatey & Stadler, 2009)

WELCOMING OF STRANGERS	– interested in people with different experiences and backgrounds; – pro-active in approaching and meeting new people; – builds a wide and diverse network of friends and acquaintances.
RAPPORT BUILDING	– shows warmth and friendliness in building relationships; – builds connections on a personal as well as professional basis; – shows care and genuine concern for the other person's welfare.
SENSITIVITY TO SOCIAL / PROFESSIONAL CONTEXT	– pays attention to hierarchy and power relations, and how they may influence behaviour in different contexts; – understands how given role relationships operate in different contexts, and the rights and obligations associated with them; – understands how decisions are made in given contexts.
INTERPERSONAL ATTENTIVENESS	– pays attention to people's personal sensitivities and avoids making them 'lose face'; – encourages and builds people up by complimenting them appropriately and 'giving them face'.

Table 6
Global People Competency Framework Cluster 4: Communication (Spencer-Oatey & Stadler, 2009)

SPIRIT OF ADVENTURE	– ready to seek out variety, change and stimulation in his/her life; – avoids safe and predictable environments; – pushes self into uncomfortable and ambiguous situations from which s/he can learn.
SELF-AWARENESS	– conscious that his/her own behaviour may be strange and/or difficult for other to understand or accept; – sensitive to how his/her own communication and behaviour is interpreted by others.
ACCEPTANCE	– positively accepts behaviour and ideas that are very different from his/her own; – accepting of people as they are and does not try to change them; – at ease with those who hold different views or values; – looks for the best in other, and forgives any faux pas quickly and easily.
FLEXIBILITY	– willing to learn a wide range of behaviour and communication patterns; – copies other people's behaviour / communication in order to fit in or make others feel more comfortable; – experiments with different ways of behaving and communicating to find those that are most acceptable and most successful; – adopts behaviour and modifies judgements to suit the circumstances.
INNER PURPOSE	– guided by a well-defined set of values and beliefs; – possesses personal toughness that enables maintenance of a sense of focus in a variety of difficult situations; – self-disciplined and self-reliant; – can provide a clear sense of direction for self and others.
COPING	– possesses well-developed methods for dealing with stress, such as uses humour to relieve tension, builds local support networks, manages negative emotions, looks for something good in what is happening.
RESILIENCE	– ready to risk making social mistakes; – not easily embarrassed by social gaffes; – has sufficient self-confidence to handle criticism or negative feedback; – has optimistic outlook and bounces back quickly after setbacks.

5. APPLICATION TO THE CLASSROOM

5.1. Aims of diversity management training for the classroom

Diversity management training for the classroom aims to make teachers and trainers aware of the different approaches and expectations that others may have in a learning context compared with their own. Status, power and the due acknowledgement of authority (hierarchy) are of the utmost importance in some societies and contrast dramatically with the informal, first-name (equality) experience of many US and UK adult learning establishments. The impact of this difference can have some serious implications on the learning outcomes of many students.

Swallow and Milnes (2013) highlight the misinterpretation across cultures of using/not using 'initiative'. Students in equality environments are expected to use their initiative and work with a 'light touch' of guidance. However, in hierarchical societies, teachers in a superior position are obliged to be fair, caring and strict towards their subordinates and provide them with much guidance and advice. The student in the subordinate position is obliged to be submissive and subservient, to not act on their own accord or 'think for themselves'. They can expect to rely on the superior for support in all areas of life. This clash of expectations, from the author's empirical experience, is the single most important difference to manage for better learning outcomes in the classroom.

5.2. Training structure

Moran et al. (2011) suggest a diversity training programme should consist of the following components: a general 'what is' cultural section; a section that emphasises mastering cross-cultural communication; a section that teaches cross-cultural self-awareness; a section that has cultural specifics; a section that teaches how to resolve conflict; a section on cross-cultural skills; a section that addresses specific employee-requested concerns.

The author would suggest that a great deal of emphasis is placed on cross-cultural communication, where teachers are made aware of how to use more inclusive language, to use less 'jargon'

and to speak more slowly and clearly. They also need to develop the ability to rephrase and multi-interpret the communications they are receiving – seeing circumstances through the eyes of others.

Emphasis should also be placed on the legal issues of discrimination and sexual harassment so that teachers can safeguard themselves from being accused of either, and to ensure that students feel both safe and comfortable. An example would be that in a one-to-one situation a teacher would not arrange to meet alone in a room with a closed door; a public place would be more appropriate.

5.3. Becoming more self-aware of discrimination and unconscious bias

It is always a challenge for people to recognise their unconscious biases; after all, they are unconscious. However, becoming more self-aware and the willingness to adapt one's actions are the key to overcoming discrimination.

One of the most powerful ways the author has found in raising awareness of the issues and to explain the effects of 'unconscious bias', attitudes and beliefs that affect the way people communicate and behave is by showing the video 'A Class Divided' (Frontline PBS, 2019).

In 1964 a US teacher conducted an experiment in otherness and exclusion with an elementary school class, to demonstrate to the children the effects of discrimination. The experiment was filmed and the children's reactions were recorded. The teacher divided the class into two groups: brown eyes and blue eyes. She used language, behaviour and symbols (the wearing of a cloth collar) to influence and persuade the children that one group was superior to the other. It was blatant discrimination. She reversed the roles so both groups experienced being in the 'up' and the 'down' groups.

What were the effects? The 'down' group children showed they were isolated and displayed depression and demotivation; consequently, underperforming both academically and in sports activities. There was confusion, resentment grew against the 'up' group, many of whom were friends of the 'down' group. The 'up' group showed confidence and a willingness to secure their 'up' privileges. In-

terestingly, when the 'down' group became the 'up' group, their ability and productivity in class surpassed the previous 'up' group's performance.

Such an experiment would be unacceptable in today's classrooms; however, the use of the video is useful in teacher and business training sessions on the importance of inclusiveness.

5.4. Resolving cultural differences in a diverse classroom

Our assumptions derive from the values and beliefs we have about how an organisation should work and our behaviours derive from how we think we can succeed in that workplace. As Swallow and Milne (2013) state, *'recognising and adapting to cultural diversity should never involve losing contact with your own set of values and behaviours. What we should aim for is the ability to live with complexity; to live without being judgemental – this is right and that is wrong; and to hold that all ways are valid even if they are 'not mine'* (Swallow & Milnes, 2013, p. 29).

Understandably, we see the world through our own eyes and behave accordingly. To create better rapport, first you have to understand what lenses you are using to see through and how they impact they way you see the world (rather like looking through a pair of spectacles). Next, you need to see how the world looks through others' spectacles. Then you need to develop the attitude, skills and behaviour to adapt your communication to build bridges of intercultural understanding. Ultimately, this is what intercultural competence is all about: awareness, knowledge, attitude and skills, because *'without this intercultural understanding, the MIS factor is at play: MISperception leading to MISinterpretation, causing MISevaluation that creates MIStrust'* (Swallow & Milnes, 2013, p. 21).

Archer (1986) describes, in language teaching to adults, the 'culture bump'. The culture bump occurs when a student's behaviour conflicts with the teacher's expectations: coming into class late and interrupting the class, persistently promising but never delivering assignments, etc. How does the teacher/trainer deal with these 'culture bumps'? First, decide whether their reaction is per-

sonal (intended) or cultural (unintended). Often, of course, it is both. Archer (1986) suggests the steps teachers can take in analysing their reaction: (1) pinpoint the time you felt different; (2) define the situation (where were you?); (3) list the behaviour of the person who caused the 'culture bump'; (4) list your behaviour (how did you react?); (5) list your feelings; (6) list the behaviours you would normally expect from others in that situation; (7) reflect on the underlying value in your culture that prompts that behavioural expectation.

In so doing the teacher moves through three stages: from a culturally biased judgement to the comprehension of the other; giving the student the benefit of the doubt; and finally depersonalising the issue by recognising it as a cultural difference rather than personal rudeness or lack of consideration.

The same process can be used with students, asking them to identify 'culture bumps' in their experience of working with other nationalities or as foreigners studying in a different country from their own. Exchanging ideas in the classroom promotes communication, leading to understanding and increases the sense of community and inclusiveness in a diverse classroom.

A good way for checking whether a teacher's or trainer's reaction to classroom behaviour is personal or based on different cultural behaviour is the process of mirroring. As Archer (1986) explains, mirroring involves exchanging experiences with peers to judge whether the reaction to a situation is common to others or particular to you. If it is particular to you it is probably personal, whereas if it is shared by your peers it may well be cultural. As Archer (1986) comments, the exchange of 'war stories' from the classroom may take on a new depth and value.

Ultimately, following the advice above will help you to gain what Swallow and Milnes (2013, p. 22) call the 'Triple A Rating'. These are the three A's you need to attain to become culturally competent: awareness of your own culture (knowledge about yourself and your core values and how these are expressed in attitudes, behaviours and communication in the workplace); assessment

of other cultures (awareness of others and the ability to compare and contrast otherness with various tools and techniques); action (continuing curiously to learn more; the willingness to adapt and be flexible; and the ability to identify and respond creatively to cultural challenges and conflicts in ways that both respect and engage the other).

6. CONCLUSION

This paper makes the case that diversity management should be a significant ingredient of the teaching/training syllabus for those in the higher education and adult learning sectors. It should also be incorporated in any course teaching business languages, especially Business English. It is especially important, in working for international firms, that employees are aware of the linguistic usages and behaviours that may be unacceptable in the workplace both in relation to company policy and to national/international law. This paper has contributed to raising awareness of diversity management issues in the higher education and adult learning sector and suggested a methodology for teaching diversity management programmes. This is also transferable to in-company training. There is no question that higher education and business will continue to internationalise through the process of globalisation and that as it does so the organisations involved will become more internationally accountable.

This paper shows it is not enough just to learn principles of intercultural communication, useful though they are, and politically correct language; they need to develop intercultural effectiveness as a core competence. Teachers and managers also need to understand how to manage inclusively a diverse workforce and classroom; show respect for students, colleagues and managers; understand that organisations may be held accountable in law for discrimination; and ensure that they implement safeguarding behaviour for both the safety and comfort of themselves and their counterparts.

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Review

Bagels, bumf and buses: A day in the life of the English language (a review)

Original work by Simon Horobin published by Oxford University Press 2019

Reviewed by Maurice Cassidy

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Everybody is interested in where words actually come from. The science of etymology is an important discipline in applied linguistics, and the etymology of words and phrases in English has been the subject of many popular applied linguistics books by David Crystal and others.

In *Bagels, Bumf and Buses* Simon Horobin, Professor of English Language and Literature at Oxford University, has taken an interesting and unusual approach.

He focuses on words we use every day without even thinking about where they come from or what they originally meant, and then organises them according to the progress of a typical day, hence the subtitle, *A day in the life of the English language.*

So, what does this day look like? The book is divided into five parts: Starting the Day, Work, Eating and Drinking, Sport and Leisure, and Evening. Each part is divided into be-tween two and six chapters, making seventeen in all. There is an index of the words and phrases explained and an index of people associated with many of the words and phrases.

Rather than describe the origin of each word or phrase in alphabetical order, as most etymologists do, Horobin chooses to contextualise them in a discussion about habits. Thus, the word *bagels* in the title is part of typical continental breakfast foods. It's a Yiddish word but derives from an old English word for a metal arm-ring. In the same way *focaccia* (a popular Italian bread) meaning 'bread baked in the hearth' and derived from the Latin word *focus* referring to the centre of the home where the household deity was worshipped and the cooking done. Horobin goes on to say that *focus* entered English in the 17th century as a geometrical term referring to a point equidistant from any other point in a curve. Only later did the word come to mean any centre of interest. Staying with Italian breads, the book describes how *ciabatta* comes from a dialect word for an old shoe with a worn-down heel. This loosely describes the shape of the bread, emphatically not its taste! Probably, the most famous continental breads are the French baguettes and croissants. *Baguette* (meaning literally 'a small rod') is also Latin from *baculum* – 'a staff'. Incidentally, adds Horobin, the loan word

from French, *imbecile*, referring to a person criticised for doing something stupid, also comes from *baculum* in the sense of 'without a staff', i.e. someone physically frail. *Croissant,* as most of us know, comes from Latin *crescens* referring to the moon, meaning 'waxing' or 'growing'. Horobin doesn't mention that *croissant* also has a German origin in the word *kipferl*, a popular bread baked in Austria and introduced to France in the 19th century.

But what about bread itself? Obviously, there is a link to *brot* in German and the word does have an old English origin, probably originating in Latin *frustrum* meaning 'piece', 'fragment' or 'morsel'. But the word *loaf* (as in a loaf of bread), is even more interesting. Old English used the word *hlaf*, and in Anglo-Saxon England the *hlaford* was 'the guardian of the bread' (i.e. the lord of the manor) and the *hlafdige* was the 'breadkneader' (i.e. the lady of the manor). *Bread* and *loaf* then became the basis of a large number of idioms to do with wealth and privilege, such as *use your loaf* meaning 'think before you do something stupid'; *know which side your bread is buttered on* meaning 'know where your interests lie'; and *to have your bread buttered on both sides* meaning 'to be able to profit from all sides of a situation, often to the disadvantage of others'.

So, well-breakfasted we are now ready for work. How do we get there? We go by bus, the third word in the book's title. *Bus* is short for *omnibus*, which comes from France. It was first used by a French transport company run by a man called Omnes, who ran buses between the town of Nantes and a nearby lido. His slogan was *omnes omnibus* meaning 'omnes for all'. The Latin word *omnibus* is the plural dative and ablative case in *of omnes* (all). So *omnibus* can translate as 'to all' or 'by all'. Anyway, the world transited into English and became the shortened form, *bus*.

Interestingly enough, the English word *bus* has also spawned a number of idioms, such as *you wait and wait and no bus comes, then three come at once* alluding to the situation where things tend to happen all at the same time, and *you missed the bus* (also, *you missed the boat*) which means 'you missed the opportunity'. *Bus* also has a sporting re-

'The longest of the book's five parts, Work, contains six chapters, five of them devoted to different professions, the law, politics, the church, health services and parenting and school. On the way the book covers language used by electricians, firefighters, plumbers and farmers'

ference. *Parking the bus* means 'to place all your players in defence to stop an attack by the other team', apparently a popular tactic employed the international football manager, Jose Mourinho.

The second word in the title is, *bumf*, usually refers to unnecessary publicity or reading matter. This might include old household bills, correspondence you've read and haven't thrown away, office files and other unnecessary paper. Bumf is an abbreviation of the word *bum-fodder*, a 19th century description of toilet paper. The word *bum* itself is an English word term dating from the 14th century meaning 'buttocks' or 'a drunk person' and a German word *bummer* meaning 'a high-spirited irresponsible person'. A *bummer* in modern British colloquial English describes a really bad experience. Hence the derogatory associations of bumf to described useless paperwork.

The longest of the book's five parts, Work, contains six chapters, five of them devoted to different professions, the law, politics, the church, health services and parenting and school. On the way the book covers language used by electricians, firefighters, plumbers and farmers. The sixth chapter is about the office. The word *office* comes from the Latin *officium* referring to an act of service and comprising two words – *opus* ('work') and *facere* ('to do').

It's interesting to follow the origin of many words now commonly used internationally in social media. The word *Bluetooth*, for example, used to describe wireless communication technology, comes from the name given to King Harald I of Denmark (c.910-985 CE) who united Scandinavian territo-

ries under Danish rule. The Bluetooth symbol combines the two runic symbols that make up Harald's name. The word *spam*, used to refer to unwanted files, refers to a type of tinned meat and meme. It was coined by the geneticist Richard Dawkins to describe a caption spread widely through social media and derives from the ancient Greek *mimema* meaning 'what is imitated'. When a *meme* goes viral, the term comes from the Latin word *virus* coined to describe a poisonous liquid referring to snake's venom. So even new coinages can have their roots in the languages of the past and the study of etymology helps us discover them.

There aren't many Russian etymological references in the book, although the word *bistro*, a French word to describe a small restaurant and bar serving simple meals, is alleged to have come from Russian soldiers occupying Paris in the 19th century and demanding quick meals, shouting 'bistro!' meaning 'quickly!' Horobin doesn't mention that in his book but he does mention *pavlova*, the delicious dessert named after the famous Russian ballerina Anna Pavlova. In fact, although the name is Russian the dish itself was invented in Australia and New Zealand and named after her following her tour there in 1926. For chess players Horobin also refers to the *Kotov syndrome*, named after the Russian chess grandmaster Alexander Kotov and meaning 'a long and hard thought-out strategy, which turns out to be a disaster'.

How can *Bagels, Bumf and Buses* support the languages researcher and teacher of English? The book gives the origin of over 2,000 words and phrases and shows how they are used in the context of everyday life. Therefore, they can provide the basis of reading texts offering an interesting insight into how the English language is used in different daily contexts. In language and cultural study, the book shows how terms are related to daily life in Britain and are used in practice, as well as explaining where they came from and, in many cases, how their use has changed over time. For intermediate and advanced students studying English as it is used in everyday contexts, the book can illustrate the cultural background. It can also be used as a quiz (give students a word and encourage them to find its origin). All in all, an interesting and entertaining way to motivate students to explore language through etymology.

Review

Language unlimited: The science behind our most creative power (a review)

Original work by David Adger published by Oxford University Press 2019

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Admired by no less a luminary as Noam Chomsky and by Gretchen McCulloch, author of *Because Internet*, *Language Unlimited* comes highly recommended. The author, David Adger, is Professor of Linguistics at Queen Mary University in London, President of the Linguistics Association of Great Britain and a language inventor. Yes, he invented the monsters' language used in an ITV (UK Independent Television) series *Beowulf*.

Language Unlimited, subtitled, *The Science Behind Our Most Creative Power* explores the human but also animals' experience of understanding and using language. The aim of the book is to explore where human language creativity comes from and what is its scope and its limits. Based on insights into neuroscience, linguistics and psychology, the book has ten chapters with notes, acknowledgements and an index. Written in a very readable style the book uses examples from multiple languages and means of communication to show how the acquisition of language is a basic process in the brain (universal grammar) and is interpreted in different ways and at different levels by different species and by different types of user.

Broadly speaking, Adger supports the key ideas of Noam Chomsky writing in the 1950s about universal grammar. Using numerous examples of research into child language acquisition he demonstrates how children in their first years of life are able to pick up language and have an internal brain function that enables them to search for and structure the language they hear from their parents and those around them. This skill which Chomsky defined as universal grammar is based in brain functions located in the Inferior Frontal Gyrus. Research in the US by David Poeppel showed how the brain has what Adger describes as a kind of pulse, called brain rhythms, which can sense language structure as well as bodily functions such as breathing. This justifies the linguist Otto Jespersen's observation that children can interpret from words and sentences heard and understood and construct their own sentences. In other words, there exists a notion of structure that guides us when we form and understand sentences.

How then do children convert what they hear around them into syntax, the grammatical structure of words and phrases in a language, and how

do we learn it? We have already seen how Adger describes structures in the brain that look for order in the things we hear around us as very young children, a brain facility that Chomsky described as universal grammar. Adger also discusses an alternative theory of language acquisition developed by the constructionists. Constructionists argue that young children that young children instinctively search for order in what they hear using two key skills, chunking and analogy. A chunk is a way of grouping items that are in your memory. The more you experience it the stronger the chunk. So, repetition is essential to the process of chunking. Analogy, on the other hand, is the process of recognising similarities between chunks and in the process building a syntax of acceptable formulations. Constructionists believe that the process of chunking and analogy is not limited to language but actually operates as part of our general mental processes. Adger contends that although chunking and analogy are useful concepts they fail to represent the full depth and variety of language.

For Adger the key understanding of how language knowledge and ability evolves is the concept of 'Merge', put forward by Chomsky in the early 1990s. Chomsky has argued that 'Merge' underlies the syntax of all human languages. 'Merge' allows us to take similar words and structures and combine them to produce correct sentences. Chomsky's assertion was that 'Merge' combined with language-specific knowledge that children learn could capture the syntax of all human languages. In an article published in 2002 Chomsky argued that the concept of 'Merge' is what distinguishes human from animal communication. As he commented, 'Merge', is what allows creativity in communication. It is how we use language in order to produce new phrases and sentences but in a recognised syntactic structure.

What about sign language, the gestures made by deaf children and adults to communicate? Adger cites research to show that profoundly deaf children born to hearing parents who do not know sign language develop their own language of communication, known as homesign. Homesigning, just like spoken language, has a communicative

'Adger cites research to show that profoundly deaf children born to hearing parents who do not know sign language develop their own language of communication, known as homesign. Homesigning, just like spoken language, has a communicative structure, and homesigners create signs from their minds and from what they see and touch'

structure, and homesigners create signs from their minds and from what they see and touch. Citing research by Goldin-Meadow in Chicago and Haviland in Mexico Adger shows how deaf children find their own ways of communicating with their parents and those around them using their own homesigning language. Most amazingly, in Nicaragua's capital Managua, under a policy known as ISN (*Idioma de senas de Nicaragua*) a school brought together children and teenagers who were deaf and who had developed their own systems of homesign with their families. These children learned how to understand each other's homesigning and went as far as converging on a linguistic system usable by everyone – a common language, in fact, – and all this while learning to lip read from specialist teachers.

One of the fascinating features of Adger's analysis is his use of examples from non-human users of language and their ability to recognise language patterns. He cites the example of Kanzi, a Bonobo chimpanzee born and brought up in Georgia, USA. Kanzi, unlike Matata, the mother who adopted him, was an excellent communicator, requesting food or toys or going somewhere. Kanzi used pictures on a board devised by researchers and called lexigrams to communicate his needs. The lead researcher, Susan Savage-Rumbaugh, argued that experiments showed Kanzi's experiences with language were to some extent comparable with humans although other researchers have contested this. However, there is evidence that animals can recognise words as discrete items. Experiments

'Adger also explores the importance of what he calls Botlang – the language of artificial intelligence – a subject he began studying as part of his BA degree at Edinburgh University in Scotland in the 1980s. He examines research into how computer programmes like Alexa, Siri and Google Assistant manage to understand what you say, most of the time at any rate, and give you a voiced answer'

with chinchillas showed how they reacted to particular sounds and Adger refers to birds and also rats who can distinguish words by their stress pattern although not where words fit in a speech stream.

In his research Adger also explores the importance of what he calls Botlang – the language of artificial intelligence – a subject he began studying as part of his BA degree at Edinburgh University in Scotland in the 1980s. He examines research into how computer programmes like Alexa, Siri and Google Assistant manage to understand what you say, most of the time at any rate, and give you a voiced answer. How do they do it? The answer is the use of big data called treebanks. Treebanks are the stores of hundreds and thousands of bits of voice data obtained from human interactions on the Internet. For example, when you ask Alexa to give you an alarm call for 8.30 in the morning or to play you the music of a particular singer or tune

into a particular radio station, the computer programme analyses the sound waves of the request and segments it into words to give the answer, or say it doesn't understand the question in seconds. This is known as hard AI (Artificial Intelligence). It doesn't try to understand how humans speak. It just looks up huge data sets drawn from the Internet and gives you the answer. The problem is that although the answers to fairly routine questions are regularly and rather impressively answered, AI doesn't have syntax – it can select sentences but can't create them. That is why more unusual requests can leave it lost – the answer isn't in the database. As Adger concludes, AI has a sense of structure but it isn't a human sense. It sees visible sequences and reproduces them. Humans sense invisible structures and create sentences.

In summary, a useful and quite challenging book for linguists and students of linguistics, fascinatingly written and using research from around the world to show how different language groups, people with different types of speech impairment and animals all search for meaning and how to communicate it in their own way. He agrees with Chomsky that the search for meaning and the way to communicate it is 'hardwired' into the brain – what he calls a universal grammar. Above all he asserts the value of Chomsky's concept of 'Merge'. There is, he argues, one human language and we all speak dialects of it. We use language differently but the building blocks are ultumately the same. 'Merge', therefore, is universal to humanity. 'Merge', he agrees with Chomsky, underlies the syntax of all human languages.

News & Events

ICC News

by Barry Tomalin
ICC Board Member

Annual Conference 16th-18th October (COVID-19 permitting)

During this year ICC-Languages has strengthened its relationship with our colleagues in the European Commission for Foreign Languages (ECML) and its Deputy Executive Director, Susanna Slivensky, has kindly accepted our invitation as keynote speaker in our forthcoming annual conference this year, taking place in Belgrade, capital of Serbia, from October 16th to 18th (COVID-19 and lockdown permitting).

The conference programme also features plenary presentations by Tamara Djordjevic, Language Policy Officer of the TEMPUS Foundation of Serbia, Marijana Prodanovic and Michael Carrier. There will also be parallel workshops on methodology, business English and culture and online learning. A great opportunity to meet and learn from international professionals.

ECML New Publication

The European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) of the Council of Europe has announced the completion in English, French and German of its EOL resource website Learning Environments Where Modern Languages Flourish, an output of the ECML programme Languages at the Heart of Learning (2016-2019).

This website offers a wide range of tools to create whole-school learning environments where languages are at the very heart of learning and teaching. This holistic approach supports and strengthens cooperation and professional development of all actors involved – language teachers, subject teachers, teacher educators, as well as head teachers – and embraces all fields of education – learning, teaching, schools and education systems.

At a time when schools are cautiously reopening across Europe, we are convinced that the EOL tools and resources can help develop and strengthen quality language education, which celebrates linguistic and cultural diversity and is so essential today to ensure intercultural dialogue, linguistic and cultural diversity and social cohesion in our societies.

EUROLTA News

by Myriam Fischer Callus
EUROLTA Coordinator

EUROLTA Expands in Europe and Beyond

The ICC EUROLTA teacher training programme has continued to expand. In Germany the iOR language school founded in Freiburg in 2004 and specialising in the teaching of German as a foreign language is offering a EUROLTA Certificate course in its subsidiary school in Loerrach. IOR is one of the largest schools in the Freiberg area and accommodates 500 students daily.

The Hessen Volkshochschulverband (the umbrella organisation of all adult education centres in Hessen, Germany) handed over their EUROLTA licence to one of its schools, VHS Hanau. Eleven participants have recently completed a EUROLTA course and a new class will start in August.

Across the Atlantic in the twin-island state of Trinidad and Tobago the JSM Language and Innovation Centre is keen to run EUROLTA courses to train teachers to support families emigrating from

Venezuela because of the problems there. JSM offers a wide range of customised language courses, cultural events and language immersion trips. They are also an accredited Exam Centre for SIELE (*servicio Internacional de Evaluacion de la Lengua Espanola*) administered by the Cervantes Institute in Spain.

In Cairo, Egypt, the House of Knowledge and the Teacher Training Academy hope to offer EUROLTA to student teachers in Egypt with the possibility of extending the training to Jordan. The school, founded in 2016, offers a wide range of language classes and is an accredited exam centre for IELTS, TOEFL, Goethe and DELF (*Diplome d'Anglais en Language Francaise*).

RUDN University News

by Elena Malyuga
Editor-in-Chief TLC

Russian Universities Are Gearing Up for Distance Work

This summer prospective students can apply through a special online platform and supply the originals later on their first year of study. There is no need to fear closed borders: the digital faculty provides an opportunity for foreign citizens to enrol at RUDN University without leaving their country.

'RUDN University decided not to depend on opening borders and to give our foreign applicants the opportunity to start their studies at home, before arriving in Moscow. We divided the entire programme of the preparatory faculty into seventeen modules. They all will be available for independent study online, and a foreigner will need to go through nine of them. Lectures will be held for virtual groups in real time. Regular native speaker interaction will be provided as a communication exercise. Special tutors will help promptly resolve all organisational issues,' – explained President of RUDN University Vladimir Filippov. Mr Filippov

also spoke about the university's operation during the pandemic, including the most challenging issues faced by the staff and administration, the new projects and what prompted the ultimate decision to initiate a digital version of the entire faculty.

90 Donors for the 'Follow Me!' Campaign

June 10, RUDN University ran the *Follow me! #I'mAResponsibleDonor* campaign on the threshold of World Donor Day. A total of 90 donors visited the mobile blood drawing points, among them RUDN University Rector Oleg Yastrebov, Vice-Rector Sergei Bazavluk, and Dean of the Faculty of Philology Viktor Barabash. The campaign will extend up until June 20, and additional mobile blood drawing points will open on the basis of volunteer and coworking centres.

QS World University Rankings 2021

The QS agency has presented the QS World University Rankings 2021. RUDN University has gone up by 66 positions and ranked 326. This year, the university showcased its progress for all the indicators, most notably for Academic Reputation (up by 138 points) and Employer Reputation (up by 112 points compared to last year results). The world currently houses over 25.000 higher educational institutions, and the top thousand are rated in the QS ranking. In 2021, 28 Russian universities were included in the QS World University Rankings 2021. The QS World University Rankings, compiled by QS Quacquarelli Symonds, a global research and advisory centre, includes the top 1.000 universities in the world. QS uses six indicators to compile the ranking — academic reputation, employer reputation, citation index, student-teacher ratio, international staff, and the share of foreign students.

Winners of RUDN University International Scholarship

RUDN University is proud to congratulate 25 students who won the RUDN University International Scholarship programme. The winners will receive a lump sum payment of 41.500 roubles per person.