TRAINING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

'Tell me and I forget. Teach me and I remember.

Involve me and I learn'

– Benjamin Franklin

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Introduction to Issue 4(4)

by Editor-in-Chief Elena N. Malyuga

Welcome to Issue 4(4) of Training, Language and Culture. As some of you may know, TLC dates back to 2017 when on February, 17 the first issue that we poured our souls into saw the light of day. It was all the more meaningful to us since the inaugural release got the blessing of David Crystal himself who was supporting enough to write both an intro and an article for it. In his 'Reflections on TLC' Professor Crystal wrote:

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

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

These lines became our mantra, and three years and a lot of hard work later we are proud to announce that TLC has been accepted for inclusion in Scopus! It is a fundamental milestone and an honour to be part of this unique database that supports and connects people across the entire academic community.

And, of course, we wouldn't be here if it wasn't for the ongoing support of our publisher, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia, and all of you, our outstanding contributors and devoted readers. We are wholeheartedly committed to keeping up the good work.

The final issue of 2020 broaches some riveting questions in the realm of EFL assessment, applied linguistics, active learning, education for sustainable development, teaching second language to migrant and ethnic minorities, and the lexical composition of contemporary political discourse.

In *Standard setting and internal validation of a novel approach adopted for assessing speaking* Zoltán Lukácsi reports on research into the applicability of a novel method of assessing speaking and on the internal validation of the proposed measure. The article gives a detailed account of the level-specific checklist approach intended as a tool to overcome the problems associated with human-mediated assessment. The two research questions posed in the article are postulated so as to address some prevailing challenges that have to do with scoring candidate performance at B2 speaking exams.

In *Programming for specific purposes in linguistics: A new challenge for the humanitarian curricula* Alexey I. Gorozhanov and Innara A. Guseynova look into what they call 'programming for specific purposes' to explore the ins and outs of imparting programming knowledge to future foreign language teachers and language researchers. Undeniably, programming skills are getting increasingly essential and ever more sought for. Hundreds of universities, thousands of professors, and scores of students and practitioners teaching, learning and practicing the discipline are enough testimony to the fact. As language specialists are currently being involved in a variety of technical projects along their professional path, developing their programming skills is what can help them work their way to the top. Going step by step through two parts of a three-part programming tutorial, the authors explore the subtle aspects of teaching Python to language students and offer valuable insights into both the process and some truly impressive outcomes.

In *Towards synergetic combination of traditional and innovative digital teaching and research practices* Olga A. Suleimanova delves into digital engines as powerful tools reshaping today's research methodologies, as well as teaching and

learning practices in higher school. Digital techno-logy is transforming the modern education sector, and timely answers to the related challenges are in order. The author considers the pros and cons of digitalisation in the classroom setting and suggests some credible ways for an educator to meaning-fully and consistently build on the upsides while objectively minimising the downsides. Most im-portantly, the article puts emphasis on digital savvy as a two-way street where both students and edu-cators are seen as benefactors of an appropriately organised digital education environment.

In *Promoting the UN sustainable development goals in teaching, research and democratic urban life: Approaches to lifelong education for sustain-able development* Katrin Schwanke looks into the field of Education for Sustainable Development by showing how sustainability-oriented topics can be integrated into foreign language teaching at school, into academic education and research in the field of business economics as well as into democratic city life in Germany. The paper lists the nomenclature of the Sustainable Development Goals, discusses the approaches to promoting SDGs in foreign language learning and expands on the idea of the need for SDGs and their develop-ment and promotion by stressing the importance of raising the awareness about these issues in dif-ferent educational contexts. The author concludes that quality education – as one of the fundamental ideas behind SDGs – should be viewed as a key instrument in furthering sustainable development.

In *Which competences for whom? Supporting the supporters of work-related L2 development by migrants and ethnic minorities* Matilde Grünhage-Monetti discusses the concept of competence in language education to determine those applicable to various actors in education, labour administra-tion and business supporting work-related second language development. The research is based on best practice analysis and offers a well-structured account of competences that need to be in place to ensure efficient outcomes in the field of work-related L2 development. These competences have proved useful for different agencies and actors committed to meeting the needs of migrant and ethnic minority students who learn languages in order to access employment and make progress in their work for their own benefit, as well as for the benefit of employers and society in general.

Finally, in *The creative potential of contempo-rary Russian political discourse: From new words to new paradigms* Natalia V. Kozlovskaya, Andrey V. Rastyagaev and Julia V. Slozhenikina analyse neologisms and coined words that have dominated Russian political discourse in the period between 2010 and 2020. Using the corpus approach, the paper relies heavily on a wide array of examples to highlight some relevant semantic and derivational processes and illustrate how neologisms are being employed as tools of creative narration in spoken and written Russian political discourse, often turn-ing into Internet memes.

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

As Enid Blyton once wrote, *'The best way to treat obstacles is to use them as stepping stones. Laugh at them, tread on them, and let them lead you to something better'*. Obstacles have definitely left their mark on 2020, but hopefully we all came out the other side stronger than ever and are ready for further successful collaboration in 2021.

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Original Research

Standard setting and internal validation of a novel approach adopted for assessing speaking

by Zoltán Lukácsi

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In 2016, Euroexam International launched a complex and ambitious project to redesign the rating process and practice of its subjectively scored papers. As part of the project, a series of level-specific performance checklists were developed for speaking and writing. This paper reports on the standard setting and internal validation procedures for B2 speaking in English as a foreign language (EFL) as executed in Spring, 2020. The participants of the study were 8 EFL teachers and oral examiners from international backgrounds with varying degrees of expertise in language testing. The method adopted for standard setting was the Body of Work method. The participants were allocated into either of two groups working independently on a random sample of 32 audio-recorded live speaking paper performances in a counterbalanced design. The study found that (a) a level-specific 30-item checklist for EFL speaking at B2 can adequately replace the operational rating scales for pass/fail decisions; (b) the granular nature of the checklist renders it more capable of covering the targeted content areas; and (c) the explicit checklist statements support fairness, transparency and accountability.

KEYWORDS: *assessing speaking, speaking assessment, checklist, standard setting, validation, transparency, EFL, English as a foreign language, Euroexam*

1. INTRODUCTION

Rating scales are the primary measure when it comes to assessing speaking or writing in high-stakes contexts. The false promise of transparency is easily challenged when considering that the score is supposed to reflect the intricate texture of candidate ability, assessment criteria, rater perception, and rating consistency (Hamp-Lyons, 1990). Rating on a scale can be used to classify test takers into a series of broad levels, but they are inad- equate when fine-grained distinctions are required, as in level-specific testing. Euroexam International repeatedly redesigned its operational rating scales over the past two decades, but problems with score inconsistency and rater reliability still persevered. In an ambitious research agenda, a set of checklists was developed to help resolve the problems with human-mediated assessment. The study this paper reports on sets out to answer the following research questions.

(1) Can a checklist be used to score candidate performance at B2 speaking exams in place of the operational rating scales without distorting the construct?

(2) What is the performance standard for speaking general English at level B2 on the checklist?

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Research into the assessment of speaking a second or foreign language has for the most part focused on construct relevant issues, such as definition, operationalisation, and validation, and rating scale development (Fulcher, 2015). Fulcher (2003) provides a detailed overview of the historical development of the construct of speaking pointing it out that the term itself has lost much of its former appeal with the advance and general acceptance of the action-oriented approach in the CEFR in Europe and beyond (Council of Europe, 2001). The ability of speaking is a multi-faceted construct (Fulcher, 2003, p. 25) as operationalised by the principal components of (a) pronunciation and intonation; (b) fluency; (c) discourse management; (d) language resource range and accuracy; and (e) task achievement (Fulcher, 2003; Luoma, 2004). Apart from these fundamental components, a number of complementary elements have been suggested by research depending on context (Chapelle, 1999), domain specificity (Biber, 2006), level of integration (Lewkowicz, 1997), scoring method (Wang et al., 2018), mode of delivery (Nakatsuhara et al., 2016), test format (Ffrench, 1999), test purpose (Douglas, 2000), and topical knowledge (Huang et al., 2018). The decisions on these and many other variables inform the test specifications and translate into the rating criteria (Luoma, 2004, p. 114). Accordingly, Weir (2005) makes a primary distinction between a priori validity evidence based on theory and context, and a posteriori validity evidence nested in scoring, criterion measures and consequences.

Luoma (2004, p. 59) defines scores for speaking as an expression of *'how well the examinees can speak the language'*. Scores are expected to arrive from the assessment criteria and reflect the operations the candidate performs under the conditions described in the test design (Weir, 2005, p. 191). However, there is a plethora of research discussing threats to the validity of scores for speaking. Rating scales are known to be laden with unfavourable properties including score inconsistencies (Hamp-Lyons, 1990; McNamara, 1995) that necessitate post-test adjustment (Bonk & Oakey, 2003; Eckes, 2005; Lumley & McNamara, 1995; Weigle, 1998; Wigglesworth, 1993). Unreliable scores can be the result of criteria described in vague terms that leave ample room for divergent construct interpretation (Alderson, 1991, 2007; Alderson et al., 1995; Luoma, 2004; Upshur & Turner, 1995). Further, rating scales have been criticised for lack of reliance on empirical research (Chalhoub-Deville, 1997; Fulcher, 1996; Harsch & Martin, 2012; North, 1997; North & Schneider, 1998; Turner & Upshur, 2002). Over and above the problems with rating scales, much of the research to date has focused on differences between rater cognition and behaviour in comparison with candidate performance (Ang-Aw & Meng Goh, 2011; Kormos, 1998; Lumley & McNamara, 1995; McNamara, 1995; Orr, 2002; Wigglesworth, 1993).

Recent attempts at counterbalancing threats to scoring validity have increasingly relied on technology. Developments in IT coupled with sophisticated statistical data processing enabled analysts to control for unmodeled rater variance in speaking performance assessment (Bachman et al., 1995). In a purposely partial review, McNamara and Knoch (2012, p. 570) declare that *'by the 2000s, then, the Rasch wars were essentially over'* claiming that many-facet Rasch measurement (MFRM) provided the adequate response to the noise in test scores.

Apart from the criticism for statistical inconsistency (De Jong & Linacre, 1993), MFRM works on the level of the scores but leaves the underlying construct unaddressed (Lumley & McNamara, 1995). Automated assessment offers a radically different but highly resource-intensive method to ensure scoring validity (Xi, 2010). Research has shown, however, that some candidates might repudiate natural language processing algorithms (Wood, 2020).

Few studies have attempted to design and develop an alternative assessment strategy to rating scales. Fulcher et al. (2011) proposed the Performance Decision Tree of a series of binary decisions based on a rich description of empirical data. In accordance with the recommendation that level-specific performance be judged in relation to a list of points deemed relevant (Council of Europe, 2001), Kim (2010, 2011), Struthers et al. (2013), and subsequently Lukácsi (2020) developed writing assessment checklists with a diagnostic merit.

Criterion-references assessment necessarily involves standard setting to classify examinees into attainment levels (Kaftandjieva, 2004). The essence of standard setting is the establishment of one or more cut-off points on the score scale. Kane (2001) views these cut scores as operationalisations of performance standards. The theory and practice of standard setting is well-documented in the literature (Cizek & Bunch, 2007; Kaftandjieva, 2004, 2010). Despite its scientific nature, however, standard setting relies on personal judgement (Reckase, 2009) which might in turn lead to

different standards (Kaftandjieva, 2004).

The review of the relevant literature in the field suggests that while rating scales may be the most frequently applied instrument when assessing spoken performance, they are innately fraught with a number of issues from imprecise wording through lack of empirical support to inconsistent rater behaviour. One solution proposed to control for much of the unfavourable noise within the judgements is rating on a checklist, where rater judgement is limited to noticing construct elements and indicating their presence (or absence).

3. EUROEXAM CHARACTERISTICS
3.1. The speaking paper

Established in 2002, Euroexam was designed to test candidates' spoken production and interaction in a paired format to reflect the professional preference for dyadic oral performance assessment (Swain, 2001). The test specifications (Euroexam International, 2019) provide a detailed account of the contents defined. The fundamentals of the speaking paper at level B2 are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Speaking paper tasks, target activities, agents, and time

TEST TASK	TARGET ACTIVITY	AGENTS	TIME
Interview	Interaction: conversation	Interlocutor interviews each candidate in turn	2 min
Picture story	Production: narration	Individual candidate performance in succession	5 min
Transactional dialogues	Interaction: scripted functional role-play	Interlocutor talks to each candidate in turn	5 min
Discussion	Interaction: negotiation	Candidates discuss topic together	5 min

As Table 1 shows, the speaking paper contains four tasks at level B2. Candidates have 10 minutes preparation time for the picture story with a cartoon strip with a starting sentence printed as prompts before the examination. During preparation, candidates can use a dictionary. In a paired format where candidates can choose their partners, the speaking exam starts with a short, scripted interview on a pre-selected topic. The interlocutor asks two questions from each candidate

helping them get accustomed to the test situation. The second task aims to test candidates' independent spoken production through a 2-minute picture story, where they can rely on their notes but cannot read out from them. The third task is a series of three scripted dialogues starting with a cue card, followed by candidate response, then interlocutor spoken cue and complete with candidate response. Finally, in the discussion task, candidates have 3 minutes to try and agree on a given topic. The allocated time in Table 1 contains time for setting up the tasks and rounding off the examination.

In a live examination setting, candidate performance is assessed using the operational rating scales (Euroexam International, 2020). The scales have five components: (a) range and accuracy; (b) fluency and coherence; (c) pronunciation; (d) communication strategies; and (e) overall impression. Each component is scored 0 through 5. Score band 3 is a description of the minimally competent speaker at the level. The examiner scores performance on components (a) to (d), and the interlocutor scores performance on component (e). The rating scales are not task-specific, even though some tasks might lend themselves more to certain components.

The results are expressed on the reporting scale ranging from 0 to 100. The observed scores are converted by a simple linear transformation. The examination applies a combination of the conjunctive approach and compensation when reporting results. Any candidate with a reported score of 60 or more is regarded as successful in speaking. However, only candidates below a reported score of 40 are viewed as failing test takers, because the other test paper results might compensate for the relatively weak performance.

3.2. Reported scores for speaking
The frequency distribution in Figure 1 shows a tendency with reported scores for speaking. First, scores lower than 40, the minimum requirement, were rare, hence a negatively skewed distribution. Second, the most frequent score was 60, the paper level equivalent of a pass. In December 2019, test paper intercorrelations with speaking were always

weaker (varying between $r = 0.411$, $p = 0.000$ and $r = 0.518$, $p = 0.000$) than among the other three papers in the monolingual exam (varying between $r = 0.470$, $p = 0.000$ for writing and listening, and $r = 0.645$, $p = 0.000$ for reading and writing). Reported scores for speaking correlated strongest with listening ($r = 0.518$, $p = 0.000$) rather than writing ($r = 0.498$, $p = 0.000$) despite the similarities in language activities. Such relationships among test papers were regular. Finally, even though appeals for rescoring were rare as a rule, if initiated, the outcome tended to be a modification of the reported score.

The reliability of the reported scores using the rating scales was $\alpha = .934$ with scale component correlations ranging from $r = 0.659$, $p = 0.000$ to $r = 0.779$, $p = 0.000$, potentially pointing to covert overlaps within the measurement traits. Reported scores for speaking seemed to be somewhat inconsistent with the rest of the test particularly with regard to low achievers.

3.3. The checklist
Developing a level-specific checklist for the assessment of speaking was part of a complex research agenda at Euroexam International that aimed to review and redesign current operational practice. The reasons for launching the research programme were manifold.

First and foremost, as explained in the review of relevant literature in the field, language testing theory and practice suggested that rating scales were inherently laden with challenges to construct representation and consistent construct interpretation.

Second but still within the realm of professional trends and traditions, rating scales that spanned over a number of proficiency bands were not ideally suited for level testing.

Third, as outlined in Reported scores for speaking, empirical data revealed unfavourable characteristics resulting from rating scale use rather than reflecting genuine tendencies within the population.

Fourth, there was an increasing intention at Euroexam International to improve transparency and accountability.
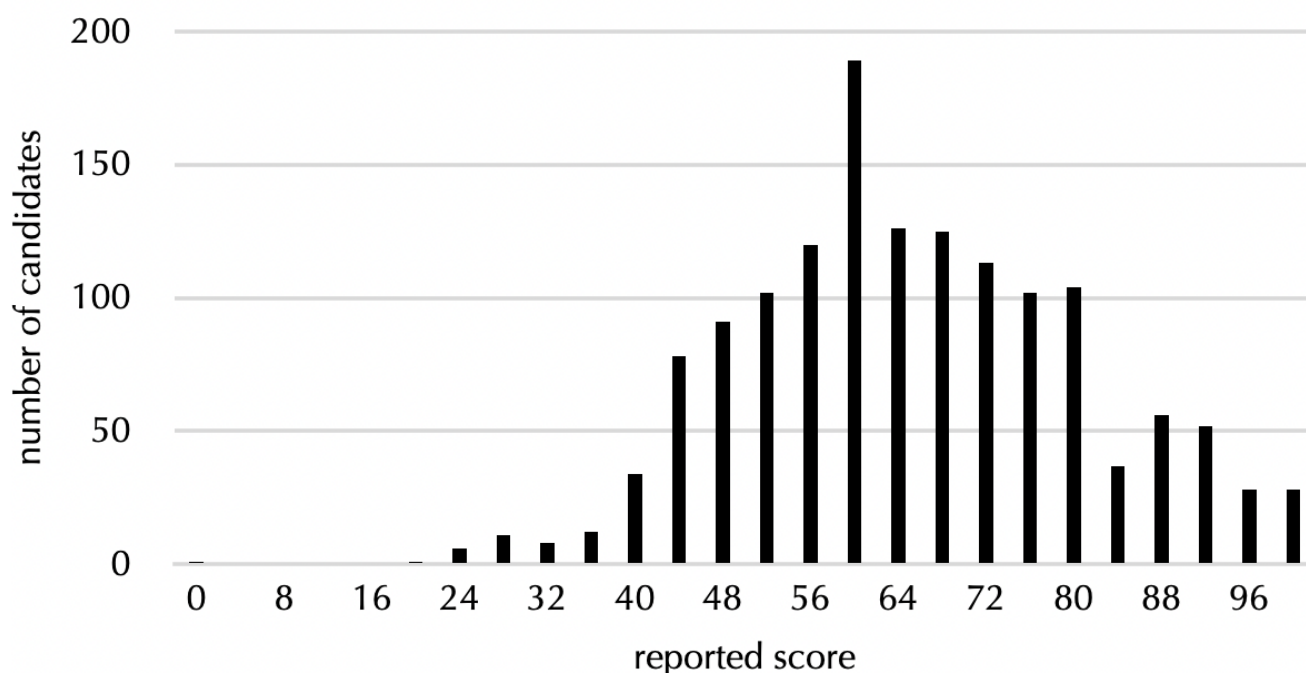
Figure 1. The frequency distribution of reported scores for speaking in December 2019 (*N* = 1424, *M* = 65.14, *SD* = 15.64)

Encouraged by the professional success of the set of checklists for assessing writing (Lukácsi, 2020), the research and development team developed a checklist for assessing speaking at B2 over the course of 19 months between May 2018 and November 2019. The 30-item checklist relied heavily on CEFR band descriptors but was at the same time developed in accordance with the test specifications and our history and ethos of language testing. A detailed account of the development of the checklist for assessing speaking falls outside the score of this research report. In brief, it entailed a review of theory and research findings, construct specification and analysis of sample video footage, piloting a pool of items under operational conditions, and rescoring audio recordings of live spoken exams.

4. THE STUDY

The participants in the study were eight experienced EFL teachers with over 20 years of teaching practice each (*M* = 27.50, *SD* = 7.52). They were also skilled interlocutors and oral examiners from international backgrounds with varying degrees of

expertise in language testing (*M* = 13.12, *SD* = 7.60). As such, they were all familiar with the test specifications, the construct, and level requirements. For the purposes of the study, they were all independently contracted, briefed and asked to sign an informed consent and confidentiality form. In the data collection design, the participants were randomly assigned either to Group A or to Group B but worked individually.

The materials of the study were 32 audio-recorded live B2 speaking performances. Materials selection was informed by the following factors: (a) available panel; (b) available time; (c) the detailed test specifications; (d) the paired format of the speaking paper; (e) audio-recording, where same sex candidates could be difficult to differentiate; and (f) the fact that there was no link between test administrations in this part of the test. Within the constraints of these factors, the sample was limited to a specific exam location under the code name BP, the December 2019 administration, and different sex dyads. Further, for reasons of consistency, two sets of tasks were selected under the codes A12GM and B34HM, where A and B were two in-

terview topics; 1, 2, 3, and 4 were four picture stories; G and H were two sets of transactional dialogues; and M was a topic for discussion. Eight pairs of candidates were tested on tasks A12GM and another eight pairs on B34HM. The descriptive statistics for the sampled performances were: $M = 64$ raw score points, $Mdn = 62$, Mode = 56, $SD = 15.6447$.

The Body of Work method (Cizek & Bunch, 2007; Kingston et al., 2001) was used for standard setting. In essence, this method requires judges to evaluate complete sets of examinee performance and to render a single holistic judgement about each performance sample. First, the performance

samples are ordered by total score, and the panellists are informed about which samples received high scores and which received low scores. Later, samples that are clearly at a given level and judges agree in their classification are systematically removed between rounds of data collection. Such samples are replaced by additional ones with scores near the score points at which there is greater disagreement. Kingston et al. (2001) refer to the activities as *rangefinding* (Round 1) and *pinpointing* (Round 2).

Data were collected in a counterbalanced design. The three stages panellists' tasks were divided into are represented in Figure 2.
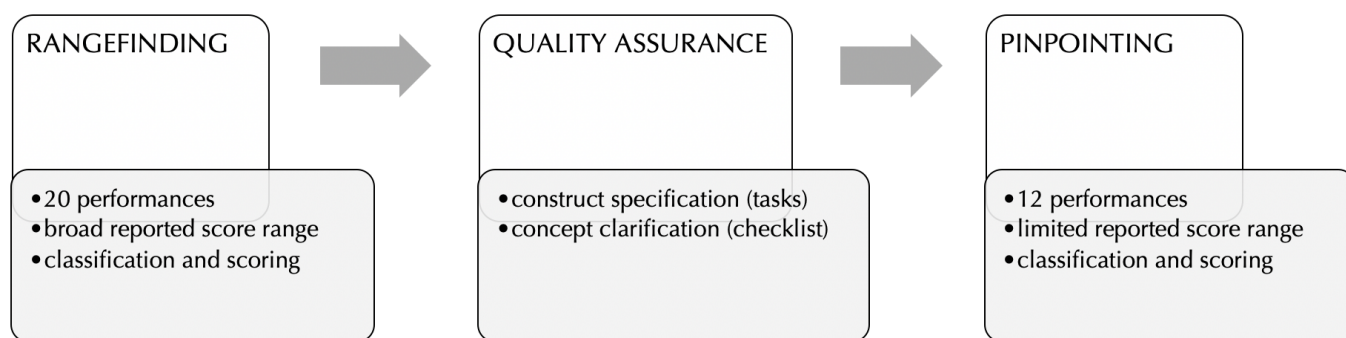
Figure 2. A flowchart of the stages of panellists' tasks

At the rangefinding stage, panellists in Group A listened to five candidate dyads and evaluated their speaking performances with regard to level B2 as a fail (0), a pass (1), or a pass with distinction (2). Group B listened to the same sample and scored the performances using the checklist items. As a next step within rangefinding, the panellists were given another set of five candidate dyads, but they swapped their roles. At the quality assurance stage between rangefinding and pinpointing, four panellists were assigned to work on construct specification in the tasks, while the other four worked on concept clarification in the checklist. Then, informed by the results from rangefinding, the pinpointing stage worked much the same way as regards data collection with two differences. First, clearly off-target performances were not sampled for judgement so that the precision of setting the

standard could be increased by a more restricted score spread. Second, only six recordings, i.e. 12 candidate performances, were evaluated in a counterbalanced design.

The analytical procedure used to calculate the cut score was logistic regression. The operational definition of the cut score was the raw score where the probability of classification into either of two adjacent classes of success was the same.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
5.1. Applying the checklist
The checklist for assessing speaking at B2 can be found in full in Appendix A. Table 2 contains the item level descriptive statistics. Item responses were analysed using classical test theory (p-value, r_{it}, $r_{it}(w)$) and applying modern test theory (A, B, SE (B), M1, M2, M3), as well.

Table 2
Speaking checklist item descriptive statistics

LABEL	P-VALUE	R_{IT}	R_{IT}(W)	A	B	SE (B)	M1	M2	M3
Item_01	0.824	0.344	0.337	2	-0.978	0.141	0.74	-0.458	0.128
Item_02	0.278	0.258	0.212	1	0.917	0.218	1.519	-0.226	-0.139
Item_03	0.167	0.194	0.186	2	0.844	0.142	1.487	0.486	0.553
Item_04	0.194	0.468	0.513	3	0.545	0.104	-1.031	-0.777	-0.806
Item_05	0.009	0.149	0.144	1	4.684	0.973	99.999	-0.714	-0.876
Item_06	0.991	0.138	0.132	1	-4.862	0.973	99.999	-0.648	-0.844
Item_07	0.389	0.399	0.397	2	0.188	0.116	0.433	0.109	0.728
Item_08	0.519	0.294	0.235	1	-0.156	0.198	-0.396	-0.133	0.091
Item_09	0.185	0.148	0.126	1	1.46	0.249	-1.214	0.341	0.196
Item_10	0.296	0.479	0.493	3	0.31	0.095	0.706	0.54	-0.282
Item_11	0.056	0.253	0.254	3	1.086	0.153	1.137	-0.875	-0.365
Item_12	0.713	0.527	0.561	3	-0.486	0.097	0.171	-0.314	-0.868
Item_13	0.222	0.384	0.389	2	0.646	0.13	-0.417	-0.536	-0.411
Item_14	0.454	0.445	0.454	2	0.032	0.115	-1.001	-0.411	-0.74
Item_15	0.667	0.483	0.461	2	-0.486	0.12	-0.253	-0.414	-0.057
Item_16	0.62	0.549	0.58	3	-0.295	0.093	-0.454	-0.282	-0.143
Item_17	0.833	0.463	0.48	3	-0.795	0.11	0.22	0.09	0.079
Item_18	0.815	0.316	0.281	1	-1.633	0.25	-1.469	0.255	0.279
Item_19	0.769	0.442	0.426	2	-0.782	0.13	0.004	-1.284	-0.777
Item_20	0.731	0.394	0.388	2	-0.667	0.126	-0.599	1.268	0.319
Item_21	0.741	0.503	0.502	3	-0.549	0.099	-0.386	0.743	0.162
Item_22	0.75	0.361	0.349	2	-0.723	0.128	0.513	1.103	0.775
Item_23	0.12	0.171	0.15	1	1.979	0.294	99.999	0.236	-0.415
Item_24	0.5	0.425	0.417	2	-0.077	0.114	0.169	-0.623	0.16
Item_25	0.583	0.496	0.532	3	-0.224	0.091	0.168	-0.016	0.74
Item_26	0.139	0.283	0.261	2	0.961	0.151	-1.166	0.41	0.879
Item_27	0.75	0.433	0.416	2	-0.723	0.128	-0.283	-0.489	0.122
Item_28	0.389	0.455	0.454	2	0.188	0.116	0.433	0.549	-0.994
Item_29	0.778	0.375	0.368	2	-0.812	0.132	-1.465	1.092	1.14
Item_30	0.25	0.462	0.483	3	0.41	0.098	0.222	0.243	0.063

Note: p-value: item facility; r_{it}: item-test correlation, r_{it}(w): weighted item-test correlation, A: discrimination index, B: item difficulty parameter, SE (B): standard error associated with item difficulty parameter, M1, M2, M3: item fit statistics (Verhelst et al., 1995, p. 14-15).

The 30-item checklist covered a relatively broad span of candidate ability. P-values ranged from 0.991 (item_06) to 0.009 (item_05). Mean observed item difficulty was $M = 0.49$ ($SD = 0.28$). The literature is divided as to how to deal with items with unfavourable properties. Mehrens and Lehmann (1991, p. 259) recommend excluding items with extreme item facility values, whereas Crocker and Algina (1986, p. 336) argue in favour of domain representation. The decision taken by the research team following Bachman's (2004, p. 138) rule of thumb was to retain all items with non-negative discriminating power.

The geometric mean of the discrimination indices was 1.921. Item discrimination indices varied between 1 and 3. According to the M-tests, the individual items showed fit to the OPLM-model (Verhelst et al., 1995). The reliability of the checklist for assessing speaking was $α = .803$. The checklist as a coherent measurement tool was also found to fit the OPLM-model R1c(58) = 26.444, $p = 0.999$.

Based on these properties, and in response to Research Question 1 *(Can a checklist be used to score candidate performance at B2 speaking exams in place of the operational rating scales without distorting the construct?)*, the study found that the checklist for assessing speaking at B2 was accepted as a valid representation of the measurement principles and was ready to be applied in practice.

5.2. Setting the performance standard on the checklist

5.2.1. Rangefinding

The first comparison was drawn between panellists' judgements as to whether the candidate was successful in speaking or not with the pass or fail classification based on the reported score. Panellists showed complete agreement in 40% of all cases, and acceptable agreement with the exception of a single judge in 70% of all cases. Agreement was not reached on the candidate who received the lowest score (36, clear fail) in operational scoring. The most pronounced division was noted on a candidate who scored 56 in the live

'These findings suggest that while panellists and examiners tended to classify candidate performance similarly, agreement was less than satisfactory not only among panellists but between panellists and examiners in a live test administration, as well'

setting: an equal number of panellists saw this performance as a fail and as a pass. This result would later inform the pinpointing stage. Panellists' judgements were in a strong positive correlation with the pass or fail classification based on the reported score ($r = 0.535$, $p = 0.015$). These findings suggest that while panellists and examiners tended to classify candidate performance similarly, agreement was less than satisfactory not only among panellists but between panellists and examiners in a live test administration, as well.

Next, the sums of panellists' checklist scores were compared with the reported scores. Low achievers in the live setting generally received lower checklist sum scores. Correlation varied between ($r = 0.727$, $p = 0.017$) and ($r = 0.472$, $p = 0.168$). One panellist's scores showed a negative albeit nonsignificant relationship with the reported scores ($r = -0.111$, $p = 0.759$). The conclusion drawn from these results was that even with the score discrepancies, as discussed in the section on reported scores for speaking and demonstrated in Figure 1, specification of construct coverage in the test tasks necessary, and potentially problematic concepts in the checklist items needed clarification. The information gleaned from this stage was that the score range for pinpointing could be reduced to between 50 and 80 on the reporting scale.

5.2.2. Quality assurance

In-between the rangefinding and the pinpointing stages, the participants were invited to complete two tasks focussing on quality assurance. First, the tasks needed to be analysed to see if the target construct was represented as specified in the

test specifications (Euroexam International, 2019). Second, because of the limited reliability of the panellists' checklist scores in particular, the operationalisation of its concepts needed clarification.

With regard to construct coverage, the four panellists assigned to this task found that the speaking paper provided test takers with opportunities to display their competences in the production activity of (a) sustained monologue: describing experience; in the production strategies of (b) planning, (c) compensating, and (d) monitoring and repair; in the interaction activities of (e) understanding the interlocutor, (f) informal discussion, (g) goal-oriented co-operation, (h) and interviewing and being interviewed; and the interaction strategies of (i) taking the floor, and (j) cooperating. However, the inspection revealed that despite explicit statement and intended targeting, candidates are not invited to participate in free conversation or ask for clarification.

Further, interaction around obtaining goods and services was fortuitous. This overview provided support for the checklist as a measurement tool and suggested that focused task selection and sequencing be applied in the transactional dialogues task if the construct were to retain the element of obtaining goods and services.

Concept clarification uncovered three problem areas. First, technical terminology posed a problem in cases such as subject-verb agreement or referencing. Second, basic notions needed to be operationalised with precision, as in the case of permissible deviation from the 2-minute timeframe in the picture story task. Third, awareness needed to be raised among panellists as to what the task of assessment entailed. Whereas scoring with the checklist meant mere noticing of a construct element in candidate output and registering its presence or absence, on occasion panellists were found to override this protocol and apply personal judgement.

To assist the scoring process, a glossary was compiled where potentially oblique terms were defined, and the layout of the checklist was modified to include a textbox of orientation for the examiner.

'In-between the rangefinding and the pinpointing stages, the participants were invited to complete two tasks focussing on quality assurance. First, the tasks needed to be analysed to see if the target construct was represented as specified in the test specifications. Second, because of the limited reliability of the panellists' checklist scores in particular, the operationalisation of its concepts needed clarification'

5.2.3. Pinpointing

As at the stage of pinpointing the range of speaking performance reported scores was limited to where most disagreement was observed with regard to pass or fail classification, agreement between panellists on the score level was not sought. Instead, concept clarification was relied on to maintain similar construct interpretation. The checklist as a measurement tool was designed to control for much of the noise that originated from idiosyncratic rater behaviour often by means of quantifiable phenomena, such as in item_08 (*The speaker can speak continuously for about 2 minutes without having to pause for language*), or by observing objective or objectifiable elements, as in the case of item_24 (*The speaker can invite their partner into the conversation*). Besides, some items left room for subjective reading giving way for score discrepancies, for instance item_06 (*The speaker is always clearly intelligible despite non-English accent*). There was a strong positive correlation between the reported scores for speaking and the mean ($r = 0.783$, $p = 0.003$) and median ($r = 0.801$, $p = 0.002$) values from checklist sum scores.

The cut score was calculated using logistic regression on the data from pinpointing. The aim was to find the checklist sum score where the probability of passing or failing the speaking paper was the same, $p = .50$.

Table 3
Logistic regression results on pinpointing data from checklist use

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1	Score	.447	.095	21.903	1	.000	1.563	1.297	1.885
	Constant	-6.920	1.569	19.446	1	.000	.001		

Note: R^2 = .36 (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 1999), .38 (Cox & Snell, 1971), .52 (Nagelkerke, 1991). Model χ^2 (1) = 40.25, $p < .001$

Table 4
Logistic regression results on pinpointing data from pass or fail classification

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1	Score	.063	.016	14.939	1	.000	1.065	1.031	1.099
	Constant	-3.779	1.090	12.022	1	.001	.023		

Note: R^2 = .18 (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 1999), .21 (Cox & Snell, 1971), .28 (Nagelkerke, 1991). Model χ^2 (1) = 19.76, $p < .001$

Table 3 contains the results from the calculations regarding the cut score on the pinpointing data using checklist sum scores as predictors of the pass or fail classification in the live examination setting. The probability of passing and failing was found equal at the checklist sum score of 15.48. Given that observed scores were always integers, a checklist sum score of 15 or less meant a fail, and 16 or more meant a pass.

By way of cross-validating classification consistency, in another set of calculations panellists' pass or fail classifications were used as predicted from reported scores on the speaking paper (Table 4).

Feeding the values from Table 4 into the formula, we found that the cut score on the reporting scale was 59.98, i.e. 59 reported score points or less meant a fail, and 60 or more meant a pass. This finding is in accordance with the operational standard, which supports the validity of panellists' judgements.

In response to Research Question 2 *(What is the performance standard for speaking general English at level B2 on the checklist?)*, the study found that a cut score of 15.48 on the checklist for assessing speaking at B2 represented the boundary between passing and failing this part of the test. Further, this cut score was found to be in line with current operational practice with regard to the success rate in speaking.

6. CONCLUSION

This study reports on research into the applicability of a novel method of assessing speaking and on the internal validation of the proposed measure. Despite their popularity, rating scales can lead to construct irrelevant variance, score inconsistencies, and occasional misclassification. As part of an ambitious research agenda, Euroexam International set out to explore the possibility of redesigning the scoring aspect of its speaking and writing papers. With a focus on speaking general English at B2, we found that the checklist as a measurement tool can effectively replace the operational rating scales without distorting the construct or having a radical impact on classification consistency.

APPENDIX. The checklist for assessing speaking at B2   **Overall:** below B2 / B2 / good B2 or above

	✓
BASIC USE OF ENGLISH (5)	✓
1. Mistakes don't lead to misunderstanding.	
2. The speaker can **correct their mistakes**.	
3. The speaker can **correct false starts**.	
4. The speaker can use **complex structures**, e.g. *I'd rather / used to / tend to.*	
5. The speaker can use **question tags**.	
PRONUNCIATION (2)	✓
1. The speaker is always **clearly intelligible** despite non-English accent.	
2. The speaker can pronounce the sounds /θ/, /ð/, and /w/	
TASK 2: PICTURE STORY (11)	✓
1. The speaker can **speak continuously for about 2 minutes** without having to pause for language.	
2. The speaker can relate a story with a **non-linear** development.	
3. The speaker can use **conjunctions** over and above *and, but, so, because, then*, etc.	
4. When pausing, the speaker can use language to **fill in the silence** instead of repeating, e.g. *erm.*	
5. The speaker can tell a story using **prosody** to indicate where one sentence ends, and another begins.	
6. The speaker can use **reported speech** when relating past events (e.g. *He thought…, She said to her mum…*).	
7. The speaker can use **irregular verbs** consistently correctly.	
8. The speaker can use the **tenses** to indicate the time of the verb: the timeline is consistently applied.	
9. There is consistent **subject-verb agreement**.	
10. The speaker can use **reference** instead of repeating lexical items.	
11. The speaker consistently limits themselves to **existing lexical items**.	
TASK 3: DIALOGUES (5)	✓
1. The speaker can always **respond to the aural cue** of the interlocutor beyond *Thank you, Good-bye*, etc.	
2. The speaker can consistently manipulate **word order** to ask questions.	
3. The speaker can speak in **complete sentences** observing the SV rule.	
4. The speaker can always **greet and address** their **partner appropriately**.	
5. The speaker can use **indirect questions** to sound more formal, polite, and less direct.	
TASK 4: DISCUSSION (7)	✓
1. The speaker can **invite their partner** into the conversation.	
2. The speaker can indicate (partial) **agreement** with functional exponents beyond *yes and* or *yes but*.	
3. The speaker can indicate **disagreement** with functional exponents.	
4. The speaker can **respond** to what their partner has said and doesn't speak alongside them.	
5. The speaker can **integrate** what their partner has said into the conversation.	
6. There is **no L1 / L3 interference** that requires extra effort from the partner or interlocutor: the candidate always restrains themselves to L2.	
7. The speaker can use **modal** verbs correctly where necessary.	

Note: With items containing **consistently** or **always**, only tick the box if there are no mistakes with regard to the criterion [items 6, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 20, 22, 30]. If the item doesn't specifically say consistently or always, **a single instantiation** suffices to tick the box [items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 17, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30]. Item 8 cannot be placed into this dichotomy. This item aims at fluency within a time frame.

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Original Research

Programming for specific purposes in linguistics: A new challenge for the humanitarian curricula

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The article describes the ways of teaching the linguistic students programming for specific purposes and deals with the global problem of training future teachers of a foreign language and culture in the context of digitalisation. The issues related to the linguistic component in teaching programming are also revealed in the framework of the paper. An innovative tutorial in programming on Python is described as an example, which is built on the classical principles of comparison, contrast and 'from simple to complex', and considers the following topics: basic operations on Python (Part 1), basic knowledge about the PyQt5 graphics library (Part 2) and introduction to developing web applications on the web2py framework (Part 3). The tutorial is provided with examples of programming code and screenshots of the application interfaces. Part 1 of the tutorial is mandatory for learning, as it is intended for developing basic skills of programming (active learning) that can help the students to understand the structure of the algorithms analysed in the 2nd and the 3rd parts (passive learning). The first two parts of the tutorial were tested by the students of the German Faculty at Moscow State Linguistic University (about 150 people in total in the period from 2018 to 2020). Most of the students successfully coped with the Part 1 tasks, which were actually the goal of the work. Though a deep understanding of the materials of Part 2 was achieved by 5% of the students, this could be considered a success, especially since some of them used programming methods for their research. The conclusion draws upon the results of the testing of the tutorial. The proposed approach to teaching the linguistic students skills in programming for specific purposes seems to be promising and effective.

KEYWORDS: *applied linguistics, programming for specific purposes, Python programming language, PyQt5 graphics library, web2py framework*

1. INTRODUCTION

The humanities scientists inevitably face the need to process large amounts of data in the course of their work in the context of the global pivot to *digital reality*. Modern linguistics successfully applies methods of computer analysis and uses ready-made databases (text corpora). Nevertheless, ready-made solutions, firstly, can be ex-

pensive, and secondly, they are not universal, so there remains a need for the development of new software products, in which the active participation of a linguist is strictly necessary.

Among the analysed studies on the topic, those that prioritise the technological component dominate, without taking into account the role and importance of the professionally oriented (in our case linguistic) component (Ardimento et al., 2020; Egan & McDonald, 2020; Perez et al., 2020; Rashkovits & Lavy, 2020; Papadakis, 2018; Orfanakis & Papadakis, 2016). Modern research should, in our opinion, have a real interdisciplinary basis, and involve the search for intersections of the practical interests of various sciences. We believe that information technology and linguistics have the potential to form the integrative foundations of a new model of academic education. The educational model, which has an integrative basis, acquires stability, contributing to the preservation and development of scientific and educational schools, maintains the continuity of scientific and educational processes, preserves the individual learning path of the students, realises the immersive principle, which can be achieved only in multimodal or interdisciplinary educational programmes, has the parameter of consistency and requires constant updating of both the content and the software (Amelkin & Guseynova, 2020). As a result of technical and humanitarian interaction, intellectual software products are created to meet the challenges of our time. Obviously, these products are untenable without high-quality content; for this reason, the role of a linguist who has knowledge of the world, language and language use is a priority in the process of interacting with a technical specialist. The linguist sets the vector for the development of the information environment.

In this regard, it seems important to pay attention to a special area of knowledge – *professionally oriented programming* or *programming for specific purposes*. The goal of teaching programming for specific purposes, on the one hand, is to form a general understanding of the main tasks that a modern linguist faces and which require the creation of software solutions (general develop-

'Taken together, these goals should ensure an understanding of the process of developing specialised software, which will allow the future specialist to act, if not in the role of a programmer, then in the role of a project manager or/and of a developer of technical specifications'

mental goal), and on the other hand, to relate knowledge about specific techniques that can already be introduced into practice (practice-oriented goal). Taken together, these goals should ensure an understanding of the process of developing specialised software, which will allow the future specialist to act, if not in the role of a programmer, then in the role of a project manager or/and of a developer of technical specifications.

Analysis of subject-specific literature, as well as Internet resources showed that the terms *professionally oriented programming* or *programming for specific purposes* are new ones. And this can be explained at least by the fact that these terms are relative to a certain extent, since any specific programming code is focused on solving a specific problem. However, we consistently use these terms to determine a specific area of knowledge and to separate it from programming in general as a broader area. Actually, the terms were invented by the authors by analogy with such widespread terms as *English for specific purposes* or *professionally oriented translation*.

In this case we are talking about programming not for the applied linguists, for whom such disciplines are traditionally included in the curriculum, but primarily about programming for the future teachers of a foreign language and linguistic researchers (germanists, discourse analysts, etc.), who, in principle, do not study it as major or minor subjects at the Bachelor and Master levels.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
As an example of software products created by the linguists, who are teachers of foreign languages, we can cite over 30 online courses devel-

oped in the Laboratory of Fundamental and Applied Issues of Virtual Education at Moscow State Linguistic University. The component of the programming for specific purposes lies here in the fact that when creating the mentioned online courses, not only ready-made LMS Moodle templates were used, but modifications were made to the LMS programming core in order to adapt this universal system for the needs of teaching foreign languages (Guseynova et al., 2019).

Based on this vision, let us outline the range of tasks in the field of programming for specific purposes now. In our opinion, this includes automatic and automated text processing, as well as automatic and automated creation of digital educational materials in foreign languages. The former can serve the purpose of formatting, tokenisation, text analysis, including the interpretation of the works of art, as well as the primary preparation of text arrays for solving the second circle problems – optimising the process of making electronic textbooks and tutorials, as well as online courses in foreign languages.

Moreover, we have to decide which programming language (and maybe several languages) one needs to learn in the framework of programming for specific purposes. In our opinion, the designated general developmental and practice-oriented goals narrow the range of studies to one universal, popular, multi-paradigm and comprehensible programming language, which should be not only a teaching tool, but also a tool used in professional practice. Python was chosen as such a programming language, which quite accurately meets all these requirements. In addition, Python is able to create both stand-alone programmes and graphical applications (GUI programmes), and web applications, although the latter two varieties require studying additional libraries and frameworks.

The Python programming language is a very flexible tool that enables developing functional applications by a single programmer or small teams (Morawiec et al., 2020). A large amount of data display and analysis software tools are currently being developed in Python (Romero et al., 2020; Medina-Ortiz et al., 2020; Sun & Kennett, 2020;

Cid-Fuentes et al., 2020; Garcia-Fossa et al., 2020). According to the TIOBE ranking in 2020, Python is the third most popular programming language in the world, traditionally behind C/C++ and Java (TIOBE, 2020). Considering that Python was developed in 1991 and C and Java in 1972 and 2005 (C++ in 1983), respectively, the third place is an outstanding result. Further, Python is widely used for natural language processing (Qi et al., 2020; Burns, 2020; Japhne & Murugeswari, 2020; Senekal & Kotzé, 2019). Thus, we can conclude that Python is a relevant tool both for universal use and for the field of linguistics.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Another problem is the creation of standard demonstration programmes, which, after the didacticisation, will become learning materials for teaching programming for specific purposes. To solve this problem, we developed and tested the tutorial *Introduction to Programming. Python*, which is intended for the acquisition of basic knowledge in the field of programming. The tutorial includes three parts: Basic Python (Sections 1-6), Introduction to the PyQt5 Graphics Library (Sections 7-10), and Introduction to the web2py Framework (Sections 12-17).

The parts devoted to the PyQt5 graphics library and web2py framework are more complex than the first part and are intended for those who would like to get acquainted with the use of Python in the field of GUI applications and web applications. Such an increase in the level of complexity is justified, in our opinion, since the tutorial is not intended to be used for self-study work outside the classroom.

According to the author's intention, Part 1 should be mandatory for studying at the undergraduate level, and parts 2 and 3 should be additional ones, designed to merely demonstrate the capabilities of Python at the undergraduate level or for detailed study at the graduate level, as well as for use in writing the graduation papers and theses by the students at both undergraduate and graduate (or postgraduate) levels who are interested in programming for specific purposes.

'As an example of product development on web2py, we can cite a wiki web application, which serves to teach linguistic students to work together on composing a text with the given parameters, as well as to teach them the ability to assess the texts written by their colleagues'

The choice in favour of PyQt5 and web2py was not made by chance. PyQt5 is a popular graphics library which is the Python version of the Qt graphics library for the C programming language (Python itself is also written in C). With the help of PyQt5 the graphical user interfaces for software development environments are designed, as well as big data analysis, visualisation of photometry data, spectroscopy, etc. (Combrisson et al., 2019; Reddy et al., 2017; Titze et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2011; Chabaud et al., 2018).

The web2py framework is interesting, firstly, because it works with the Python programming language. And if Python completely suits as a tool for teaching programming, then web2py is an intuitively transparent tool for creating web applications, built on the concept of *rapid development* (Di Pierro, 2013, p. 21). The concept foresees practically endless modifications of ready-made template solutions instead of programming a web application from the very beginning. In this regard, the developer saves a lot of time focusing not on printing the code, but on solving the problem in the most efficient way; in other words, he or she applies first of all the professional competences, in our case – the linguistic one.

Secondly, the web2py installation package comes by default with a local web server, which makes it possible to make and to test products offline. In fact, this means that the full cycle of software development and deployment can be performed without using the Internet. At the same time, this does not exclude the use of the created products through the local network of the uni-

versity. Digital learning materials created on this framework can be used in conditions of limited access to high-speed Internet, which seems to be relevant for the linguistic students who use, in our observation, mainly a mobile connection outside the university. This service helps motivate the students to learn foreign languages and cultures, because there is an additional incentive that forms a conscious attitude to the need to regularly develop their linguistic skills *always and everywhere*.

Finally, despite the fact that the framework is inferior in use to such products as Django or Wordpress, it is used in the academic environment, including for creating applications for data processing and data visualisation (Miles, 2016; Di Pierro, 2011; Alberti & Zuccon, 2011; Burger et al., 2013). As an example of product development on web2py, we can cite a wiki web application, which serves to teach linguistic students to work together on composing a text with the given parameters, as well as to teach them the ability to assess the texts written by their colleagues (Gorozhanov, 2018a, p. 356-361). Along with the linguistic competence, the social competence plays a significant role, which is aimed at learning to work in teams. This is facilitated by the joint work associated with the generation of a text, taking into account its genre specificity, which is, first of all, in global text structures. So, the students can train the creation of persuasive texts (advertising, scientific, journalistic, etc.) or descriptive texts with a narrative structure (biography, composition, etc.). Collaboration leads to intense creativity that fosters interest in learning foreign languages and cultures.

Using web2py allows one to study the Model-View-Controller (MVC) web applications and the principles of working with databases, in order to ensure move on transition, if necessary, to the projects in other frameworks or in the PHP programming language.

In this paper, the content of the first and second parts of the tutorial is considered, since they have already passed the testing stage. The materials devoted to learning how to use the web2py framework require, in our opinion, a separate detailed study, which is our further goal.

In general, the described tutorial uses the following techniques (methods) for teaching the linguistic students programming for specific purposes.

1. The similarity of the studied programming languages and the natural languages is constantly emphasised, the ability to read the programming code as a coherent natural text is instilled.

2. When working on difficult tasks, a relatively simple template is taken as a basis and then is modified step by step, gradually becoming more complex and approaching the solution of the linguistic task. In this regard the students are taught to see the solution to the problem as a sequence of many tiny steps.

3. After getting acquainted with the basic operations in the programming language, the students immediately proceed to solving professionally oriented (linguistic) tasks.

4. In case the solution is technically difficult, the students are invited to act as project managers (linguistic advisors) and draw up a technical task for the programmer, using their knowledge of programming to understand what can be done and what cannot be done by the programmer.

4. TRAINING CONTENT
4.1. The first part of the tutorial

The tutorial *Introduction to Programming. Python* is built on the classical principle *from simple to complex*. It includes three parts, each of which is divided into sections. The learning materials are supplied with numerous illustrations (about a hundred figures) and examples of the programming code (listings).

The first part, which deals with the basic operations on Python, begins with the instructions on how to install the Python IDLE development environment on the user's computer. The students are introduced to the interactive Python Shell, as well as the instruction on how to work with Python from the command line interface (CLI) using the *print()* command.

At the end of the section, there are some questions for self-control: (1) How can Python be installed? (2) What is IDLE? (3) What is Python Shell? (4) What are the principles of programming in the command line interface? (5) How can you verify that Python is installed correctly? (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 11).

The second section of the first part of the tutorial covers basic arithmetic operators and introduces the concept of a variable. Among the arithmetic operations addition ('+'), subtraction ('-'), division ('/') and multiplication ('*') are distinguished, then exponent ('**'), floor division ('//'), modulus ('%') and grouping using brackets (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 12-13). Since all these operations are written in Python intuitively, their understanding is not difficult for the linguistic students.

Working with the materials of the tutorial, the students perform all these actions by themselves and check with the results shown in the illustrations. The concept of a variable is introduced and the Python Reserved Keywords that cannot be used as such are listed (*and*, *as*, *assert*, *break*, *class*, *continue*, etc.). The symbol '=' is introduced, which is the assignment operator in Python. The *type()* method is described for defining the type of the variable (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 13-15). The types of variables *integer*, *float*, *string* are given. It is explained that Python reassigns variable types automatically. A sequence data type *list* is introduced: *l = ['Ivan', 'Maxim', 'Yaroslav']*, and it is emphasised that the elements of the list are numbered from zero, not from one (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 16).

Thus, in the second section of the first part of the tutorial, very important fundamental materials are given that form the basis for further training in programming, including professionally oriented ones. Intuitive phenomena are described according to the principle of comparison (the operators of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division are similar to those used on modern calculators), differing phenomena are described according to the principle of contrast (the symbol '=' is the assignment operator, not the equality sign). Increased attention is paid to phenomena that differ from the usual ones in the school course of mathematics. The screenshots illustrating the learning materials allow the students to compare their result with a sample (Figures 1-2).

Figures 1-2. Using the brackets and Demonstration of a list containing three different data types
(Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 13-17)

Just like after the first section, there are questions for self-control, in particular: (1) What operators are used to perform the simplest arithmetic operations in Python? (2) What is modulus? (3) What is floor division? (4) What are data types in Python? (5) What are the Reserved Keywords? (6) What is a Python list? (7) Can data of different types fit in one list? (8) What does *l[0]* mean for the list *l*? (9) How can one determine the type of a variable? (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 17-18).

Section 3 of the tutorial focuses on creating the first Python programmes in separate files. In Python IDLE a single-line file *print('Hello, world!')* is created. The programme is saved and executed. The interactive Python Shell outputs the result (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 19-20).

Then, the Python syntax is described. Here, the students are told that high-level programming languages have a syntax like natural languages (taking into account the specifics of the audience). The concept of a comment is introduced: *'A line comment is a single line, at the beginning of which one or more '#' characters are put. A block comment can span multiple lines, which are placed between triple single straight quotes (''') or triple double straight quotes ("""). Comments are not taken into account during programme execution – they are meant only for the human'* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 21).

In the course of studying the syntactic structure of the programming language, the ability to work with error alerts is developed (Figure 3).
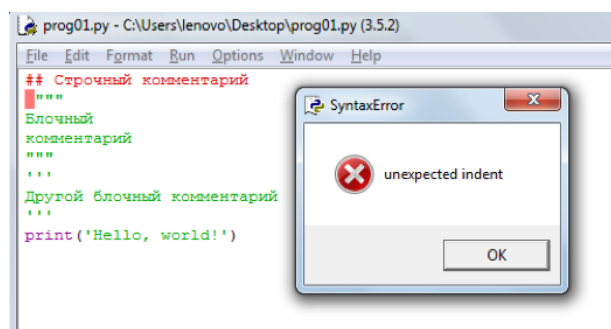
Figure 3. Syntax error alert – an unexpected indent (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 22)

The next step is to write an interactive programme that would receive data from the user, process it and produce the output: *'Let's create a programme that would receive an integer from the user and determine if the entered number is even, odd, or it is no integer at all'* (Gorozhanov, 2018b,

p. 22). To solve this problem, the conditional expression *if…else* is introduced. Since the meaning of the conditional expression is intuitive (*if*, *then*), we can completely focus on solving the problem. The latter is solved by demonstrating to the students the process of analysing the data received

from the interpreter: it is shown to students that one step in solving the problem, after which an error occurs. The error is analysed, corrected, and then the next step of the solution is revealed, which also leads to an error, etc.

The input is organised using the *input('Enter an integer')* method. The entered data is validated for even/odd parity. But the user enters characters other than numbers. This results in an error (Figure 4). A detailed explanation on how to read the error alert correctly is given to the students. The way of exception handling with *try...except* is demonstrated (Figure 5). Then the task becomes more complex: *'For example, we might be interested in whether the user input is a number less than 18, a number over 60, or some other number. Such a check may be related to the person's age'* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 25). This allows the use of *if... elif...else* conditional statements. The user enters a number less than zero, which results in an error. Additional validation is added to the code: *'Inside each if…elif…else statement a so-called 'nested' statement can be placed. For example, if the entered age is less than 18, but at the same time it is less than zero, then the entry may be considered invalid'* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 25) (Figure 6).
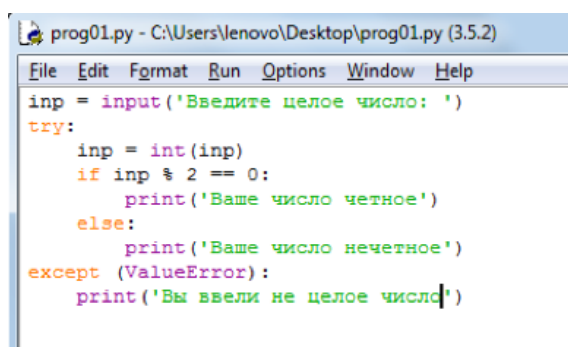
Figure 4. Incorrect input error alert (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 24)
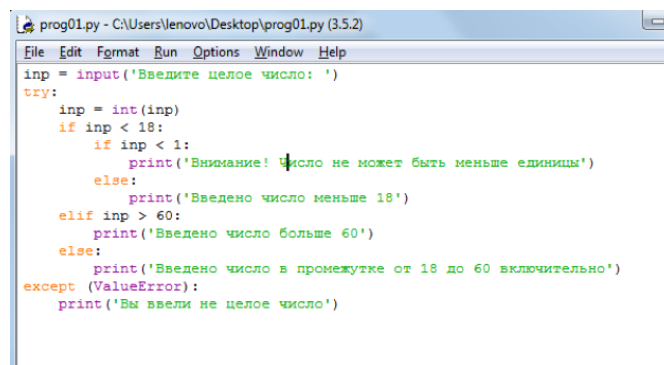
Figure 5. Handling exceptions (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 24)

Figure 6. Nested *if* statements (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 26)

The following questions are given for self-control: (1) How can one run a programme in IDLE? (2) What are the specifics of the syntax in Python? (3) How is a comment formatted and what is its function? (4) How can one use conditions in Python? (5) How does the *exception handling* work? (6) What is the *if...elif...else* model? (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 26).

Section 4 deals with the *for* and *while* loops. The *for* loop is illustrated by displaying the contents of the list *lst = [3, 6, 1, 0, 13, 70]*. At the same time, it is demonstrated by means of natural language, as the interpreter thinks: *'While there are elements in the list 'lst', I take the zero element and output it. I check if there are more elements; it is true, so I take the first element and output it, etc.'* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 27). It shows how the list items are sorted and introduces a professional component: basic string processing routines. By analogy with a list of integers, the *for* loop displays the *Hello!* string, letter by letter. It is emphasised that in Python all strings are lists by default.

Further, we enhance the professional component using step-by-step problem solving. The string *Hello!* is sorted using the *sorted()* method, but the output is unusual: *!Hello*. The students are encouraged to comment on why the sorting is done this way. The *for* loop and *char()* method print the first 300 elements of the character table. In the table, the symbol '!' has position 33, and only then the uppercase Latin letters and lowercase Latin letters follow. The sorting logic becomes clear. In addition, the *for* loop is used with the numeric range: *for char in range (0, 300):* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 29).

The functioning of the *while* loop is revealed by the example of solving the following problem: *'The programme randomly 'guesses' a number from 1 to 9 inclusively and prompts the user to guess it. The game ends only after entering the guessed number'* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 30). When presenting this problem, the method of analysis is used, i.e. the students are invited to study in detail the ready-made solution (Figure 7).

Listing 1

```
1.    import random
2.    guess = random.randint(1,9)
3.    print("Загадано число от 1 до 9 включительно.") ## A number from 1 to 9 is guessed
4.    iterVar = True
5.    while iterVar:
6.        name = input('Пожалуйста, введите это число: ') ## Please enter this number
7.        if name == str(guess):
8.            print('Правильно!') ## Correct
9.            iterVar = False
10.       else:
11.           print('Попробуйте снова...') ## Try again
12.   print('Игра окончена') ## Game over
```

Note: Here and further the translation of the text from Russian into English is given as a comment.

Figure 7. Code of the programme 'Guess Number' (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 30)

Besides demonstrating the functioning of the *while* loop, this example introduces the concept of importing a module (*import random*) and a Boolean variable. Here is the complete comment on the code from listing 1.

'Line 1 imports the 'random' module, which is responsible for generating random numbers (various Python modules must be included manually to save memory). Line 2 assigns to the 'guess' variable an integer value between 1 and 9 inclusively.

Line 4 declares the boolean variable 'interVar' with the value 'True'. Line 5 initiates the while loop, whose code is in lines 6-11. The loop is running as long as 'interVar' is 'True'. Each time it passes through the loop, the programme asks for an input from the user and compares it to the value of the 'guess' variable, transforming it to 'string'. If the values match, the message is displayed: 'Correct!' The 'interVar' variable becomes 'False', and the loop is broken. The programme goes to line 12 and displays the end of the game. If the user fails to guess the number, the loop repeats' (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 31). Similar to all the previous sections the questions for self-control follow, but due to the limited scope of the paper we will not give them here and further.

Section 5 is devoted to working with functions. Following the principle *from simple to complex*, the first function contains just one line of code: *def greeting(): print('hello')* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 31). It shows how a function can be called within a programme. The function receives one argument (Figure 8). The number of arguments increases to three (Figure 9).

Listing 2

```
1.        def greeting(name):
2.           print('Привет, %s!' % name) ## Hello
3.        greeting('Петя') ## Peter
```

Figure 8. A simplest function with one argument (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 32)

Listing 3

```
1.        def exampleCount3(num1, num2, num3):
2.           return num1 * num2 * num3
3.        print(exampleCount3(1, 2, 3))
```

Figure 9. An example of a function with three arguments (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 33)

To demonstrate the solution of a real task the following problematic situation is suggested to the students: *'Let's solve a problem from the field of cryptology, associated with the so-called 'Caesar cipher'. The essence of this cipher is that each letter of the source text is 'shifted' by a specified number of positions to the right or left alphabetically. For example, if a shift to the right by five is selected, then the Russian 'А' will be replaced with 'А(0), Б(1), В(2), Г(3), Д(4), Е(5)'. If the letters end with the shift, then the alphabet starts anew, for example, 'Ю' is replaced by 'Ю(0), Я(1), А(2), Б(3), В(4), Г(5)'* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 33).

Five programmes are given step by step, the last of which is the complete solution. First, the function *def alphOut():* is built, which displays the Russian alphabet in capital letters (except for *Ё*):

АБВГДЕЖЗИЙКЛМНОПРСТУФХЦЧШЩЪЫЬЭЮЯ (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 33). This function is modified and displays the original alphabet and the alphabet with a shift to the right by three positions – a kind of encryption key. Moreover, in the shifted alphabet, the letter *А* stands in front of the letter *Я* (left), and after the letter *Я* stands the letter *А* (on the right) (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 34). In the following programme, the user can set the shift (including the negative value), thanks to the previously learned *input()* method.

The fourth programme receives from the user a text that must be encrypted. In this case, the default shift value is three. The text is capitalised. All letters of the received text are enumerated and checked for code compliance. If these are capital letters of the Russian alphabet (except for *Ё*), then

they are shifted by three positions. The rest of the characters do not change (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 35-36). The final programme contains two functions that encode and decode the text with a default shift of three (Figure 10).

Thus, the result of studying Section 5 is the creation of a fully functional application that solves a linguistic problem. In keeping with the principle of repetition, the programme uses conditional expressions and loops, and the methods learned before.

The last section of the first part of the tutorial covers the class phenomenon and the basic principles of working with files. The classes are seen as a tool for organising a number of functions into a single block of code for subsequent reuse. First of all, the programme from the previous section is formed into a class. As a result of using a previously prepared class by importing it, the programme becomes compact. All functions become class methods (Figure 11).

The work with files is revealed by using the same encoding and decoding programme. The materials to be encoded are read from a text file, and the result is also placed in a newly created text file. Here only the methods for working with files *open (), read (), write (), close ()* are new.

As a result, such complex materials as functions and classes are considered practically on the same example, with the gradual introduction of some new code fragments.

Listing 4

```
1.   def textToCode(shift):
2.       codeText = ''
3.       text = input('Введите исходный текст: ').upper() # Input the text to encode
4.       for letter in text:
5.           if ((ord(letter)) > 1039) and ((ord(letter)) < 1072):
6.               if (ord(letter) + shift) < 1040:
7.                   codeText += chr(ord(letter) + 32 + shift)
8.               elif (ord(letter) + shift) > 1071:
9.                   codeText += chr(ord(letter) − 32 + shift)
10.              else:
11.                  codeText += chr(ord(letter) + shift)
12.          else:
13.              codeText += letter
14.      print(text)
15.      print('=>')
16.      print(codeText)
17.  def codeToText(shift):
18.      text = ''
19.      shift = shift * −1
20.      codeText = input('Введите закодированный текст: ') # Input the text to decode
21.      for letter in codeText:
22.          if ((ord(letter)) > 1039) and ((ord(letter)) < 1072):
23.              if (ord(letter) + shift) < 1040:
24.                  text += chr(ord(letter) + 32 + shift)
25.              elif (ord(letter) + shift) > 1071:
26.                  text += chr(ord(letter) − 32 + shift)
27.              else:
28.                  text += chr(ord(letter) + shift)
29.          else:
30.              text += letter
31.      print(codeText)
32.      print('=>')
33.      print(text)
34.  textToCode(3)
35.  codeToText(3)
```

Figure 10. Text encoding and decoding programming code (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 36-37)

Listing 5

```
1. |        import caesar
2. |        a = caesar.Caesar()
3. |        a.textToCode(3)
4. |        a.codeToText(3)
```

Figure 11. Class import example (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 39)

4.2. The second part of the tutorial

Section 7 of the tutorial, which opens the second part, explains the procedure for installing the PyQt5 graphics library (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 43-44). The material of Section 8 is devoted to the first window application written in Python and PyQt5, which must get a certain string from the user and display its length in characters. The interface is created in Qt Designer (it is included in the PyQt5 installation package by default) and consists of three widgets: input field (*QLineEdit*), button (*QPushButton*) and label (*QLabel*) (Figure 12).

In the command line, which was covered in the first part of the tutorial, the interface file with the *ui* extension is formatted to the *py* file. The latter opens in Python IDLE and runs. The resulting programme consists of 52 lines. The remaining pages of the section are devoted to the analysis of the resulting programming code, as well as to the analysis of the ways to modify it (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 53-56).

In Section 9, functions for handling the user input are added to the programme file. Note that the functions are added directly to the interface file, which is a good (but not the best) solution within the framework of creating the very first window application, when, as below, a more efficient way will be considered – to create a separate data processing file. So, the function *myFunction()* must be activated by clicking a button and perform the following three actions: *'to take the text entered by the user from the input field, calculate its length, and display the result in the label'* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 57) (Figure 13).

Figure 12. The interface of the application made in Qt Designer (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 48)
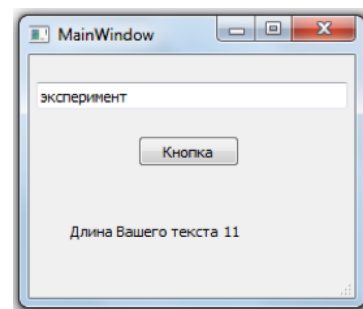
Figure 13. A functioning window application (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 58)

Using the resulting programme as an example, the *architecture* of a PyQt5 window application is demonstrated: creating an interface, creating a function for processing signals received from this interface, binding functions to signals from widgets (in our case, the *clicked* signal is considered) (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 58). As an additional task, the students are encouraged to install PyQt5, follow the steps outlined above, and compare their result with the output in the illustrations to the tutorial.

The next section demonstrates how to separate the data processing file from the GUI file so as to easily make adjustments to the interface file using Qt Designer. In the command line interface, the *ui* file is converted to a *py* file with the *-o-* parameter: *pyuic5 myinterface.ui -o myinterface.py* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 61). After that, it will no longer run on its own, i.e. it will not receive a graphical loop, so for achieving this one needs to create a main

executable file in which an eternal graphical loop (lines 9-13) is created (Figure 14). For the programme to work properly, one needs to put the function code in it and bind it to the signal.

This code is inserted between lines 8 and 9: *self.ui.push Button.clicked.connect (self.myFunction)* and *def myFunction (self): self.ui.label.setText ("Your text length% d "% len (self.ui.lineEdit.text ()))*.

Listing 6

```
1.     import sys
2.     from myinterface2 import *
3.     from PyQt5 import QtCore, QtGui, QtWidgets
4.     class MyWin(QtWidgets.QMainWindow):
5.         def __init__(self, parent=None):
6.             QtWidgets.QWidget.__init__(self, parent)
7.             self.ui = Ui_MainWindow()
8.             self.ui.setupUi(self)
9.     if __name__ == "__main__":
10.        app = QtWidgets.QApplication(sys.argv)
11.        myapp = MyWin()
12.        yapp.show()
13.        sys.exit(app.exec_())
```

Figure 14. The code of the programme 'myintmain.py' (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 61)

Now one can reopen a separate GUI file in Qt Designer and resize the widgets, change the labels, colours, etc. The modified *ui* file must be converted to a *py* file again. The changes will take effect immediately when the main programme starts running.

In the sections described above, step by step, with a gradual increase in the level of complexity, the same window application is considered, starting with the creation of an interface and ending with a functioning software package of two files. As an additional task, students are encouraged to change the graphical interface file in Qt Designer without changing the main executable file.

The second part of the tutorial concludes with a section on how to create a *Guess Word* game. At the beginning, a technical task is formulated. The programme must: have a graphical user interface

(GUI); receive from the user a certain number of Russian letters; display in a special window the Russian words of 4 or 5 characters long, which can be composed of the entered letters; use each of the entered letters in one word as many times as it was entered by the user; allow the user to choose a parameter of length 4 or 5 (it determines the words of which length to search for); use a list of the Russian words (dictionary) from a separate file for searching; display the number of tested combinations; display the execution time in seconds; have a progress bar (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 64).

Based on the difficulty of the task, we assign this section a strictly demonstrative function, which, however, does not exclude a thorough line-by-line analysis of the materials. Like in the previous case, the development starts with creating a graphical user interface in Qt Designer. The pro-

gramme uses the following widgets in the grid layout (Figure 15). The *for* loop is used to find and check the matches with the words in the dictionary. The final point of the technical task is especially difficult, but PyQt5 has a built-in *QProgressDialog* widget that allows one to track long processes, in particular loops, as in our case. We will bind the indicator to the external *for* loop and make it so that whenever the loop variable is in-cremented, the progress bar is updated (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 71). As a result, the code of the executable file eventually takes up about 150 lines (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 72-76). Its work is illustrated in Figure 16.

Thus, the second part of the tutorial introduces the students to the basics of developing professionally oriented Python window applications using the PyQt5 graphics library.
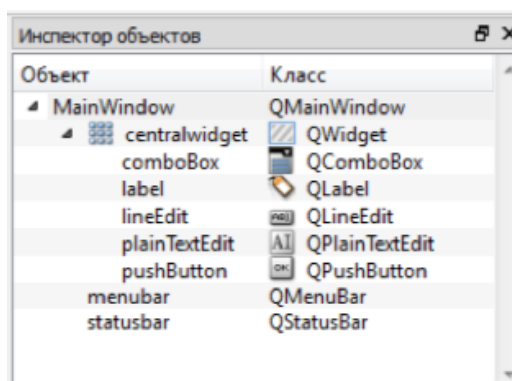

Figure 15. A widget tree for the interface of the programme *Guess Word* (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 65)
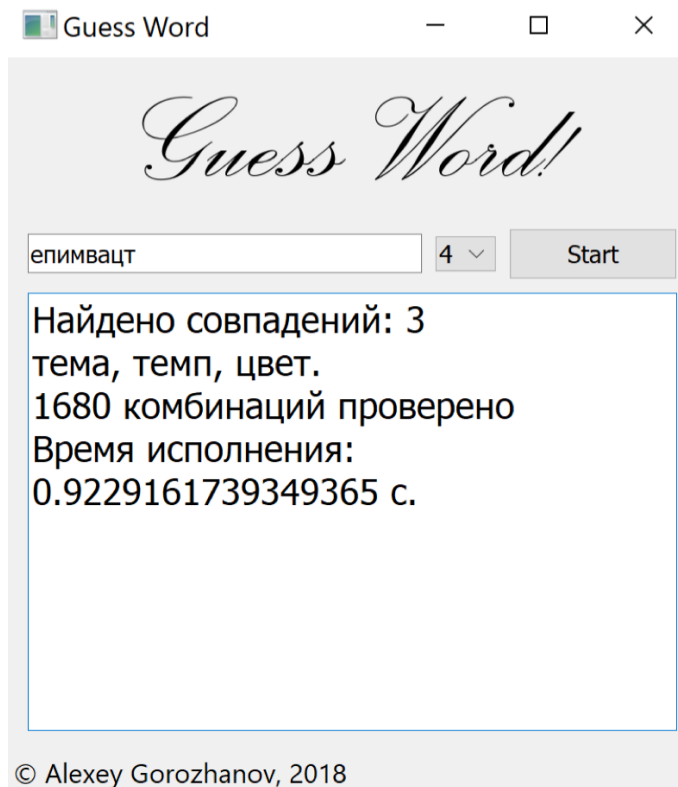

Figure 16. The output after entering *епимвацт* with a word length of four (Gorozhanov, 2018b, p. 77)

5. CONCLUSION

Let us note that our article is one of the stages in the development of the issue of teaching the linguists programming languages taking into account a professionally oriented component, and it does not pretend to exhaustively describe all aspects of this subject area. However, our research is intended to be a contribution to the theory of teaching the linguists in our digital world.

The value of the study is that its results can be immediately implemented into the educational process, within the framework of the concept of lifelong learning (teaching programming for specific purposes not only the students, but also the acting teachers of foreign languages). It is important that the toolkit we offer does not need specialised materials and technical support, since free software is used.

The described materials of the tutorial were successfully tested at Moscow State Linguistic University in the framework of the disciplines *Application of modern information and communication technologies in teaching* and *Modern information technologies in linguistics* with undergraduate students majoring in *Linguistics: Theory and methods of teaching foreign languages and cultures* (45.03.02). The testing was attended by the students of the first and fourth year of full-time study, as well as the fifth year of part-time study (about 150 people in total in the period between 2018 and 2020).

Training in programming for specific purposes was only one of the modules of these disciplines (other modules were mainly devoted to the special theory of teaching foreign languages online and studying the capabilities of modern learning management systems) and was carried out within the framework of the seminars on the first part and the lectures on the second part of the tutorial (we underline that the third part of the tutorial has not been tested within the disciplines mentioned above).

Practice has shown that the materials can be most successfully arranged as follows. The first section of the first part of the tutorial is given in lectures. This is followed by a series of seminars,

'Despite some fears at the beginning of the testing period, most of the students successfully coped with the task. About 30% of students studied programming at school at a fairly high level, mainly in Pascal and Basic, and were familiar with such concepts as algorithm, variable, conditional expressions and loop. The fact that several first-year students later used the knowledge gained when working on their research can be considered success'

during which the material of the Part 1 of the tutorial is studied to the end. Then the material of Part 2 is introduced. Thus, working with the material on the PyQt5 graphics library, the students are already able to read the algorithms and understand their structure. The questions for self-control are used to form exam questions.

Despite some fears at the beginning of the testing period, most of the students successfully coped with the task. About 30% of students studied programming at school at a fairly high level, mainly in Pascal and Basic, and were familiar with such concepts as *algorithm*, *variable*, *conditional expressions* and *loop*. The explanation and demonstration of the materials took place in the classroom. The homework accounted for the revision and better understanding of the materials and the solution to additional problems of increased complexity that were not included in the materials of the tutorial, with which, for one reason or another, no more than 5% of the students could cope. About 22% of them could offer a general solution scheme, but found it difficult to write the programming code. The fact that several first-year students later used the knowledge gained when working on their research can be considered success.

We conclude that the results of the testing showed the effectiveness of the proposed approach to teaching the linguistic students skills in programming for specific purposes.

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Original Research

Towards synergetic combination of traditional and innovative digital teaching and research practices

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The paper pursues three objectives: to try and define key features of the digital environment which shape modern educational strategies; to specify how they can promote emerging innovative up-to-date teaching/ learning practices if combined with conventional teaching; and to analyse the search and research potential of digital engines for teaching/learning and for linguistic research. The methodology the author relied on in the research was to study the portrait of the modern learner and build the educational approach on it which was designed to combine conventional and digital methods. The digital paradigm shapes the educational platforms and introduces dramatic changes into conventional teaching/learning practices to offer a healthy combination. For instance, it makes teachers reconsider the concept of active learning and reshape project-based learning, rendering project activities more practically oriented; or rely on few-shot learning, as this format takes into account the changing cognitive patterns of the millennials who have a shorter focus of concentration. The availability and accessibility of abundant Internet resources has a strong demotivating effect on youngsters' attitude towards hard learning, especially training their ability to memorise and to concentrate. The results of the study and applied approach revealed that students compensated for this by improving their creative potential and higher reactivity, which can be triggered by few-shot learning. Information resources can also contribute to research practices and add to the students' creative approach to research practices which is demonstrated by the sample template offered in the paper.

KEYWORDS: *digital, search engine, research engine, active learning, few-shot learning*

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Digital educational environment – a blessing or a curse?

The paper will briefly tackle, first, the global context of the digital revolution projected onto the rapidly changing educational environment; second, characteristics of the younger generations, millennials, which directly impact their educational trajectories and preferences and must be taken into account in planning our teaching; and third, the essentials of the teaching strategies which help to cope with the first two realities and find some

synergetic combination of the two. To illustrate how the suggested approach is implemented, sample templates from actual teaching practices will be offered. In doing so, the teaching/learning and research potential of digital resources in teaching humanities, and specifically in teaching translation, will be assessed.

One of the key features of the contemporary world is that it is facing unprecedented dramatic changes which define the present-day reality, the educational environment included, as it is sensitive to innovation to the utmost degree, being the field where dynamic individuals belong. The digital revolution is defining the world in all spheres of life. It radically changes the educational frame, transforms the focus of the learning trajectory from listening to the teacher and memorising facts, figures and argumentation to arming the learner with the tools that help students – as would-be professionals – get practically efficient and wanted by society. True it is that the changing social environment requires a different kind of person who can meet new challenges, otherwise the younger generations – generation Z, or digital natives, or centennials – will have to face an evolutionary cul-de-sac. It is even more true that the teaching staff has to also face the new frightening reality as it is their responsibility to arm the students and prepare them for successful professional careers.

The contemporary digital world offers unprecedented opportunities as regards availability and accessibility of information resources. It makes life much more dynamic, comfortable in all respects and more enjoyable. We are all taking advantage of digitalisation in our everyday life and mostly treat this digital revolution as a blessing, though we do give full account of the dark sides of the process.

In this context society, for example, is getting more and more worried about youngsters' dependence on gadgets. If we look at it from a more positive angle, we have to admit, though, that humankind is not degrading, it is simply getting different. Now we can get information actually 'out of the air'. People do not need to memorise facts and ideas which we are not likely to use even once in

a lifetime. No more need except to practise memorising just as an exercise for the brain (Konstantinov, 2018). One of the key skills youngsters are practically born with (reflected in the term they are often referred to as – *digital natives*), their alter ego is their ability to mine, or dig out necessary information the very moment they need it. We have to admit, though, that mental resources are not limitless (Konstantinov, 2018) and if people thoughtlessly spend them on mastering gadgetry it can shake their cognitive balance and the available brain resources cannot be saved for other – often more relevant – activities. Scientists (Konstantinov, 2018) claim that this precarious balance shift calls for special investigation.

What we treat as *clip thinking* has two facets. On the negative side, it implies inability to focus on a task for a long time. On the other side, it is the inner feeling of the irrelevance of this effort-consuming concentration as we enjoy abundant chances to get any conceivable information whenever necessary, and this perception shapes the mind of the present-day younger generation.

1.2. Millennials in the educational perspectives
From a didactic point of view, the digital revolution means that modern students are less able to concentrate on lectures. The availability of the information through lectures, when they can immediately get the data they need online, however fragmentary it might be, works as a most powerful demotivator. The infinite information landscape with immediate access to any information resource in no time demotivates the modern learner in learning facts and figures which for centuries used to be considered as an indispensable part of any decent education.

These innovative trends and digital globalisation morph together to form a new reality which we have to learn to cope with if we plan to understand and fully realise the educational potential both of the students and the emerging digital monster.

It means that the evolutionary leap requires reconsidering new teaching/learning patterns, e.g. the *active learning* represented in few-shot learn-

'The infinite information landscape with immediate access to any information resource in no time demotivates the modern learner in learning facts and figures which for centuries used to be considered as an indispensable part of any decent education'

ing (Kimura et al., 2018; Suleimanova et al., 2018; Feng & Duarte, 2019; Xiao et al., 2020), or a new variety of traditional time-tested approaches to teaching (such as PBL learning) which, though sometimes unexpectedly, turn out to be quite effective. In other words, the teaching/learning patterns have to be adjusted to this new societal and educational reality.

Besides, it should be taken into account in education that it is the teachers' responsibility to prepare young people to cope with it – through using digital tools (DT) for academic and research purposes, research being one of the key education components.

Since in the global context of the digital revolution education is getting more and more practically oriented, educators have to be responding to the new demands society is putting forward. In the digital-age renaissance educators prepare learners with essential digital-age research skills, and integrate powerful digital tools into classes.

From a didactic perspective, there persists ever-growing awareness in academic circles that research should be the integral indispensable component of upscale education. In the ever-changing environment many approaches to education are 'stillborn' and rapidly grow outdated. Living in the digital age inhabited by centennials/millennials, also referred to as digital natives, calls for new approaches in education. It is time to rely on digital teaching practices and digital research practices that can be used in teaching (Suleimanova & Petrova, 2018; Diemer, 2012; Hamdani, 2018; Chernyavskaya, 2018, 2019).

We suggest consistently abiding by some principles and approaches to be practised in contemporary environments.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS
2.1. Empirical data

Empirical data are arranged in two clusters: the data referring to teaching theoretical disciplines and those referring to students' research practices. We focused on teaching strategies which combine conventional, time-honoured approaches, on the one hand, and, on the other, digital innovations which can promote new skills the graduates are to foster so that they could be able to meet the requirements society is demanding.

The difficulty that many students today face in concentrating on one issue for a long time has imminently given rise to a change in the teaching practices. The concepts of project-based learning (PBL), active learning (AL) and few-shot learning are rapidly gaining ground. In spite of the fact that these practices are no news, they still need detailed elaboration in the new context with respect to teaching higher school students as education is inevitably getting more practically oriented, with the focus on involving students in mock events and then into the jobs which lead to existentially valid outcomes, such as scientific conferences, as active participants and partners. We shall share the experience and expertise in engaging students in such projects and other active learning devices.

The second empirical database refers to research in the academic environment, as the integral, indispensable component of top-quality education. It is an open secret that education is getting more and more practically oriented, yet the academic community persists in promoting research skills in students as it is the cutting-edge methodologies, research techniques and methods that shape a competitive specialist who can easily find viable solutions to the challenges the world offers today (Konstantinov, 2018). Scientists claim that, actually, research skills – in the broad sense – are the cornerstone of all kinds of human activity. The first researchers are newly born babies doing research all day long learning to survive in our world. The research competence is explicit in the operating EMT (European Master's in Translation) standard as the leading reference standard for translator training, in effect until the year 2024.

The EMT standard declares 35 competences to be mastered by prospective specialists, research-related ones among them. What follows is that a would-be interpreter and/or translator must be able to explain and justify the translation choice and to be on good terms with the linguistic and translation theories which is achieved through research experience.

As of today, in-depth research is impossible without big data resources which we suggest dividing into three types (see also Suleimanova & Vodyanitskaya, 2020): search platforms (engines), research platforms, and interactive platforms depending on the purpose of the research.

Digital engines (DEs) do facilitate and substantiate the results of the research, and in teaching millennials, as computer geeks, DEs make edutainment possible. DEs may be divided, first, into search engines vs research tools offering text analysis and linguistic experiment (Suleimanova & Vodyanitskaya, 2020, p. 95). Similar to Yandex, Google and other big data sources, text corpora are used as a source of linguistic data, being time- and resource-efficient data acquisition and preliminary processing tools. Through them functional style and discourse analysis can be put into effect. What remains seriously underestimated in teaching theory is their research potential. In this function texts can be analysed from a variety of perspectives. *SentiStrength* focuses on Sentiment Analysis/Opinion Mining. This engine searches for emotionally charged vocabulary in the text (the list is compiled on the basis of the dictionary data) and evaluates the negative vs positive perspective, or tone of the text. It is applicable in analysing social networks communication, ranging along the intensiveness scale. It can compare the original vs translated texts as regards their emotional and evaluation contents. Another tool – *VAAL-mini* – evaluates the subconscious emotional effect of the phonosemantic structure of the text on the addressee. It predicts the emotional response of the recipient and exploits it when generating texts with the desired effect. The system is applicable in advertising (naming, slogans), analysing individual speech characteristics and mass media texts.

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Tropes specialises in content-analysis and defines a text's stylistic register, its chronology, communicators, parts of speech (frequency, key episodes, logical steps, modality, etc.), and is applied in advertising, persuasive and academic discourse, mass media news and fiction.

These powerful DEs empower the researcher with the means of analysing 'ready' texts. What makes them even more promising is that they can be used for experimental purposes in psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and semantics. In this role they challenge traditional polling psycholinguistic practices: e.g. associative experiment, via *Mentimeter*, the system which processes poll returns online, representing the results in a variety of graphic formats (about 10). Its added value is that it is attractive with the younger generation as it is operated by the telephones.

Semantic hypotheses can be tested, registering the number of acceptable phrases (instead of polling native speakers). We may also use Google, Yandex and other search engines' research potential for cultural-linguistic research, for example, to analyse the word order in the attributive noun phrase (NP) to show that it reflects national cultural practices (see Suleimanova & Petrova, 2018). In this respect DEs do reshape research methodologies and are a challenge to the traditional polling linguistic practices. See Sheninger (2014, p. 205-208) for information on integrating various digital tools and content into educational practice.

We can add here the value of instilling in students one more relevant competence through digital tools, i.e. assessment as one of the key skills which implies the ability to find and retrieve necessary relevant information, comparing data from a variety of sources and critically assess them before putting them into practice (see section 5 below for the sample template).

2.2. Methods

The global digital net defines present-day educational paradigms to an extent never seen before. We tried to combine traditional (conventional) and innovative DT teaching practices and test how this combination works.

First, instead of the lectures in the *sage-on-stage* format, the concept of active learning in the form of the *few-shot learning* pattern was tested. The few-shot learning pattern implies that the students, after being offered 'quantum', or portion of information – it might be theoretical with the, however, practical (Suleimanova et al., 2020) relevance – are asked to build up on that information to further produce some 'marketable' product. Second, efficient teaching, as many educationalists claim (Herold & Fedor, 2008; Suleimanova et al., 2019), is getting team-personalised, which takes on the form of projects such as learning-by-doing, or PBL (project-based learning). It means distancing from abstract knowledge in favour of active learning, with the purpose of actively engaging students in problem solving activities which aim at working towards a practically relevant solution of a problem, while working in a team. The projects are delivered in the academic environment (e.g. at conferences); besides, the students are involved in conference arrangements at all the stages (see below for details).

The approach we promote here is that millennials/centennials, or generation Y learners (1) are more practice-oriented; (2) are the generation of participation (illustrated by the practical scientific conferences which involved students at each step); (3) can combine a wide variety of practical activities; and (4) are oriented on the result (or practical output, not mock teaching projects).

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

To cope with the ever-changing world, the teaching profession has to deal today with a New Learner who emerged some 15 years ago – IGeneration, Millennials, or Generation Y. Prensky (2001) claims that our students have changed radically, referring to them as digital natives or digital immigrants. They are no longer the people the educational system was designed to cope with. What makes the issue most complicated is that the environment started changing and whirling as it never had before. Scientists claim that the traditional institutions are not as flexible as we meant them to be and the educational world is getting less and less recognisable. It flip flops our traditional perceptions of time, finance, gender and even space, which is getting, all of a sudden, unbearably and painfully global. We are facing a dynamic combination of changing mindsets, behaviours and skills (Sheninger, 2014; Konstantinov, 2018). How to cope with this? Greater access to the abundant information resources changes the learning trajectory focus from memorising and listening to arming the learner with the tools that help get oriented in the information oceans. Sheninger (2014, p. 14) writes: *'Students are engaged in their digital worlds, and they are learning without us'*. Maybe they no longer need us? Maybe we might reconsider our roles as sages-on-stage and learn to navigate and pilot them through this digital world as guides-on-site, and try to domesticate that digital monster? I believe, though, that it is still educators who can explain the fundamentals, introduce basic theoretical background and arm the students with the methods and methodology, teach them how to learn, how to retrieve information from and through search engines and pilot them towards the goal, relying on research engines on their way to the ultimate goal. My hunch is that we, educators, are not going to be extinct, at least for some 100 years if we learn to cope with the changes.

There are lots of strategies suggested for meeting the challenges of the changing world. To mention one of them, the general strategy on how not to lag behind the learners, or to get 'change

savvy' (Herold & Fedor, 2008) involves (a) careful entry into the new suggested setting; (b) listening to and learning from those (students included) who have been there or been at it longer; (c) being enthusiastic, genuine and sincere about the changing circumstances; (d) obtaining support for what needs to be fixed; and (e) developing a credible plan for making a fix or improvement.

We do not reproduce here the full list the authors suggested, though the idea is clear: the present-day educator must be open to and accepting of the changes. The point is that it refers to general principles but does not offer a tangible tool arming us, educators, with the practical guide to be used in class. For example, today delivering lectures in the traditional way as a sage on stage makes little or no sense at all.

Why?

Students are not motivated enough as they are only too well aware of the fact that they can refer (and actually must be sent by the teacher) to abundant information resources at their disposal. The teachers' responsibility here is to arm them with the routes, where to go and how to retrieve the data students need.

In the modern pragmatic world where we belong now, students are practically oriented; they demand practical skills and knowledge on which they expect to survive in their professional life. *Do not give me fish teach me how to fish*, as goes the old adage. One of the practical tools of change which we tested with our students is Project-Based Learning (PBL) (Suleimanova et al., 2018), directly relating to the discipline students are studying, instead of the end-of-the-term exams – it is the strongest motivator for a student, as well as for educators.

PBL adds to the teambuilding, students learn to exercise team spirit, they solve a practical problem, learn how to manage the research data. Besides, which is essential, they practise public speaking and fight the stage fright, not to mention achieving student satisfaction after an invariably successful presentation of the project. Pascal Finette (Finette, 2012) from Google says that we live in a culture of participation which combines technologies and networks that will in his opinion change the course of human history. It means that teambuilding nowadays is one of the priorities to be promoted in education.

Digital natives prefer to network simultaneously with others, process pictures, sounds, colours and video before texts; learn what is relevant, active, instantly useful and fun (Sheninger, 2014). Today's kids are digital-born into a media-rich, networked world of infinite possibilities. But their digital lifestyle is about more than just cool gadgets; it's about engagement, self-directed learning, creativity and empowerment (Sheninger, 2014). What is essential is that educators are also immersed in this world. Whether we like it or not, we live in the digital-age renaissance and have to be in tune with the real world and go digital. Educators are learning, in line with one more new popular concept of life-long learning, to be the catalysts for change and arm learners with much demanded digital-age research skills, and integrate powerful digital tools into classes.

Compare the concept of a digital learner with a traditional educator. Digital learners prefer:

– to access information quickly from multiple media sources (vs a slow release of information from limited sources);

– parallel processing and multitasking (vs linear processing, single tasks or limited multitasking);

– random access to hyper-linked multimedia information (vs linearly, logically and sequentially provided information);

– to learn 'just in time' (vs 'just in case');

– instant gratification and immediate rewards (vs deferred gratification and delayed rewards);

– to network simultaneously with others (vs working independently before networking and interacting with the team);

– processing pictures, sounds, colours and video before texts (vs processing texts before anything else);

– learning that is relevant, active, instantly useful and fun (vs traditional educators' approach where they feel compelled to teach memorisation of the content in the curriculum guide) (Sheninger, 2014).

'What is essential is that educators are also immersed in this world. Whether we like it or not, we live in the digital-age renaissance and have to be in tune with the real world and go digital. Educators are learning, in line with one more new popular concept of life-long learning, to be the catalysts for change and arm learners with much demanded digital-age research skills, and integrate powerful digital tools into classes'

In other words, teamwork and being practical and fun are emphasised. We are expected to prepare students for success in a world that is becoming more dependent on technology, and the good side to it is that it transforms universities into vibrant learning communities.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS
4.1. Promoting active learning

Consider where and how the above advertised teaching/learning plans are implemented and to what effect in some sample templates.

Take one few-shot learning tool that changes teaching practices – it is analytical interpretation – e.g. in teaching Theory of Linguistics (which is not the most 'exciting' discipline for sophomores), we offer students a potential research object, relating it to the linguistic paradigm we mean to introduce to the students in lectures – e.g. a cluster of synonyms – and ask them to analyse the research route within the frame of different linguistic paradigms. It is actually a conventional *'what if'* exercise applied in a new perspective. Students 'toy' with a proposed research object in the cognitive/semantic, discourse or theory of speech acts or psycholinguistic or sociolinguistic perspective, then they have to elaborate appropriate research routes. As a result, they know how to handle research in a variety of linguistic schools and approaches and, if needed, they will be able to retrieve relevant data from different sources, to sup-

port their ideas. Besides, in this way they grow multidisciplinarily. I tried one more format and delegated delivering simple descriptive topics to students. They were asked to prepare team presentations, and in this way we could 'kill quite a few rabbits'. The students did search, arranged the information and delivered a presentation working as a team (instead of a boring professor drifting along the theme in his/her lecture). In this case I provoke some kind of competition between the teams, when students are listening to each other's performance with much greater interest than to a 'monotonous' teacher. In this way we delegate much work and creativity (which is quite a powerful motivator with modern students!) to the students, and try to cope with 'the wind of change'.

Another strategy we practise is engaging students in mock events (ME). Students majoring in translation studies are trained in the format of a mock event, e.g. mock conference on urgent issues, such as raising children in split families, or drug addiction, or exercising team spirit in the teamwork, etc. They get involved in the ME held for trainee interpreters in their practical courses on oral/written translation of English and Russian texts on economics. In (Fomina, 2018) we study ME's teaching effect and conclude that MEs help students develop relevant communication skills relying on social setting analysis and proceeding to practising the suggested communication patterns as well as promoting their interpreting skills. In addition to students' practising professionally relevant skills, such as translation/interpretation, and preparing conference materials (conference portfolio), MEs also facilitate active learning at the initial stages of preparatory work, providing a platform for synergy between different educational formats. Within the framework of this platform, the competences mastered while preparing the conference portfolio (abstract proposal, conference programme, etc.) offer added value for ME participants (Fomina, 2018).

The ME framework combines a wide variety of practical activities to produce a tangible output. At the beginning of the term, student teams of 4 to 6 are offered research issues (much debated and

pressing macroeconomic or related issues, such as privacy on the Internet, information security, consumer protection, digitalisation and technological change, etc.). Each team is asked to submit an abstract proposal including information on all panel/roundtable participants, i.e. the chair and discussants: name, assumed affiliation, paper title, and abstract.

An elected organising committee (2-3 students) 'publishes' the programme of the event (see Fomina, 2018) according to the standards recommended for such documents.

The organising committee chair opens the ME with a greeting and proceeds to the conference programme.

As a team under the assumed roles of economists, political scientists, lawyers, columnists, bloggers, etc., students swap their opinions about the phenomena in question (e.g. domestic violence, native advertising, renewable resources, restricted Internet access, sustainable development, etc.) and suggest a problem-solving stratagem.

Practising simultaneous English-to-Russian interpreting, real-time, is the key component. The conference venue is equipped with a booth for two interpreters, an individual audio conference system, a fixed projector and a large projection screen. The meeting table with an audio conference system (up to two languages) seats up to 20 participants (the room capacity is up to 50 people). Through the MC safe, low-risk experience students learn to work as a team, develop professionally relevant skills, and acquire hands-on experience both as conference participants and as organisers (Fomina, 2018).

A more advanced AL step is realised through involving students in a real conference, where they are engaged in all kinds of activities. For example, Moscow City University hosted the 54th International Linguistic Colloquium in 2019, with more than 80 participants from 35 European countries, South Korea and Japan, and English and German as working languages. Students were involved in a variety of activities at all stages: they communicate with the participants in writing, preparing abstracts and programme of the conference; they work as

'The format used made students feel involved, motivated through understanding that they could take part in a long-term job with a tangible result, from the beginning to the successful end. When asked about the event afterwards, students reported that they enjoyed the activities and got invaluable practical experience they could rely on in their professional career'

translators/interpreters (chouchoutage for members of the administration body with zero command of foreign languages, consecutive translation of presentations and city tours, escort translation in cultural events such as a visit to the Kremlin Ballet Theatre, and when attending to the practical needs of the guests, e.g. relating to catering, visa support, printing the necessary materials the participants asked for, etc.); they take part in the colloquium as presenters of research results in the poster session, when a student shows the poster on the screen accompanying it with a brief account of the research results. The posters, full-size, were on display on the conference site, so that the participants could later come up to the authors for detailed explanations. This format connects the topic to the author, thus making academic communication more focused. Besides, students organised and conducted panel interviews with educators from different countries, the interview agenda being suggested by the students.

The format used made students feel involved, motivated through understanding that they could take part in a long-term job with a tangible result, from the beginning to the successful end. When asked about the event afterwards, students reported that they enjoyed the activities and got invaluable practical experience they could rely on in their professional career. Besides improving translation and organisation skills, students raise their self-esteem as successful performance in a real important event promotes confidence. So, through

this process students proceed from mock conferences and activities towards engagement in real conferences.

The format of poster presentations we suggest is more likely to attract the attention of the audience, as the author first presents it (at the end of the plenary session) in front of the conference participants with a one-minute speech and poster on the screen. Then s/he stands by the poster in the poster area at the designated time and can explain in detail the contents and the results obtained to those who approach him/her for explanation.

4.2. Applying digital tools in students' research

As of today, cutting-edge digital technologies are an indispensable part of research in linguistics and other humanities. We cannot do without them as they offer infinite opportunities for research. We distinguish three types of digital engines (see 2.1. above and Suleimanova et al., 2020) applicable for research and search purposes. The algorithms are elaborated in many cases, though their full potential needs detailed analysis.

Still, since the digital world is in many respects *terra incognita* at the moment and every minutest detail related to its use needs attending to, any problem we hit upon must be solved. Let us focus on one such issue. When dealing with the numerous digital resources, which are increasing every day, the user is facing the problem of choice s/he has to make and hit upon the appropriate ones. The choice must be made after the assessment of the similar resources, which means that the student has to be competent enough to be able to critically analyse the resources, taking into account many-faceted criteria. Translation majors, for example, are expected to operate available translation programmes, both computer operated and via telephone. That is why they have to make a well-grounded choice.

To start with, the researcher studies the parameters specified in the description, i.e. the number of languages the resource employs, availability of free access, financial terms, etc. What is more relevant, however, is to test the system as regards its potential and the quality of translation. Doing this,

the students learn to critically analyse the platform and make well-grounded choices. We can exemplify such testing and assessment by a practically-oriented project (in the frame of the discipline, 1st year of the Masters' studies in Translation, Research Methodologies, 16 academic hours), which was meant to explore the potential of available digital services translation-wise, with the prospect of being used in a practical professional career.

Students were asked to look for available digital resources, test them on practical translations of the texts and compare the quality of the final translation product. To avoid experimental ambiguity the authors opted for the textbook on translation *Grammatical Aspects of Translation* (Suleimanova et al., 2011) where Russian-to-English translation problems were addressed. Accordingly, the authors generated a sample of 58 utterances where Russian utterances containing lexical and grammatical constructions which are potentially challenging, translation-wise, were passed through Google Translate, Yandex, and Prompt translation services. Among these are the following constructions:

– semantically void de-verbal nouns as part of a Russian noun phrase (NP), used in different functions; they are normally omitted in English (e.g. *проведение реформы привело к росту преступности* – the reforms led to higher crime rates);

– deverbal nouns in the NP denoting a dynamic change in the state of affairs (e.g. *рост продолжительности жизни позволил* – higher life expectancy allowed);

– deverbal nouns in the NP denoting a dynamic change in the state of affairs, accompanied by an adjective denoting speed/quality, etc. (e.g. *быстрый рост продолжительности жизни позволил* – fast growth of life expectancy allowed);

– deverbal nouns in the NP denoting a dynamic change in the state of affairs, accompanied by an NP specifying the quantitative parameters (e.g. *рост уровня жизни на 5% позволил* – a 5% growth of the living standard allowed);

– adverbial modifier of cause/reason, where the causative semantic component is reflected in the semantics of the predicate, while the adverbial

modifier is rendered as the subject of the English sentence (e.g. *из-за снижения уровня жизни – lower living standards resulted in*).

These constructions were rendered, structure-wise, quite satisfactorily.

The research revealed that in many cases the machine translation either offered a word-for-word variant or failed to reflect the structural specifics of the original, cf.: *Создание военных баз вокруг конфликтной территории может привести к – The creation of military bases around the conflict territory can lead to*, though in many cases the word *new* is a better choice *(New military bases around conflict zones can lead to)*; or in English-to-Russian phrase *in a flat matter-of-fact voice* translated as *плоским голосом / ровным сухим голосом / ровным будничным* while a better version is *сухо и деловито*, quite in line with the translation pattern *English attributes – Russian adverbs*. Cf. also *if untreated, the disease* translated as *при отсутствии лечения* in Prompt, against a better variant *если болезнь не лечить, она*.

The results with reference to the constructions we chose featuring in Google 26 out of 58 (44%), Prompt – 25 out of 58, Yandex – 24 out of 58. As a result, Google translate proved our platform of choice, at least what concerns translating syntactic constructions.

5. DISCUSSION

The emerging digital-learner personality as a 'product' of the digital era requires appropriate treatment from the learning/teaching perspective. Some of his/her specific features are already taken account of by educators in everyday practice, still some others remain untackled.

We do take advantage of the before-unimaginable opportunities the digital world offers.

Digital teaching is still an open research field and the researchers are expected to explore the exponentially growing learning/teaching and research potential of digital technologies. One of the tasks is to develop search and research skills in students and teach them to find, critically analyse and apply available tools for solving the problem they face. Each of these operations needs investi-

'So, the concept of active learning (AL) implies becoming wider and more practical. The activities must be practically relevant and produce some tangible results. As the teaching profession is tasked with preparing students for success in a world that is becoming more demanding, AL is a reliable tool to rely on. One more positive side to it is that it transforms universities into vibrant learning communities'

gation and elaboration. We have to explore the full potential and every seemingly simple algorithm must be made public and discussed so that as an academic community we move step by step from innocent users to well-armed professionals, together with our digital students.

We believe that combining conventional time-tested techniques and methods with new digital tools will result in a synergetic effect and will make teaching/learning more efficient and enjoyable.

So, the concept of active learning (AL) implies becoming wider and more practical. The activities must be practically relevant and produce some tangible results. As the teaching profession is tasked with preparing students for success in a world that is becoming more demanding, AL is a reliable tool to rely on. One more positive side to it is that it transforms universities into vibrant learning communities. We have to admit, however, that AL is often seriously underestimated and even neglected. It needs more attention and discussion. We must be working towards a healthy symbiosis of conventional teaching strategies, reconsider them and combine with digital engines both in teaching and research.

6. CONCLUSION

Modern pedagogy emphasises priorities, such as accepting this 'brave new world' of digital environment and being open to fast changes in the world. Living, or rather surviving, in the digital am-

bience, and enjoying it, an individual has no choice except mastering, fostering and befriending digital tools of all kinds. Digital engines reshape research methodologies, as well as teaching/learning practices in higher school.

The practical teaching experience will benefit from the combination of conventional teaching, e.g. project-based learning, or few-shot learning in teaching theoretical disciplines, analytical argumentation projects, adding considerations from a didactic perspective, such as mock events and real academic events. In addition, active involvement of digital platforms, such as search and research engines for solving research problems makes the educational process more effective, enjoyable and leads to brighter professional careers of the students, not to mention the professional upgrade of the second party to the process – the educators, who also benefit from the combination. A special skill students master is the ability to critically ana-

lyse and assess the available digital resources, which are rapidly growing in number, and to hit on the most appropriate one for the task is a challenge.

What needs to be tested is the potential of a variety of other devices that are available on the educational digital market, for instance, text correcting and editing, and some others, which could substantially facilitate acquiring professionally relevant skills and competences by the students and motivate them.

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Original Research

Promoting the UN sustainable development goals in teaching, research and democratic urban life: Approaches to lifelong education for sustainable development

by Katrin Schwanke

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The present paper looks into the field of Education for Sustainable Development by showing how sustainability-oriented topics can be integrated into foreign language teaching at school, into academic education and research in the field of business economics as well as into democratic city life in Germany. By focusing on these three different areas, it will be illustrated that the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) can be easily addressed and even targeted. Moreover, it may become obvious that a wide range of skills can be promoted within the frame of shaping an overall culture of sustainability. In this way, people from different social and cultural backgrounds can develop a critical awareness for a sustainable society. Learning and building knowledge is clearly defined as an ongoing and even lifelong, continuous process. By presenting different approaches and projects that foster Education for Sustainable Development, the author argues that a comprehensive approach consisting of different disciplines and/or thematic areas is imperative in order to find solutions to global challenges.

KEYWORDS: *sustainability, UN, SDGs, Sustainable Development Goals, lifelong learning, education for sustainable development, gender, democracy*

1. INTRODUCTION

In 2015, the seventeen Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were adopted by all United Nations Member States at the UN Sustainable Development Summit in New York (SDG Knowledge Platform, 2015). It has to be emphasised that all these goals are interlinked and are not solely lim-ited to the contexts of the so-called developing countries of the Global South. All nations should focus on an ecologically beneficial and environmentally sustainable transformation of society. However, the Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development with its Sustainable Development Goals (No Poverty; Zero Hunger; Good Health and Well-

Being; Quality Education; Gender Equality; Clean Water and Sanitation; Affordable and Clean Energy; Decent Work and Economic Growth; Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure; Reduced Inequalities; Sustainable Cities and Communities; Responsible Consumption and Production; Climate Action; Life below Water; Life on Land; Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions; Partnerships for the Goals) is still largely unknown to the general public. In order to change this and to raise awareness for sustainability-oriented innovation and transformation processes, the SDGs should be integrated more extensively into school and university curricula in addition to extensive discussions throughout society.

The present paper aims at illustrating how the SDGs could be addressed in teaching, research and practice on a societal level. First, it is shown how sustainability-oriented topics and the SDGs can be easily tackled within the framework of foreign language teaching at school. Second, an academic research project focussing on future-proof business economics with respect to planetary boundaries and the SDGs will be presented. Third, an innovative project aiming at transforming everyday life in society by promoting the SDGs and fostering democracy will be described.

2. PROMOTING THE SDGs IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

2.1. How to integrate the SDGs into foreign language teaching

In 2016, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Bundesländer, the German federal states, in cooperation with the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development drew up an orientation framework for Education for Sustainable Development that could be used in German schools. This handbook reflects amongst other issues pedagogical-didactic challenges in the classroom and provides competence-oriented implementation examples for a variety of subjects and different types of schools. Nevertheless, this 464-page work may seem quite overwhelming to many teachers due to the prevalent time constraints in everyday teach-

'In 2016, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Bundesländer, the German federal states, in cooperation with the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development drew up an orientation framework for Education for Sustainable Development that could be used in German schools'

ing. However, sustainability-oriented aspects can be integrated quite naturally into the classroom and especially into foreign language teaching, without necessarily having to resort to specially designed materials or methods. An idea of how this may look like in teaching English and French as a foreign language at grammar school is suggested in the following sections.

2.2. Classic literary texts in English foreign language teaching

In EFL lessons in the German Oberstufe, equivalent to the sixth grade in UK education systems, students are required to familiarise themselves with and study various literary classics. The short story *Kew Gardens* by Virginia Woolf (1918) could be considered as a promising example to establish a link with sustainability issues.

The impressionist short story describes the outing of several couples/groups of people to the Royal Botanic Gardens in London on a hot summer's day as they pass by a flowerbed. Studying this short story has several advantages as far as the traditional requirements of English as a foreign language teaching are concerned: students' engagement with Virginia Woolf as one of the most important female English authors of modern literature as well as the exploration of the Stream of Consciousness as *the* modernist narrative technique Woolf pioneered. In addition, the unique characteristics of as well as similarities and differences between the impressionistic short story and the classical short story can be explored and iden-

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tified, which in turn enhances students' literary and aesthetic skills (Poe, 1846; Nünning & Surkamp, 2006; Surkamp & Nünning, 2009; March-Russell, 2009; Thaler, 2016). Since linguistic progression plays a crucial role in communication-based English lessons, space for authentic, engaging conversations should be provided as frequently as possible to encourage eager participation and critical debate amongst students. By describing the setting with regard to the special colour scheme and the perspectives and impressions of the various protagonists depicting the evanescence of the moment, a theme frequently addressed by Virginia Woolf, the focus clearly lies upon the natural scenery presented in *Kew Gardens*. The contrast between, on the one hand, the snail as the focal point of the story and, on the other hand, the strollers and the final scene panning from the idyllic garden to the booming, war-time city, allows for a critical reflection on the tension between nature and man.

In the post-reading phase, the relationship between man and nature could be questioned through an oral or written reflective task. Taking urban contexts into account, a class discussion could focus on a critical analysis of how humans treat their environmental surroundings today and how they subsequently address environmental issues. The students usually mention topics such as urban gardening, renewable energies or the importance of rainforests for the global climate. Otherwise, the discussion could be led in this direction by presenting a visual stimulus, such as an image of an urban gardening project. Not only may the learners discuss the positive effects of a green city, but also the importance of food quality, the cultivation of fruit, vegetables and herbs, the fundamental aspects of the organic gardener and the vital role of soil and bees in the ecosystem. In addition to the promotion of linguistic and literary-aesthetic skills, the training of a critical political awareness is also included.

The SDGs 11 (Sustainable Cities and Communities), 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production) and 13 (Climate Justice), which are particularly relevant here, can be directly addressed and

integrated into the learning process. It may be helpful, or even necessary, to use special flash cards with further information, explanation and specific vocabulary.

2.3. Extracurricular learning environments

In order to widen the perspective of teachers and learners, extracurricular learning environments outside the classroom offer numerous opportunities (Schwanke, 2020). Temporary events of contemporary cultural life should also be included here. A good example of such an event is the innovative-experimental *Kulturhauptstädtla* (Little Capital of Culture), which was located between the theatre and the opera house in Central-Nuremberg in the summer of 2019 (Buchmüller, 2019). This temporary meeting place was not only successful in engaging a diverse range of people in ecological, social and cultural city life but also in giving tangible form to this active, diverse involvement. The overall aim was to invite people of all ages with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds to exchange ideas and participate in a wide range of formats. Over a period of four weeks, numerous cultural events such as concerts, theatre performances, workshops or panel discussions took place, which were accessible to all visitors free of charge. The installed café was run exclusively with rescued food in order to sensitise people to the issue of food waste which has become commonplace in Western societies. It is necessary to take into account that food waste and poverty represent an immense social issue reflecting great socio-economic inequalities. Moreover, food that goes to landfill has a tremendous environmental impact. Due to the numerous stages along the food production and distribution chain, wasted food significantly contributes to greenhouse gas emissions as well as land, water and biodiversity loss. Therefore, it is crucial to draw attention to this shortcoming and to demonstrate a respectful approach to food by respecting for instance the SDGs 2 (Zero Hunger) and 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production).

Some events like the panel discussions *'Why we need more women in city professions'* or *'How*

'Some of this cultural meeting place's promising approaches may also be applied to school life on an action-based level. Why not install a zero-waste café as part of a future school event? Conceptual and organisational steps based on the SDGs could be developed by the students in English lessons and implemented in an interdisciplinary school project'

to do it together? Pathways to a City of Co-Governance' took place in English and served as an authentic situation of communication, where learners could use their language skills under the constraints of real time. Here, twelfth grade students would have been able to actively participate in open discussions on urban development. Contributions prepared in small groups in English on the topic of sustainable urban development would have been presented by selected speakers and discussed by all participants on site. This would give the learners the opportunity to come up with their own ideas and raise their wishes and concerns for discussion while critically questioning social living conditions and everyday habits. In urban contexts, solutions must be developed that address the sustainability problems arising from the spread of urbanisation.

'As our ecological footprint expands, so should our perception of issues of the greater scales beyond us, and of the broader impacts of our individual and collective life-styles, choices, and actions. Thus, our hope is that cities also concentrate the industry and creativity that have resided in urban centres throughout much of human history, making them hot spots for solutions as well as problems' (Grimm et al., 2008, p. 759-760). Real-life labs or experiments on site may lead to innovations and enable multi-faceted learning processes across a range of topics, including cultural and political norms or consumer behaviour, and involves the negotiation of diverse expectations of possible and desirable futures (Evans et al., 2016).

Since the *Kulturhauptstädtla* has oriented itself towards all 17 SDGs in planning and design, the SDGs can be presented and discussed very tangibly on the basis of this temporary inter-/transcultural meeting place. Through the use of authentic situations, many of the requirements and competencies formulated in the curriculum, e.g. with regard to intercultural communicative skills, are met. Some of this cultural meeting place's promising approaches may also be applied to school life on an action-based level. Why not install a zero-waste café as part of a future school event? Conceptual and organisational steps based on the SDGs could be developed by the students in English lessons and implemented in an interdisciplinary school project.

2.4. Audiovisual media in French language teaching

The teaching of foreign languages can serve to provide learners with multi-perspective information in the context of intercultural education to encourage critical thinking and to promote the development of critical political awareness. The concept of intercultural learning which is important for foreign language teaching and learning (Byram & Fleming, 1998; Kramsch, 1998; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013; Bennett, 1993) refers to the linking of linguistic and cultural aspects within the learning process and can be regarded as a comprehensive approach. Language and cultural teaching and learning are inseparably connected. Although the term 'transcultural learning' (Hallet, 2015) is also used in academic literature and is sometimes even described as more appropriate, the term 'intercultural learning' will be used here, taking into account increasing cultural mixes and a comprehensive global aspect. The French language, just like English, is linked to various 'target cultures' and considered a *lingua franca*. Moreover, the approach of sensitising learners to act responsibly at a global level should be considered in teaching from an intercultural perspective in foreign language lessons. Different models and theories exist with regard to mapping the different dimensions of intercultural learning and its sub-categories (Byram

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& Zarate, 1994; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013; Bennett, 1993). The (sub)competencies of intercultural learning that contribute to the development of intercultural communicative competence include for instance the development of critical political awareness. In this context, the importance of intercultural citizenship is promoted and emphasised (Byram, 2008; Byram et al., 2017; Porto et al., 2017). In addition to the ability to change and coordinate perspectives, a reflective approach to cultural difference and diversity is of great importance. Besides the need of coping with critical intercultural incidents, the training of intercultural communicative competence aims to develop intercultural awareness. This leads to openness with regard to different cultures and diversity in general and enables the learners to take part in shaping society. The skills and attitudes presented by Byram and Zarate (1994) and especially the competence 'savoir s'engager', also aiming to develop critical political awareness, contribute to the formation of the intercultural speaker. Hence the intercultural speaker becomes a mediator between cultures. Intercultural speakers are characterised by the ability to apply declarative and procedural knowledge in intercultural encounters in real time, to behave appropriately in intercultural communicative encounter situations and to apply linguistic and cultural knowledge in an appropriate and successful manner. In addition, intercultural speakers should always be aware that their own actions and their personal lifestyle have an impact on a global level and on the living conditions of people in other parts of the world. By raising awareness of selected SDGs, learners can be encouraged to actively recognise certain patterns and behaviours based on their own cultural and social background and then reflect on these patterns and behaviours and their impact at a global level. In addition, a critical response to this reflection may lead to a change in behaviour.

However, it is important to emphasise the processual nature, as the phases of recognising problematic behaviour patterns, critically reflecting on these patterns and changing them are part of an ongoing circular process. But how can audiovisual

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media be used to make the SDGs tangible in the context of intercultural learning and to stimulate critical thinking processes in learners?

In twelfth grade, classical chansons and modern French-speaking music have to be discussed in French lessons as is prescribed by the curriculum. As an example of a rather modern chanson, the title *Je suis un homme* by the singer Zazie could be used. In the lyrics of the song, a very critical view of the human species and its destructive behaviour in the world is brought to bear. Thus, man is ridiculed in his role as ruler of the world and described as the master of illusions and idiots. The ruthlessness of human beings, a destructive approach to nature and excessive consumerism are also portrayed in the video clip. It is set in a museum, where an exhibition takes place on the consequences, quantified in figures, of the ultimately mad and rationally inexplicable behaviour of human beings. It seems to be a promising approach to work with the video clip, which is initially shown to the students without sound, since the clip also contains some challenges due to inserted textual elements. At a further screening of the clip, the students should then take notes on the setting and the issues raised. After a short discussion with an appropriate presentation of results and further consolidation, the learners suggest a title for the song using the think-pair-share method and give reasons for their decision. The clip is viewed again, this time with sound. The lyrics of the chanson are distributed as cloze text which the learners are asked to fill in to train their listening compre-

hension. Due to time constraints, various questions have to be answered during homework (e.g. 'Why is the clip set in a museum?' or 'How does the singer describes and represents the subject of consumption?'), which will serve as a basis for discussion in the next lesson. With reference to the topics identified by the students, in particular the SDGs Zero Hunger, Clean Water and Sanitation, Reduced Inequalities, Responsible Consumption and Production as well as Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions will be discussed and questioned with respect to the learners' own experiences. Especially SDG 10 and its demand to reduce inequality in terms of injustice within and among countries and people could be of particular interest with respect to intercultural learning on a global scale.

How can we all contribute to a more sustainable and fairer society with our daily actions?

2.5. Synthesis of the presented approaches

As the proposed approaches to Education for Sustainable Development with regard to foreign language teaching and learning may suggest, sustainability-oriented topics offer the learners exciting and authentic opportunities for discussion, which are particularly suitable for fluency-based activities. By linking them with classical texts, extracurricular learning environments or audio-visual media, the SDGs can be integrated into foreign language teaching without much additional time expenditure.

In addition to the improvement of linguistic skills, intercultural competencies and literary-aesthetic competencies, learners further develop critical thinking and thus are trained to become citizens who strengthen democracy. In this context, it is also important to support the impact of Education for Sustainable Development approaches in a knowledge-based manner, as is planned, for example, within the framework of the ESD Laboratory at the University of Erlangen-Nuremberg in inter- and transdisciplinary cooperation.

Already during their studies, future teachers should be encouraged to address the issue of sustainability.

3. PROMOTING THE SDGs IN BUSINESS ECONOMICS

Not only future teachers, but also future business economists should engage with and actively contribute to the Sustainable Development Goals and issues of sustainability as soon as possible, as the world-leading industries and corporations based on destructive forms of business contribute to greenhouse gas emissions on a large scale due to the unsustainability of the current economic system (Meadows et al., 1972). It seems obvious that the UN Sustainable Development Goals cannot be achieved by the current contributions of states, municipalities and organisations alone. However, there is a great number of scientific findings on problems and possible solutions that is becoming increasingly sophisticated. At the same time, there is a lack of well-defined implementation measures, which entail the major social, cultural and psychosocial challenges of our time. Consequently, the United Nations has declared 2020 the Decade of Action in order to achieve the SDGs. In addition, further goals such as the Paris Climate Protection Agreement and the European Green Deal have been formulated. For respecting and fulfilling all these goals, completely new and hitherto hardly tested approaches in culture, society, politics, economy and business economics/administration are imperative.

As a matter of course, taking action refers to the implementation of measures to achieve the outlined goals, which requires skills and resources. However, it seems as if in business economics a large proportion of content and competencies conveyed is geared to challenges of the past. This makes it all the more urgent that attention be paid very promptly to the development and teaching of competencies for dealing with prospective, largely still unknown challenges in economics and business administration. Against this background, the key issues of the innovative research and development project *Future Competencies for Transformation and Sustainable Management in the 21st Century* carried out at the Nuremberg Institute of Technology, which focuses particularly on social and cultural innovations, are the following.

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(1) Which competencies and skills do (prospective) business economists and people with market-related, household-related tasks need in order to shape a social-ecological transformation in a participatory and welfare-oriented way?

(2) How should the contents, theories and models of economics with their approaches to solutions and especially business administration with its function theory be further developed?

(3) How are these competences best taught methodically and didactically? How can learners be motivated to acquire these competences in an implementation-oriented way?

In the current status quo of business economics and administration and most other disciplines, the focus in teaching and competence transfer is still little on innovative, future-oriented models of thinking. Novel methods, present and future-oriented content as well as interdisciplinary perspectives are not given much consideration. This is also true for gender perspectives and gender economics. With respect to SDG 5 (Gender Equality) students should nevertheless be introduced to the relevance of gender relations in economics, develop an understanding of the basic relationships between economics and gender relations (Nelson, 1995; Rubery, 2005) and develop their critical thinking skills. Besides, it seems obvious that the starting point for sustainable economic and business management approaches in research and teaching are the planetary boundaries and functional and reproductive ecosystems. Future models and theories of economics and, ultimately, of business studies are derived from these and must be expanded to the social dimensions of our democratic-humanistic values. Here, for example, Rawls's (1971) theory of justice offers an ethical as well as didactic starting point. Moreover, the imagination of a successful future and the ability to lead from the future (Scharmer & Kaeufer, 2013) do not yet seem to be part of training concepts for professions in the field of business economics. Initial solution proposals and future labs will provide starting points for theoretical and methodological approaches to further development of economics and business administration (Hochmann, 2020).

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In the central phase of the research and development project presented, didactic-methodological approaches and designs as well as content and theory are worked out, implemented in the academic teaching process and evaluated. The project results of sustainable competence training will be presented to a professional and scientific audience and put up for discussion in order to reflect on and calibrate in practice. Since in business economics and administration there is usually less room for so-called key competencies as a basis for democratic and cultural challenges and requirements, a special teaching unit will be developed. Students should have to deal with the basics of philosophy and ethics, as well as with the impact of language and communication, e.g. by means of cognitive framing. The effects of new technologies on attention, self-control and social interactions are to be critically reflected. Moreover, the development of a general cultural capability with respect to inter- and transcultural competences, the ability to change perspectives and a critical political awareness is of central importance.

Using the ecological agriculture and food economy as an example, it can be shown how the transformation and ecologisation of economic sectors can be achieved. At the same time, the business cycle of organic agriculture provides an ideal role model for the didactic and entrepreneurial derivation and development of both ecosystem management and circular economy. Social aspects and challenges can also be illustrated here (Niessen & Hiß, 2020). Sustainable corporate management as

'The combination of humanities and business administration provides a comprehensive basis for constructive and critical thinking that promotes sustainability-specific, cross-sectoral action'

a holistic management approach thus implicitly takes into account multi-stake-holder perspectives as well as economic, social and ecological dimensions. Consequently, the SDGs Responsible Consumption and Production, Climate Action, Life below Water and Life on Land are tackled here and should be discussed with the students. Again, it is important to critically reflect the impact of different business systems and strategies on a global scale.

The whole research and development project will be evaluated according to criteria of effectiveness and competence development. Through training on competences in sustainable development and business management, an awareness of complex and systemic interrelationships is raised. Students will be actively involved in teaching-learning research processes, e.g. by self- and external assessment and continuous research diaries. The combination of humanities and business administration provides a comprehensive basis for constructive and critical thinking that promotes sustainability-specific, cross-sectoral action. By linking traditional and current economic content with that from other disciplines, participants learn to critically question the current economic system in their studies or through professional training. They are also enabled to advance and further develop alternative and sustainable models in practice. The students' personal responsibility, their self-learning skills and organisational abilities are fostered through continuous feedback.

4. PROMOTING THE SDGs ON A SOCIETAL LEVEL

In addition to a thorough and sustainability-oriented education in school and university contexts, the SDGs should also be targeted throughout soci-

ety. Hence, the pilot project *SDGs go local*, which is funded by the German *Umweltbundesamt* (German Federal Environment Agency), is an interesting approach aiming at a versatile education for sustainable development. With respect to the acknowledgement of planetary boundaries and the limits to economic growth (Meadows et al., 1972), the project focuses on the direct involvement of civil society, science, economy, politics and culture in two exemplary model city districts in the Franconian area. The scientific evaluation of this longitudinal study is carried out by the research professorship for sustainability-oriented innovation and transformation management at the Nuremberg Institute of Technology. Thus, empirical surveys will be used to examine the content-related and process-related measures used for the development and implementation of sustainable solutions in urban districts, taking different notions of urban experimentation into account (Caprotti & Cowley, 2017). After the pilot phase, the developed and tested evaluation concept can be transferred to other municipalities in Germany. A continuous exchange of information and knowledge is to be established and a far-reaching, international network is to be built up. The results will form the basis for a guidance framework that may facilitate the political process by providing 'promising practice' examples in order to shape the implementation of sustainable solutions. Due to the many shortcomings of the term 'best practice' and the correctives that exist, *SDGs go local* aims at promoting so-called 'promising practices'. These emerging practices demonstrate long-term sustainable impacts, are culturally sensitive to their context and they also show effectiveness in addressing a commonly identified issue.

The SDGs are to be used to accelerate regional development and the implementation of ecological and social transformation processes in society. As the SDGs are hardly known to the general public, specific implementation approaches are necessary to convey knowledge and activate people. But what influence do inclusion and empowerment have on urban transformative capacity? According to Wolfram et al. (2019, p. 448), *'it becomes evi-*

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dent that open and inclusive participation and the (related) empowerment of excluded and sustainability-oriented groups represent the bottom-line necessary condition for urban TC – and should thus be the first concern when approaching its development'. By working with a bottom-up process within *SDGs go loca*l, people's experience of self-efficacy supports their self-confidence and their ability to act in order to fill the SDGs with life. The bottom-up approach strengthens the resilience of democratic structures in society and contributes to a better mutual understanding. The cooperation of civil society, science, economy, politics and culture is thus supported. People taking part in the project become change agents (Bliesner et al., 2013) themselves. It could be argued that change agents within *SDGs go local* are people who foster change towards sustainable development and a sustainable culture on a societal level. Hence, they need in particular social, methodological and professional competencies to implement social and cultural innovations. Consequently, they become aware of their importance for a sustainable shaping of society through participatory processes and contribute to the development of an SDG empowerment tool at regional level.

Through an overall approach including society in its entirety, a real participation and co-shaping of democratic processes seems to be possible. For example, novel ideas of mobility, where a more extensive and safer bicycle network is promoted, as well as degrowth-oriented (cf. Kallis, 2018; Robra & Heikkurinen, 2019), economic concepts are gradually developed and implemented, new green spaces and cultural meeting places are created, and an innovative seminar concept focusing on the SDGs in the context of Social Sciences has been developed in cooperation with university. Moreover, it is the aim of the project to promote cultural and democratic awareness in civil society. Hence, a potential-oriented exchange between civil society and political representatives has been initiated as well. Within the framework of *SDGs go local*, democratic processes should be made tangible and it is thus imperative to establish an open and critical culture of debate and discussion in or-

der to enable people to jointly develop constructive solutions. Therefore, a cooperation with the Nuremberg Partnership for Democracy has been built up to promote critical debates with representatives at the administrative level and other experts through a novel format entitled *Democracy through Dialogue*. The key focus is on questions of participation, information policy and transparency in decision-making with regard to urban development, as people show great interest in shaping their district and cultural city life.

By means of a clearly defined concept of sustainability, which combines ecological, social, economic and inter-/transcultural aspects, it is possible to pursue a holistic approach with respect to all 17 SDGs. For example, sharing goods like a cargo bike in the district, which is accessible to everyone free of charge, can contribute to preserving resources and climate protection. Moreover, the sense of community is strengthened. In addition, the long-term economic advantages of environmental policy measures are communicated through various educational formats, in workshops and talks. It can already be stated that the project has opened up a range of new opportunities for inclusive policy-making and that carefully building, maintaining and working in partnerships is a key to success. Emerging practices show how actors with diverse backgrounds and at different levels are using increasingly sophisticated structures and mechanisms to tackle the complexities of implementing the SDGs. One key lesson – among others – that has been identified from international case studies (Partners for Review, 2020) is the effectiveness of working through umbrella organisations to reach stakeholders. Using well-established networks allows the integration of different perspectives and voices. Another important finding is that the different roles, competencies and interests of people involved have to be clarified and transparently communicated. Moreover, the increasing demand for peer learning has to be emphasised as change agents involved in sustainable development are interested in receiving feedback on specific issues, sharing their experience and learning from each other on site.

5. CONCLUSION

As has been shown, by giving an insight into various approaches and projects the UN Sustainable Development Goals can easily be targeted in educational contexts at school and university as well as on a societal level. However, a fundamental inter- and even transdisciplinary network is imperative in order to address the tremendous ecological and cultural challenges of our time. Thus, the SDGs have to be targeted from different perspectives and should be discussed and implemented in foreign language teaching and other subjects at school, in the field of business economics with its novel approaches in training and enterprise, and everyday urban life to shape a culture of sustainability and democracy. Therefore, the importance of quality education as perhaps the central goal among the SDGs must be considered as the ultimate key to enable people to further sustainable development and take action.

Worldwide and also in Germany, ecological as well as social and cultural aspects are often subordinated to short-term financial gains. However, an unspoiled natural environment, biodiversity and the respect for human rights are crucial for preserving our living conditions on this planet. A careful use of available resources would also bring long-term economic benefits to humankind as a whole. Raising this awareness in different educational contexts and on various levels may lead to sustainability-oriented changes in people's everyday behaviour and could be an important contribution to a sustainability-oriented transformation of society.

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Original Research

Which competences for whom? Supporting the supporters of work-related L2 development by migrants and ethnic minorities

by Matilde Grünhage-Monetti

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Competences is one of the key words used to describe performance improvement in language learning and teaching and management training. Training is not just concerned with knowledge but with competence – the ability to perform successfully. Competences and the achievement of competency are key indicators used in quality assurance and assessment of student success and course validity. This paper takes a systemic stance on how to support migrant and ethnic minority learners develop their work-related communicative skills in the language of the country of residence (L2). It looks beyond the classroom at other places where work-related L2 learning take place and/or can be supported, including job centres and the workplace itself. It considers other actors than L2 teachers and providers including employers, managers and labour administration staff. Based on small-scale empirical research into work-related L2 teaching and learning practice, the article presents some findings of the Language for Work Network (LfW) and describes competences, which have been found helpful in practice to different actors supporting L2 development for and at work.

KEYWORDS: *competences, teachers, CEFR, migrants, minorities, LfW, Language for Work, ECML*

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, few concepts have had such great success and lasting impact on pedagogy, economy and politics as that of competence. Since the sixties, the term *competence* has been used to describe *'the self-organised, creative capacity of individuals and collective subjects to act'* (Erpenbeck, 2014, p. 20). The concept is connected with a fundamental change in the world view, which has taken place in the late 20th century and will prob-

ably reach far into the future. Complexity and self-organisation theories and the insight that they are applicable to social processes have replaced the classic 'mechanistic' thinking that prevailed in previous centuries.

Self-organisation, constructivism, empowerment didactics and competences are the key concepts of a new, future-oriented pedagogy (Erpenbeck, 2014, p. 20). What do these concepts mean? Self-organisation characterises processes of spon-

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taneous generation of organised structures, initiated, but not generated from outside and based on inner laws of the self-organising system (Erpenbeck, 2014, p. 20). As to thinking and cognition, constructivism maintains that the human brain does not produce photographic pictures of reality but constructs its own representations of the world. Finally, empowerment didactics means that teaching is not a transfer of knowledge from teachers to learners but a process of enabling leaners to construct knowledge in a self-organised way.

In language education, competency has played a central role since the 1970s with the introduction of the concept of *communicative competence* as a system of language learning. As Newby (2019) points out, the term has been explored from different perspectives.

Learner competences describe what skills learners need to acquire and how they acquire language and related skills (Newby, 2019, p. 40). Teacher competences focus on what teachers need to know and do to support the development of their learners' competences, and how they acquire these didactic skills.

The Common European Framework of Reference defines competence as the *'sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform action'* (CEFR, 2001, p. 9). Central to

the concept of competence is the focus on action-orientation and on the ability to act in complex situations.

The Language for Work (LfW) network and website, emerging from two ECML (European Centre for Modern Languages) projects, take a systemic stance on the issue of competences, building on the understanding of language as more than a formal system of vocabulary and grammar to be taught in a classroom or online. The language we use in any context is shaped by social norms and power relationships and therefore not just the business language but also the business environment matters (Language for Work, 2019).

2. THE LfW LISTS OF COMPETENCES

LfW therefore investigated actual practice in order to identify desirable competences for the various actors in education, labour administration and business supporting work-related L2 development. The checklists were then organised by setting (i.e. where the work-related L2 learning is being supported, e.g. in a language classroom, or in the workplace itself, etc.) and support role (i.e. actors present in the setting who can provide support, such as teachers, job centre staff, volunteers, managers and colleagues, etc.) (Language for Work, 2019) (Figure 1).

Setting 1
- Learner
- L2 teacher
- L2 learning provider

Setting 2
- Learner
- L2 teacher
- L2 learning provider
- Job Centre

Setting 3
- Learner
- L2 teacher
- L2 learning provider
- Job Centre
- VET (vocational education and training) providers
- volunteers and/or other • partners in the community

Setting 4
- Learner
- L2 teacher
- L2 learning provider
- employer/management
- colleagues (e.g. as mentors)
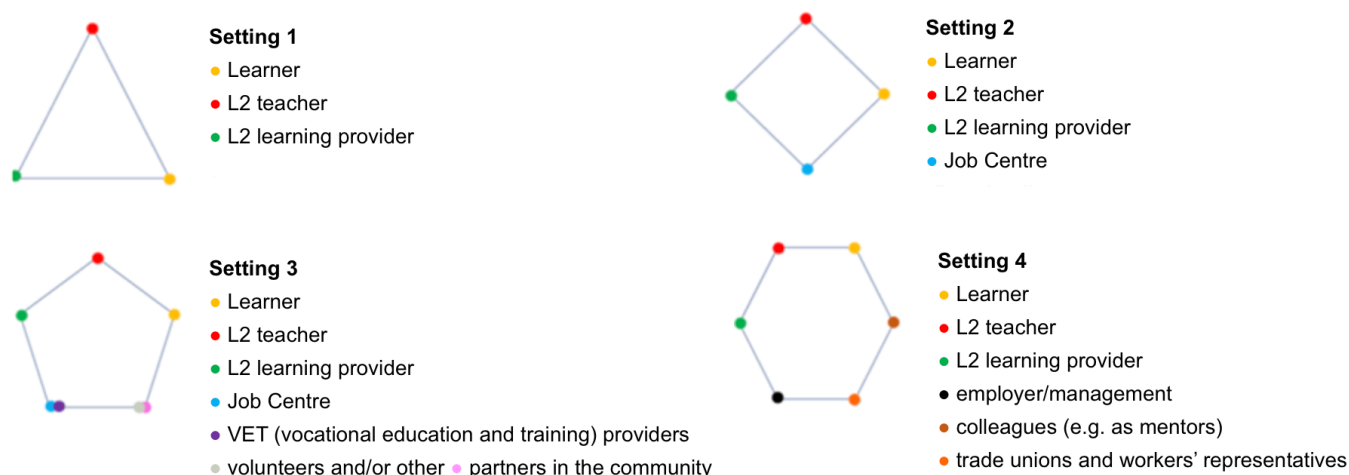- trade unions and workers' representatives

Figure 1. The four Language for Work (LfW) settings
(source: LfW Lists)

The following lists of competences have been developed by the international coordinating team of the Language for Work projects and network (LfW), sponsored by the European Centre of Modern languages of the Council of Europe. They are *not* prescriptive, *nor* are they a 'to-do' list for professional development. These checklists aim simply to make visible a number of competences found to be useful in practice. The authors regard them as a tool to help the many actors supporting migrants and ethnic minorities developing work-related skills in the language of the country of residence (L2): teachers and learning providers, but also job centre staff, employers, co-workers, etc. These checklists take a more systemic position on the issue of L2 acquisition and development in the context of work in line with the contemporary discourse on language, learning, work, and competences. Therefore, the lists embrace competences useful to the various key actors involved in work-related L2 development.

3. METHODOLOGY

The authors have generated these lists of competences by analysing some 50 practice examples of support for L2 learning at, for and through work contributed by LfW network's members – teachers, teacher trainers, providers and researchers – from Europe and Canada. 35 such practices are documented in the LfW website (Language for Work, 2020). The identified ways of support for work-related L2 learning have been conceptualised in terms of specific constellations of actors, working together in the four settings. On the basis of the data at our disposal the LfW identified the four set-

tings and named them, using geometric figures with the actors at the angles. As with all models, these settings are analytical constructs and generalisations. In real life practice is usually more complex. Nonetheless, they can be used as basic maps that reveal the salient features of a practice. As further practices emerge, the LfW network hopes to document and add them to this collection and amend the conceptual framework accordingly.

The next section analyses the competences in each of the four settings and describes the role of the actors in each setting, the mode of teaching or training or other learning arrangements and the desirable competences of each actor in the setting, what they should be familiar with and aware of and what they should be willing and able to do.

4. THE LfW COMPETENCES
4.1. Setting 1: The triangle

The key actors in Setting 1 are the learner, the L2 teacher and the L2 learning provider. The learners are mostly job seekers, but they may also be employees wanting to improve their L2 skills to find a better or more secure position. The provision is classroom-based and often structured as a course. Work placements may be included, but more common are visits to workplaces of interest to learners. Instruction is the predominant mode of support for learning, but with some support for self-directed and autonomous learning, such as encouragement of Internet research by learners and the use of language observation tasks focused on communication at work or in everyday life outside the classroom; also, peer-learning and peer-coaching (Table 1).

Table 1
Setting 1 key actors' competences

L2 TEACHER COMPETENCES	
The teacher is familiar with:	• the local/regional labour market; • work-related languages skills in workplaces of interest for learners; • analysis of work-related language requirements; • analysis of learning needs.

The teacher is aware that:	• each workplace is a functional system with its own aims and goals, power relations, priorities, structures, procedures, etc.; • learners' autonomy can be valuably fostered by exploiting the language learning opportunities of L2 environments; • the psycho-social situations of migrants and refugees may impact their L2 learning; • learners may have very different educational backgrounds, including on VET (vocational education and training); • learners may have very different levels of literacy and in some circumstances work-related L2 instruction may include basic skills, such as numeracy.
The teacher is willing to:	• engage with the learners' field of work (actual and prospective).
The teacher is able to:	• work cooperatively with other actors, including vocational teachers, job centres, non-professional mentors/volunteers, employers, workplace instructors; • adapt methods of needs analysis and requirements analysis to own specific situation, e.g. no access to companies, or learners working in different sectors, etc.; • develop a learning programme that addresses the needs and requirements of diverse groups of learners; • address the learning proprieties of the relevant stakeholders, such as job centres; • use a range of approaches to support learning, including, for example, the arrangement of work placements in local companies; • offer information, guidance and advice to learners on work-related L2 issues.

L2 LEARNING PROVIDER COMPETENCES

The provider is familiar with:	• the local/regional labour market; • the process of L2 acquisition, including enablers and barriers to L2 acquisition, and can relate to the specific situation of learners in own institution; • language requirements of a variety of jobs (accessible to the learners); • qualification structure and forms of education and vocational training provision; • needs and requirements analysis, how to support staff to implement/adapt them.
The provider is aware that:	• each workplace is a functional system with its own aims and goals, power relations, priorities, structures, and procedures, etc.
The provider is able to:	• network in order to organise work-related L2 support activities for learners with other actors, including (1) local employers in order to organise work-placements, visits to companies, requirements' analysis, etc.; (2) job centres, voluntary sectors, chambers of commerce, trade unions, employers associations, local government, round tables/economic development initiatives; (3) VET schools and centres; (4) migrants' organisations/communities; (5) volunteers and volunteer organisation; • provide professional development for own staff regarding work-related L2; • support teaching staff with equipment, contacts for placements, visits, etc.; • provide information, advice and guidance (for learners) to support their language and vocational development.

4.2. Setting 2: The square

The key actors in this setting are the learner, the L2 teacher, the L2 learning provider, and the job centre. The profile of learners, teachers and types of course are similar to Setting 1. This type of provision is usually initiated by the local labour market administration (municipality, job centre) working with teachers and learning providers and aims to integrate migrants into the labour market (Table 2).

Table 2
Setting 2 key actors' competences

L2 TEACHER COMPETENCES	
In addition to the skills in Setting 1 the teacher is familiar with:	• qualification structure and forms of education and vocational training provision; • procedures for the recognition of qualifications acquired abroad or informally; • how to research education and VET systems of learners' countries of origin; • language and communication requirements in workplaces, which are of interest/accessible to own learners; • methods and tools of needs and requirements analysis and can adapt them to the concrete situation.
The teacher is aware that:	• education, work, administration are different functional systems with own aims and goals, requirements etc. and is ready to find a realistic and satisfactory interface for the work-related L2 development of the learners.
The teacher is able to:	• cooperate with other actors/stakeholders, in particular with job centres, mentors, employers, VET teachers, supervisors, etc.; • strike a balance between own aims/goals as a teacher and aims/goals and interests of the language provider, the labour market administration and those of the learner; • assess language and communication requirements of specific workplaces, and work-related language needs and skills of learners; • develop a realistic curriculum accordingly; • negotiate the curriculum with learners and other relevant key actors, such as job centres, to accommodate possible different needs/requirements; • implement work-related language specific classroom management including use of digital and mobile devices, e.g. (1) by developing tasks which link classroom and workplace/every-day life; (2) by enhancing learners' capacity to identify language-related requirements in workplaces/jobs of interest for them; (3) by enhancing learners' capacity to self-evaluate and monitor own L2 progress; (4) by using coaching approaches or initiating/supporting peer learning; • implement blended learning; • provide information, guidance and advice for learners on work-related L2 issues.
L2 LEARNING PROVIDER COMPETENCES	
The provider is familiar with:	• qualification structure and forms of education and vocational training provision; • procedures for the recognition of qualifications acquired abroad or informally;

- the educational and VET systems of the countries of origin of learners or is able and ready to search for such information;
- language and communication requirements in workplaces, which are of interest/ accessible to own learners and requested by the local/regional labour market;
- legislation and regulation on the employment of migrants and refugees;
- legislation and regulation on training provision, especially in VET at workplace;
- language requirements of jobs of interest for learners and/or job centres;
- methods and tools of needs and requirements analysis and can support own staff to implement/adapt them.

The provider is aware of staff needs and is ready to:

- support staff with whatever equipment, contacts for placements, visits, finding information on recognition of foreign qualifications, foreign educational systems, etc.;
- provide professional development in response to challenges of the labour market.

The provider is able to:

- provide information and advice and guidance to support learners' language and vocational development and/or support teachers to do so;
- network with, in particular, (1) local employers to organise work placements, visits to companies, needs analysis, etc.; (2) voluntary sectors, chambers of commerce, trade unions, employers' associations, local government, round tables/initiatives to boost local economy, etc.; (3) VET schools and centres; (4) migrants' organisations;
- raise awareness among non-educational actors of the difference between L2 needs and educational needs due to lack of formal education and between language/communication and vocational competence;
- advise job centres on educational needs of clients or how to find out educational/ language needs of clients;
- negotiate fair conditions for work placements, qualification courses, etc.;
- carry out needs and requirements analysis or support own staff to do so,
- organise teachers/supervisors staff meetings to ensure the monitoring of training;
- organise steering committee to oversee all training;
- promote the issue of work-related L2 development and market own offer/provision with job centres and employer in different ways;
- reach out to gig-economy workers whose contracts are precarious;
- plan different sort of interventions, e.g. communication training for staff in job centres for accessible communication, advise employers on screening documents, how to support L2 development on the job, etc.

JOB CENTRE STAFF COMPETENCES

Job centre staff are familiar with:

- assessment and training systems and can advise clients accordingly;
- systems and procedures for the recognition of foreign qualifications or informally achieved qualifications and can advise clients accordingly;
- issues related to psycho-social situation of migrants in particular refugees (living, family, culture, housing, insecure life prospects, trauma, limited L2 networks, etc.);
- language requirements for different jobs;
- barriers, enablers for L2 acquisition and development by adult migrants/refugees.

Job centre staff are aware of:	• the catchment area and its needs; • different educational systems and educational backgrounds of the clients; • issues related to psycho-social situation of migrants and refugees that may impact L2 learning.
Job centre staff are willing and able to:	• investigate the educational backgrounds of the clients, including the educational systems in their countries of origin; • match needs and offers; • investigate the educational/language needs of clients; • distinguish between L2 needs and educational needs of clients (e. g. those with limited, interrupted or no formal education); • reconcile needs of the migrants with the requirements of the system; • make some judgment on the L2 skills and language needs of clients; • communicate accessibly (in writing and orally); • avoid taking either paternalistic or maternal positions in relation to clients.

4.3. Setting 3: The pentagon

This setting may include quite a number of different partners, including the following actors: learners, L2 teachers, L2 learning providers, job centres, VET providers, volunteers and/or other partners in the community. In other cases, there are just a few partners. The learners may be unemployed, job-seekers or participating in VET programmes. Aims may include social integration (Table 3).

Table 3
Setting 3 key actors' competences

L2 TEACHER COMPETENCES	
The teacher is aware that/of:	• education, work, administration are different functional systems with their own aims and goals, requirements, procedures, etc. and is ready to find a realistic and satisfactory interface for the work-related L2 development of the learners; • the difference between work-related language skills and vocational competence (the difference between the language skills requested by the workplace organisations and those requested by the work content/tasks as such) and can raise awareness among the other actors, in particular VET teachers; • the impact that the specific psycho-social situations of migrants in particularly refugees may have on the language learning process (e.g. very limited networks with L2 speakers, co-presence of different languages in every-day life, traumatic life experiences, etc.).
The teacher is able to:	• cooperate with VET and other teachers, e.g. to assess/identify jointly the age-appropriate L1 literacy and grade/level-appropriate content knowledge of the learners in order to develop tailored provision; • cooperate with other actors/stakeholders, volunteers, job centres, employers, etc.; • establish, maintain and support contacts with the communities to which the learners belong, in order to promote the importance of work-related L2 learning;

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• raise awareness among actors/stakeholders of the difference between work-related language L2 skills and vocational skills;

• strike a balance between own aims/goals (as L2 teacher) and aims/goals and requirements, interests of the language provider, of the labour market (administration) or other stakeholders and those of the learner;

• analyse the language and communication requirements of specific workplaces, and work-related language needs and language competence of learners;

• develop a realistic curriculum accordingly;

• negotiate the curriculum with learners and other relevant key actors, such as job centres, to accommodate possible different needs/requirements;

• implement work-related language-specific classroom management including use of digital and mobile devices, e.g. (1) by developing tasks which link classroom and workplace/every-day life; (2) by enhancing learners' capacity to identify language-related requirements in workplaces/jobs of interest for them; (3) by enhancing learners' capacity to self-evaluate and monitor own L2 progress; (4) by using coaching approaches or initiating/supporting peer learning;

• provide information, guidance and advice to learners on work-related L2 issues.

VET TEACHER* COMPETENCES

The VET teacher is familiar with:	• the concept of integrating language learning with subject-matter learning (Content and Language Integrated Learning, CLIL).
The VET teacher is aware that:	• VET instruction can support the L2 learner to develop language skills, including language for study.
The VET teacher is able to:	• cooperate with the L2 teacher to support language development through VET instruction.

L2 LEARNING PROVIDER, VET PROVIDER COMPETENCES

| The L2/VET provider is familiar with: | • the local/regional labour market situation;
• the qualification structure and forms of VET provision in place;
• procedures for the recognition of qualifications acquired abroad or informally;
• the educational and VET systems of the countries of origin of learners or is ready and able and to search for such information;
• language and communication requirements in workplaces, which are of interest/accessible to own learners and requested by the local/regional labour market;
• legislation and regulation regarding the employment of migrants and refugees;
• language requirements of jobs;
• funding sources;
• barriers and enablers for L2 acquisition and development by adult migrants and refugees. |

* The term *VET teacher* includes any non-L2 teacher, e.g. teacher of engineering skills, health & social care skills, mathematics/numeracy skills, etc.

The L2/VET provider is aware of:	• the challenges of acquiring L2 and vocational competences at the same time, in particular for those learners with limited, interrupted or no formal education; • the needs of staff and is ready to support staff with equipment, contacts for placements, visits, finding information on recognition of foreign qualifications, foreign educational systems, and provide professional development for own staff in response to new challenges, new job profiles, new work content through digitalisation, etc.
The L2/VET provider is able to:	• identify (and combine) funding sources; • provide information, advice and guidance for learners to support their language and vocational development and/or support teachers to do so; • network, in particular with local employers (in order to organise work placements, visits to companies, needs analysis, etc.), voluntary sector organisations, chambers of commerce, trade unions, employers' associations, local government, round tables/initiatives to boost local economy, etc., VET schools, centres and migrant organisations; • advise job centres on educational needs of clients; • negotiate fair conditions for work placements, qualification courses, etc.; • carry out needs and requirements analysis or support own staff to do so; • promote the issue of work-related L2 development and market own offer/provision with job centres and employer in different ways; • reach out to workers whose contracts are precarious; • plan different sort of interventions, e.g. communication training for staff in job centres for accessible communication, advise employers on screening documents, how to support L2 development on the job, etc.; • support L2 acquisition and development of adult migrants and refugees; • build relevant relationships, e.g. with labour market actors; • raise awareness with employers, instructors, job centres, migrant/community organisations regarding the challenges migrants face as L2 learners.

JOB CENTRE COMPETENCES
the same as in Setting 2

VOLUNTEER COMPETENCES

The volunteer is familiar with:	• barriers, enablers for L2 acquisition and development by adult migrants/refugees; • the current system of (1) language provision for adults; (2) certification and assessment; (3) recognition of qualifications.
Volunteers are aware of:	• their own role, that is they are supporters, not teachers, of L2 learning/development but can act as role models for learners.
The volunteer is able and willing to:	• find the relevant information; • cooperate and network with other actors: teachers, language providers, job centres, employers /representative bodies, etc.; • make a case/be an advocate for the importance of work-related L2 development with the learners, their community, the majority community (individuals and institutions like local government, job centres, employers' representations, trade unions).

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COMPETENCES OF OTHER PARTNERS IN THE COMMUNITY	
The partner is familiar with:	• barriers, enablers for L2 acquisition and development by adult migrants/refugees; • the current system of (1) language provision for adults; (2) certification and assessment; (3) recognition of qualifications.
The partner is able and willing to:	• act as a 'mediator' between institutions of the majority society, such as educational providers, job centres and own community members (in this context, can promote the issue of work-related L2 development, informing own members, inviting providers and job centres to present their services, etc.); • support own members of the community (in particular women) so that they can attend work-related L2 provision; • reach out to workers on precarious contracts; • attract volunteers; • organise volunteers' support; • celebrate role models (from the community) and achievements.

4.4. Setting 4: The hexagon

This setting focuses on the workplace and its actors and stakeholders: learner, L2 teacher/coach, L2 learning provider, employer/manager, colleagues (e.g. as mentors), trade unions and workers' representatives (Table 4).

Teaching can take place in groups or individually, directly at the workstation or in a separate space on the company's premises or at the learning provider's. In this setting formal, non-formal and informal learning arrangements may be all present. Next to traditional instruction, coaching and mentoring – well-established approaches in VET and adult education – are used to support work-related L2 development.

Coaching is a way of helping an individual employee or group of employees to improve their work-related L2 performance. There are two main forms of coaching, directive and non-directive. In directive coaching, the coach sets goals, suggests strategies to achieve them, identifies resources, monitors the learners' performance and gives them evaluative feedback. Directive coaching is instructional, and the coach is the expert. It is another form of teaching or training. The coach requires expert knowledge of performance in the given context. In non-directive coaching, the individual or group is the expert and they set the agenda. The

coach helps them to think through the agenda and apply their own expertise to achieve the outcomes they want. Non-directive coaching is facilitative. It is based on reflective learning and structured problem-solving. The coach requires knowledge only of how to help people learn and problem-solve for themselves. In the data examined, characteristics of both types of coaching occur. The coach is often an L2 teacher. The company usually sets the learning agenda, etc. On the other end, the learner is clearly the expert in his/her work and the coach provides support in L2 problem-solving and learning to learn.

Mentoring describes informal guidance from someone with more expertise. Mentors share their own expertise to support the development of someone with less expertise. In this setting colleagues or front-line managers usually act as L2 mentors. They often fulfil a double function: they support migrant co-workers to improve their L2 performance, and at the same time they may raise the management's awareness of L2 workplace communications and suggest the most appropriate improvements.

Learners and Learning. In this setting, the learners are usually employees but can also be job seekers. The focus is on the requirements and needs of the workplace. L2 development is neces-

sary to meet the demands placed on language and communication skills through globalisation, modifications in work content and organisation as well as new technologies and companies' needs for L2-speaking employees. It aims to improve the work processes, the communication between management and employees and among them. It aims to contribute to securing jobs, improving the learners' participation in work and enhancing their career prospects.

Table 4
Setting 4 key actors' competences

L2 TEACHER/COACH COMPETENCES	
The teacher/coach is familiar with:	• the local/regional labour market situation; • relevant training adult and further education and VET offers in the area; • ethnographic methods and instruments to identify the language and communication needs of learners and employers; • the impact that the specific psycho-social situations of migrants, in particularly refugees, may have on the language learning process (e.g. very limited networks with L2 speakers, co-presence of different languages in every-day life, etc., traumatic life experiences); • instruments to support employers/managers to identify and lower (structural) barriers to the workplace communicative requirements and learners' performance (in particular, a coach is familiar with instruments to facilitate learning and support learners to learn autonomously).
The teacher/coach is ready and willing to:	• engage with the field of work in question; • cooperate with labour market actors such as employers, HRM, supervisors, instructors, mentors, trade unions, as well as job centres, etc.; • engage in non-formal and informal learning arrangements; • raise awareness among workplace actors of (1) the role of language as part of vocational competence; (2) the basics of L2 acquisition by adults; (3) enablers and barriers to L2 acquisition and workplace communicative performance; (4) the challenges of L2 learning by adult migrants, in particular those with limited, interrupted or no formal education; • support employers/managers to identify and lower (structural) barriers to L2 acquisition and the workplace communicative requirements and learners' performance.
The teacher/coach is aware that/of:	• education, work, administration are different functional systems with their own aims and goals, requirements etc. and is ready to find a realistic and satisfactory interface for the work-related L2 development of the learners; • learners' different educational systems and backgrounds; • the interdependency of work content and organisation and communication (e.g. flexibility/rotation poses more and higher communicative demands on operational staff working at different workstations); • enablers and barrier to L2 acquisition and workplace communicative performance, particularly at structural level;

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• the impact that the specific psycho-social situations of migrants, in particular refugees, may have on the language learning process (e.g. very limited networks with L2 speakers, co-presence of different languages in every-day life, etc., traumatic life experiences);
• particular challenges of learners with limited, interrupted or no formal education;
• own role, need to avoid taking paternalistic or maternal positions, taking sides, etc.

The teacher is able to:
• analyse the language and communication requirements in specific workplaces, and the work-related language needs of learners;
• develop a realistic curriculum accordingly;
• negotiate curriculum with managers and learners in order to accommodate possible different needs and interests;
• guide and advise learners on work-related L2 issues;
• guide and advise managers and other workplace actors;
• apply different teaching methods and tools including digital devices, in particular (1) to link the classroom with the workplace/every-day L2 learning opportunities; (2) to foster learners' autonomy so that they can exploit the opportunities of living and working in the L2 environment; (3) to support learners to identify L2 requirements in workplaces/jobs of interest for them; (4) to enhance learners' capability of self-evaluating and monitoring own L2 progress (helping them to identify concrete goals reached on a continuous basis and to name them); (5) delegate specific questions from learners to professionals;
• listen attentively/actively;
• focus on learners' resources, potential and capability;
• focus on realistic problem-solving and action orientation.

L2 LEARNING PROVIDER COMPETENCES

The provider is familiar with:
• the local/regional labour market situation;
• the language requirements of jobs in question, if not he is willing and able to identify them;
• legislation and regulations relevant to the employment of migrants and refugees;
• educational systems in countries of origin of learners or information sources;
• psycho-social situation of migrants and particularly refugees and its impact on (language) learning such as legal status, living, family, culture, housing, trauma, few L2 speaking networks, etc.);
• different formal, non-formal learning arrangements.

The provider is willing and able to:
• raise awareness among workplace actors of (1) the role of language as part of vocational competence; (2) the basics of L2 acquisition; (3) the challenges of L2 learning by adult migrants, in particular those with limited, interrupted or no formal education; (4) the advantages, limits and requirements of different arrangements of formal, non-formal and informal learning;
• reach out to 'gig economy' workers on precarious contracts (see extra dimension);
• support and enable own staff to offer tailored L2 provision.

The provider is aware that/of:	• work as a functional system is different from education, public administration, etc. with its own aims and goals, priorities, power relations, logics, dynamics, etc. and is willing to find an interface between their own aims as L2 teachers, the aims of learners, providers and employers; • learners' different educational systems and backgrounds; • the impact of structural factors of work organisation and content on L2 requirements and L2 acquisition.
The provider is able to:	• network, in particular with (1) employers in order to organise work placements, needs analysis, etc.; (2) actors and stakeholders such as chambers of commerce, trade unions, employers' associations, local government, round tables/initiatives to boost local economy, etc.; (3) VET schools and centres; (4) migrants' organisations; • provide professional development for own staff; • support teaching staff with whatever is needed: equipment, contacts for placements, visits; • provide information and advice and guidance (for learners) to support their language and vocational development; • provide guidance and support for company actors (employer, managers, mentors, trade unions); • carry out needs analysis or support own staff to do so; • promote the issue of work-related L2 development and market own offer/provision with job centres and employers; • evaluate results and analyse impact; • market own provision, in formal and informal ways; • plan different sort of interventions, e.g. intercultural communication training for supervisors, screening of documents, etc.

EMPLOYER/MANAGEMENT COMPETENCES

Management is familiar with:	• the basics of L2 language learning, enablers and barriers; • relevant legislation, rules particularly regarding migrants/refugees employment; • how and where to get support e.g. regarding learning providers for language teaching, for language needs and requirements analysis, assessment of individual language skills; • tools available for better communication in the workplace, e.g. how to talk to employees about language learning needs, how to discuss language requirements with staff, how to use reflective discussions to improve language, etc.
Management is aware that/of:	• work content and organisations technologies and communication are interdependent; • language is not learnt automatically when someone is in employment; • language and communicative skills that are needed for the particular workplace and for employment (can be related to the CEFR; general or specific, but often a more specific description is needed); • structural and personal enablers and barriers to L2 acquisition and performance.

Management is ready/willing to:	• offer training and support for mentors.

Management is able to:	• support communication and language development in the workplace; • connect language learning with the operational development of the work activity; • identify (and combine) funding sources; • develop a language policy and a strategy for language in the workplace.

STAFF COMPETENCES

Staff are familiar with:	• local procedures on what to do and who to contact when misunderstandings arise.

Staff are open-minded towards:	• colleagues speaking another language, and/or with a different cultural background.

SUPERVISOR/TRAINER/MENTOR, ETC. COMPETENCES

Supervisors/trainers/mentors, etc. are familiar with:	• the communicative requirements and the social norms of the company/workplace; • ways of supporting L2 learners, in particular how to give support without taking over the work task; • the basics of language, communication, inclusion and intercultural issues; • different tools for correcting language and solving misunderstandings, etc.; • simple tools and methods for creative language development; • basic digital competence.

Supervisors/trainers/mentors, etc. are aware of:	• what language is needed for the particular workplace, task, etc.; • structural and personal enablers and barriers to L2 acquisition and performance; • relevant training adult and further education and VET offers in the area or willing to find out information.

Supervisors/trainers/mentors etc. are able to:	• cooperate with other supervisors, key persons in the workplace, teachers, etc.; • give management relevant information and help to establish routines and a supportive environment for language learning; • communicate effectively with migrant workers who are still developing L2 communicative competence; • build a relationship of trust and respect with mentees.

TRADE UNION STAFF COMPETENCES

Trade union staff are familiar with:	• the basics of L2 acquisition by adults and what are the enablers and barriers and relevant training adult and further education and VET offers in the area or willing to find out information.

Trade union staff are aware that/of:	• the central role of language in modern workplaces as part of vocational competence and necessary for participation (strategies may be needed to communicate effectively with migrant workers who are still developing L2 communicative competence).

| Trade union staff are able to: | • communicate effectively with migrant workers who are still developing L2 communicative competence;
• give management relevant information and help to establish routines and a supportive environment for language learning. |

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. Using the lists of competences

The lists of competences offer support for quality assurance programmes for educational providers, including adult and continuing education, L2 language providers, VET providers and employers generally; organisational development programmes for educational providers and employers generally; training and train-the-trainer programmes; policy makers concerned with migrant integration, in particular labour market integration.

5.2. Case study

It is important that teachers and education providers, as well as related agencies in employment, recognise the LfW competences and work to improve their skills, recognise the actors who can support them in training in LfW and build the relevant relationship competences. In order to test this out, LfW carried out a survey with teachers and education providers of German as a second language. The survey was linked to a learning activity within a training scheme for teachers and providers of work-related German as second language. Due to the Covid-19 lockdown the exercise was mainly conducted online and broken down into self-learning phases.

The survey took place in two stages. Stage 1: LfW translated the competences into German. Stage 2: The teachers and education providers were asked to review the lists of competences, focus on the setting relevant to their practice, consider the following questions and answer the one most important for their work. The two questions were:

Question 1: *'What can you do in your function – as teacher or provider – to support a specific actor you cooperate with?'*

Question 2: *'If you want to market your work-related L2 German offer, which competences would you stress as your unique selling points?'*

The response to the survey was that all the participants (most of them teachers or providers in pre-employment work-related L2 courses with limited experience with German provision in companies) chose the first question.

5.3. Results of the case study

The results of the survey demonstrated two key issues. First, the results showed a deeper awareness of the complexity of the linguistic integration of migrants at and through work. Secondly, it showed an awareness that support for language learners' integration is not just a matter of the teacher's or education provider's marketable skills but involves the ability to communicate with and relate to organisations beyond the immediate language teaching environment to ease access to employment for immigrants and minority groups learning the target language of the country they are living in. The case study showed that in the opinion of language teachers and education providers language support goes beyond teaching and is part of a larger process involving actors with whom teachers and sometimes providers are rarely in contact but are now being asked to cooperate with. Examples of these new partners are job centres, trade unions and employers.

The results of the case study reinforce relevant issues in the training scheme, such as the impact of work organisation on learning opportunities and the role of non-formal and informal learning supporters such as coaches and mentors. In the meantime, this type of exercise has become an integral part of the modular training scheme offered by different training providers sponsored by the German federal programme Integration through Qualification (IQ). Further research and case studies are needed on how to make this happen as effectively as possible and to use the LfW competences as a way of quickly recognising possible avenues of cooperation.

Which competences for whom? Supporting the supporters of work-related L2 development by migrants and ethnic minorities

by Matilde Grünhage-Monetti

6. CONCLUSION

The increasing number of migrants and minority communities in European countries and elsewhere need to work to be able to feed their families and thrive in the community. Mastery of the language of the country they are living in is essential to getting work and promotion within the organisations they work for. There is plenty of evidence that in contemporary workplaces langue and communication have become part of vocational competences (Grünhage-Monetti & Braddell, 2019). Involved in the process of mastering a new language to find work are a number of agencies, some educational, such as teachers and training providers, and some professional, such as job centres, trade unions and employers. In between are the voluntary and other agencies working to help unemployed members of society to find work.

The problem is that these agencies belong to different social systems like education, labour market administration, business, charities, etc. and have different aims and approaches and different qualifications, experience and competence. The purpose of our research is to identify the competences of the different agencies and to explore means of cooperation to support the future workers.

As we can see from the above, the Language for Work competences list the skills and competences that have proved useful for different agencies or actors in order to meet the needs of language migrant and ethnic minority students learning languages in order to access employment and make progress in their work for their own benefit and the benefit of employers and the whole society.

What we have learned is that language learning for employment is not just the job of teachers and educational providers but also involves employers and intermediary agencies, such as job centres, trade unions and other actors. In the future, the issue of competences will become a key element in professional development. The feedbacks from teachers and providers in current trainings prove the importance of raising their awareness for the need for new cooperations. The lists of competences may help them to identify ways how to enlarge their networks, support the new partners and how to market their own offer to companies and labour administration in a more effective way.

Acknowledgments

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Original Research

The creative potential of contemporary Russian political discourse: From new words to new paradigms

by Natalia V. Kozlovskaya, Andrey V. Rastyagaev and Julia V. Slozhenikina

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This paper analyses the creative potential of Russian political discourse in 2010-2020. The authors outline the range of lexemes making up Russian political lexicon and draw conclusions on their relevance based on their increased importance for social life, their frequency of use in spoken and written communication and their discursive migration. Creativity is viewed as one of the characteristics of linguistic consciousness. Increased creativity in political discourse may be explained by the constant dynamics of language and the process of active word derivation. The material under analysis is taken from the digital neological database of the Department of Lexicography of the Contemporary Russian Language at the Institute for Linguistic Research of the Russian Academy of Sciences that contains about 110,000 words. The linguistic material was collected from the Integrum electronic mass media archive. The authors singled out the following language processes that enable realising the creative potential of political neologisms: the ludic use of word-building resources; the activation of noun-based word-formation; and determinologisation accompanied by a change in the term's frame structure. Specific ways of fulfilling creative potential include the use of suffixes and word-building (e.g. the creation of hyphenated complexes and multi-root words). In the period under consideration, many of these new words in Russian political discourse have become part of Internet memes.

KEYWORDS: *political discourse, language game, word creation, nonce word, derivation, compounding, neologism, corpus study, Integrum*

1. INTRODUCTION

Political lexicon is a complex of words whose intentional meaning includes the denotative component of 'politics' (Chudinov, 2020). The lexicon that forms the basis of political discourse describes diverse segments of semantic space – denominations of realia (culture-specific words), domestic and global political processes, political activity, as well as names for phenomena related to the governmental and legal framework and to the analysis

of political and other systems. Political lexicon comprises terminology that may become an object of rapid neography under the influence of a number of properly linguistic as well as extralinguistic factors. These include its increased social relevance, its increased frequency in spoken and written usage, and discursive migration. Linguistic consciousness is a connecting link transforming external stimuli into language units (Zhanalina & Ivanova, 2019, p. 443). For examples of such linguistic creativity see Kiose (2020) and Ivanova (2019).

Linguistic consciousness has the creative potential allowing the speaker/writer to perform lexical (from sense to word) and semantic shifts (from word to sense). Almost all new political coinage belongs to the cohort of 'relevant' and 'actualised' words. The relevance of a word is a consequence of the activation of objective realities in social consciousness. Reality, and in its wake, words, become essential for resolving the urgent and pressing problems of our time. The second aspect of studying contemporary political lexicon is connected with the notion of actualisation – the return to active usage of words that had receded in collective linguistic consciousness. This return is typically accompanied by semantic shifts in the words' meanings. Creative linguistic consciousness is of particular relevance for political discourse, as it is characterised by unceasing linguistic dynamism. In the 2010s, neologisms emerging through the Russian language's word-building mechanisms continuously augmented the lexical-semantic field of 'politics'. This is evidence of the ongoing activity of contemporary word-derivational processes. Through a morphemic toolkit of its own, Russian political language is constantly producing new terms, while the pragmatic connotations contained in their meanings reflect the deep-rooted contradictions that exist in the collective consciousness (Lesnichkova, 2020).

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The subject of this research – the creative potential of contemporary Russian political discourse – is connected on a theoretical level with several areas of linguistics. First, these are the general issues of political linguistics reflected in the works of Vorobyeva (2011), Solopova (2013), Tikhonova (2012), Chudinov (2020) and others. Political linguistics is considered an area of applied theory; its problems are connected with issues of efficient political communications. Second, it involves language derivation, as one of the primary ways to achieve communicative goals is through derivation. Contemporary word-building theory is presented in works by Zemskaya (2013), Shatskaya (2014) and others. Third, it involves lexicology and semantics. In contemporary linguistics, the problem of the timely and accurate verbal reflection of the *Zeitgeist* is among those most discussed. A word which becomes particularly important for the collective linguistic consciousness in a given period has come to be known in the literature as 'the key word of the moment' (Shmeleva, 1993). Fourth, the theory of discourse constitutes a major component of this research. This theory has been actively evolving in international linguistics (see Matras, 2000; Stenning & Lambalgen, 2005; McCreary & Dolezal, 1999; Turner, 2002; Helasvuo, 2005; Celce-Murcia, 2006).

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The lexical component of Russian political discourse under analysis is based on the digital neological database of the Department of Lexicography of the Contemporary Russian Language at the Institute for Linguistic Studies of the Russian Academy of Sciences. The digital neological database, which began to be compiled in the early 2000s, comprises published neographical dictionaries of various types, electronic catalogues of explanatory dictionaries and ILS RAS lexical databases, as well as unpublished materials. The latter are classified by their authors based on time and quality: the lexis attributed to the period before the 1990s and omitted by explanatory, orthographical, special and other well-regarded dictionaries; neologisms of 1990-1999; neologisms of 2000-2009; neologisms of 2000-2009; neologisms of 2010-2020; as well as language novelties that were occasionally recorded in Russian-language texts. The

neologisms of the last decade are broken down according to their years of coinage in order to compile glossaries for the renewed *New in Russian Lexicon: Dictionary Materials* series. The lexical base of the resource contains ca. 110,000 words, expressions and meanings that were lexical and semantical novelties of a certain period or that were not previously registered in explanatory Russian language dictionaries.

The linguistic material for the first stage of analysing the creative potential of the lexical component of contemporary Russian political discourse was primarily based on Integrum, the largest electronic archive of the mass media of Russia and the CIS. This e-corpus contains the textual material of over forty thousand publications of central and regional mass media outlets, analytical studies and reviews, and the full texts of the works of classic Russian literature. The Integrum database is updated on a daily basis, supplemented with over three hundred thousand papers, documents, and archival materials. Integrum also provides professional search and analytical tools for monitoring Russian-language mass media as well as for exploring the political and economic life of Russia and the world.

The methodological basis for this research is informed by works on lexicology, semantics, lexicography, social linguistics, political linguistics, linguoculturology and word formation. At the preparatory stage, the language material for the research was collected via the continuous sampling method using primary sources: dictionaries, political discourse in articles, and the language in general use. Language usage was analysed using descriptive, contextual, definitional and linguoculturological methods, as well as the method of component analysis. The descriptive method was used for the synchronic analysis of contemporary word meanings. An integral part of this method is observing the interpretation of lexemes in Russian language dictionaries as well as in specialised dictionaries. Component-based analysis allowed us to single out semantic attributes whose regrouping transforms original semantics into the 'word to term' and 'term to word' models. The contextual method

'The methodological basis for this research is informed by works on lexicology, semantics, lexicography, social linguistics, political linguistics, linguoculturology and word formation'

proceeds from analysing a part through the whole, that is, the units for analysis are language structures broader than the word proper. The lexemes are analysed as part of public political discourse, as it is in this context that the relevant word meaning is actualised. In this study, the context is considered to be any textual environment, while contextual analysis per se acts as an element of distributive methodology. The 'definitive' method involves referring to various types of Russian dictionary. At the stage that identifies the specificity of political discourse the word-building method is used. Linguocultural analysis implies studying political discourse as a cultural phenomenon.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS

Shmeleva (1993) defined 'the key words of the moment' by singling out their main attributes: (1) the sharp increase in their frequency of use; (2) the appearance of the relevant words in newspaper headlines and hashtags; (3) realisation of their grammatical and word-building potential; (4) the expansion of their compatibility; (5) the formation of new synonyms and antonyms connected to them; (6) their onymic use; (7) linguistic reflection on the relevant word (including its definitions); (8) wordplay using the relevant word (Shmeleva, 1993, p. 33-39). The emergence of relevant words as verbal components of Internet memes has recently been added to this list of attributes.

Analysis of the word-formation series formed from new words reflects the creative processes connected with the realisation of their grammatical and word-building potential in the most extensive and accurate way. This is due to the methodology of compilation, one of whose principles is the inclusion of all new words and phrases, including single-use units – occasional words (occa-

sionalisms), potential words and authorial innovations. These units are of no individual lexicological and lexicographical value but as a group reflect the dominant processes of spontaneous word-formation – the mechanisms of wordplay and a considerable expansion of the relevant word's derivative potential coming from them. Vasilyeva (2017) defines a word's derivative potential as *'the word's ability to produce other lexical units defined by its attribution to a certain lexical-semantical group and independent from the restrictions imposed by the language system and its individual semantic and structural singularities'* (Vasilyeva, 2017, p. 28).

A large number of cognate words belonging to one family is a distinct indicator of relevance (Levanova et al., 2020). The relevant word-building family, which includes occasionalisms, often reflects connections that prove to be wider than the real derivative potential of the motivating word, while the specific word-building paradigm is different from the one typical of this part of speech. The expansion of the derivative potential occurs, as a rule, by means of wordplay mechanisms, the conscious and purposeful manipulation of grammatical resources in order to achieve a comic effect.

Before proceeding to the analysis of the lexical material we need to make a necessary qualification. In informal political discourse word meanings typically include negative connotations. In their scholarly description of the elements of the lexical component of political discourse, the authors of this paper are guided by the principle of scientific objectivity as formulated by Kotelova (2015), the founder of Russian theoretical neology and neography. In connection with taking a working sample from a card index she writes that *'the principle requirement applied to it [this work] is objectivity. The creators of a catalogue should accumulate [all] materials, 'be they good or evil'* (Kotelova, 2015, p. 79).

All of the lexical material presented in this paper has been chosen based on linguistic criteria and in no way reflects the authors' personal political opinions or preferences.

The creative potential of neologisms is realised in political discourse in very diverse ways, yet we may single out a few major and most noticeable processes. One is the playful but pragmatically grounded use of word-formation in order to express social assessment. Such a new word that is 'outside the box' very quickly becomes the point of departure for a derivational series, the formation of which differs from the typical paradigm of word formation. Affixes introducing an additional connotation to a word's meaning are also actively used. A major feature of informal political discourse is the formation of occasional hyphenated complexes to emphasise a negative connotation.

For example, we may consider the following laws that govern the realisation of the grammatical and word-building potential of the word *либерал* (liberal). Guided by the systemic approach, The Grammatical Dictionary of the Russian Language (Zaliznyak, 2009) includes 6 words in the family – *либералка* (a liberal woman), *либеральный* (liberal, adj.), *либерализм* (liberalism), *либеральность* (liberality), *либерал* (a liberal), *либеральничать* (to act as a liberal) – while in The New Word-Formation Dictionary of the Russian Language for Everyone Who Wishes to Be Literate (Tikhonov, 2014) this series is two words longer and includes *либерально-буржуазный* (liberal-bourgeois) and *либерально-демократический* (liberal-democratic). In political discourse on the Internet, hereafter cited from the Integrum database (Integrum, 2020), neologisms based on the same root enjoy active use. For example, in the context of such provocative words as 'Anschluss', 'national traitors', 'fifth column', 'the Fuhrer', the words 'democrat' and especially 'liberal' – with the pejorative derivatives such as 'liberasty' (meaning faggoty liberals, a combination of 'liberal' and 'pederast') and 'liberasnia' (collective for 'libtards') – become abusive. Here are a few examples:

'In response to Aleksandr Lukashenko's sixth inauguration, the pro-American Belorussian liberasts called for an act of sustained disobedience'.

'Liberasts are on the outs: how is it possible that Putin has introduced a law allowing him to become a lifelong senator after his presidency ends?!

Liberasts are groaning that Putin will become a lifelong senator, or [say that this is] an absolutely correct decision! Let the liberasts groan – what else is left there for those wretched souls?'.

'Trump's advantage is that he is right-wing and does not like the same morons that we hate – all those stomach-churning leftists, Antifa and similar bastards. Biden is a pussy piece of shit, the ultimate liberast'.

These linguistic innovations – sporadic and regular ones – normally follow the strategy of invectives. The pejorative connotation of the word 'liberast' (jargon, ironic) as a proponent of liberal ideology and liberal values is created by the use of linguistic contamination: liberal + pederast. The majority of cases use pejorative suffixes that introduce a constant emotional connotation of contempt and crimination: *либерастный* (liberast, adj.), *либероид* (liberoid, noun), *либероидный* (liberoid, adj.), *либерасня* (libtards), *либерастня* (libertards), *либералочка* (liberalette), *либераха, либеруха*. The words express derisive judgment, as do the words *либералопат* (liberalopath), referring to the speech by representatives of the liberal opposition about their opponents, and *либералопатия* (liberalopathy). A connotation of disapproval is also emphasised through the use of compound words, such as *либералопредатель* (liberal-traitor), *жидолиберал* (Kike-liberal), or *бандеролиберал* (Bandero-liberal), the latter combining 'liberal' with a reference to Stepan Bandera, leader of Ukrainian WWII nationalists responsible for atrocities and the murder of Poles, Jews and Romani; his name is often used to condemn contemporary ultranationalists.

Another type of innovation in political discourse is the use of occasional hyphenated complexes consisting of parts that are connected to each other through the semantic relations of equipositioning and interconvertibility. Hyphenated complexes of political speech vividly display the ability to name, set apart, combine, as well as to compare, contrast and juxtapose objects and phenomena. Two- and three-member structures are used to denote single, complex and indivisible notions, and become a tool to combine words denoting different aspects of some idea – typically, one

denounced and despised by the speaker, as in *бандеро-либеральный* (Bandero-liberal), *неолиберально-монетаристский* (neoliberal-monetarist), *неолибералы-гайдарочубайсоиды* (neoliberals-GaidaroChubais-oids), *ослино-либеральный* (donkey-liberal), *хомячково-либералистический* (hamster-liberalist), etc. The second component of the hyphenated complex is used to emphasise its negative connotation and expand the associative potential of the word. Of no small importance is also the fact that such complexes as, for example, *бандеро-либеральный* (Bandero-liberal) and *неолиберально-монетаристский* (neoliberal-monetarist), reflect a distorted worldview in which miscellaneous incompatible phenomena (liberal views, macroeconomic theory, nationalism) are united in one term.

One of the manifestations of creative linguistic force is the use of relevant words as verbal components of political Internet memes that express satirical commentary. In this way, the semantic opposition of the ideologemes *либерал – либераст* (liberal – liberast) as part of the meme (as accompanied by a picture, sketch or a photo) becomes a tool for expressing political preferences and antipathies, sympathies and animosities. For example, one meme depicts how a naive worldview functions. It consists of a table with two opposing columns: (1) *либерал* (a liberal) loves his/her people, observes their traditions and respects their culture; while *либераст* (a liberast) despises the people, calls them gullible morons, hates their culture, and deems their traditions barbarous; and (2) *либерал* dreams of changing his/her country for the better; while *либераст* dreams of fleeing the country. An Internet meme performs major pragmatic functions – the ability to evoke various emotions, entertain and arouse interest. In political discourse, the primary function of memes is the cognitive one, as it helps form personal and public opinion, impose certain ideas and viewpoints with regard to relevant problems, and shape the collective political and ideological worldview of recipients (see Boltenkova & Bochkova, 2009).

The reflection of both patriotic and pro-Western paths of Russian development is connected with the word *скрепа* (a spiritual staple, bond or value)

'Hyphenated complexes of political speech vividly display the ability to name, set apart, combine, as well as to compare, contrast and juxtapose objects and phenomena'

that has taken off in political discourse, beginning in 2013, when the Russian language began to see a number of new words derived from it. *Духовные скрепы* (spiritual bonds) entered discourse on December 12, 2012 in a Presidential Address to the Federal Assembly. It suggested the concept of national spiritual unification against the backdrop of cooling relations with the West. The word and its derivatives began to be used by Putin's political opponents with ironic, negative connotations:

'Pavel, the trick is that you were rescued from real prison time not by Boyakov or Prilepin but rather by those who don't accept their views, those for whom the MKhAT in its present-day state is about staple-oriented pseudo-patriotism and a well-funded idea of 'the Russian world'.

'Meanwhile, since the First Channel is awfully spiritual and staple-oriented (as well as synodic and sovereign), i.e. not immune to the traditional values of the Russian world, I recommend recalling the words uttered by the guy from Galilee'.

A large number of derived words reflect the surge and diversity of derivative activity of the ironically reinterpreted root *скреп-*: *скрепный* and less often *скреповый* – cementing and bonding together spiritually and through common values; *скрепно, скрепоносный* – described as a spiritual staple of society; *скрепостроительство* – staple-building; *скрепоразрывной* – staple-rupturing; as well as *правоскрепный* (Orthodox staple), *скрепаться* (to be cemented like a staple), *скрепануться* (to become staple-obsessed), *скрепанутый* (staple-obsessed), *скрепно-духовно* (in a staple-spiritual way), *антискрепный* (anti-staple), *антискрепно* (in an antistaple manner), *высокоскрепный* (highly staple-oriented), *по-скрепному* (in a staple-oriented manner), *скрепозабиватель* (a person who hammers in a staple), *скрепоносный* (staple-carry-

ing), *скрепоохранитель* (a staple guard), and *скрепость* (staple strength) (the order of this list reflects the time of these words' appearance in Russian political discourse between 2013 and 2020).

As in previous examples, the *скреп-* paradigm includes a large number of occasional hyphenated complexes. These complexes make use of words pertaining to traditional values: people, patriotism and statehood. When included in a hyphenated complex, such words produce negative pragmatic connotations and serve as a tool to create or emphasise irony, as in *духовно-скрепно-казацкий* (spiritual-staple-Cossack), *исконно-скреповый* (archetypal-staple), *скрепно-воодушевляющий* (staple-inspiring), *скрепно-державный* (staple-sovereign), *скрепно-мракобесный* (staple-obscurantist), *народно-скрепный* (folk-staple), *скрепно-тоталитарный* (staple-totalitarian), *русско-скрепный* (Russian-staple), *военно-патриотически-скрепный* (military-patriotic-staple), *патриотично-скрепный* (patriotic-staple), *духовно-скрепный* (spiritually-staple), *скрепно-конституционный* (staple-constitutional), *скрепно-инновационный* (staple-innovative), *скрепно-духовно-чекистский* (staple-spiritual-Chekist).

Rich textual material provides evidence of the active functioning of expressive lexis containing the root *скреп-* in mass media and of the diversity of their paradigmatic and syntagmatic links, as in *поступать скрепно* (to act in a staple-oriented way), *скрепно донести* (to convey in a staple-oriented way), *правословно-скрепный* (Orthodox-staple), *самый скрепный суд в мире* (the most staple-oriented court in the world), etc.

The creative element in political and parapolitical language also manifests itself in the intensification of word building based on proper names. The analysis of a large number of neolexemes confirms the existence and development of a trend that emerged in political discourse back in the 1990s: the formation of new words from proper names, both Russian and foreign. Word formation based on foreign proper names often reflects a carnival, ludic, humorous element. As a rule, such nomination expresses a social assessment of the signified, as in *кадыринг* (Kadyring), *медведизация* (Medvedisation), *сердюковщина* (Serdyukovness),

сечинизация (Sechinisation), трампнаш (TrumpIs-Ours), трампнашевский (TrumpIsOurs, adj.), трампнашист (TrumIsOursist), трампокалипсис (Trumpocalypse), чубайсовщина (Chubaysness).

The neolexeme 'kadyring', derived from the surname of the Chechen Republic's leader Ramzan Kadyrov, started appearing in the Russian language in 2016 simultaneously with two meanings. In extralinguistic terms, this was caused by the fact that on January 12, 2016 Kadyrov called members of the Russian opposition public enemies and traitors. This resulted in Internet flash mobs by his supporters and opponents and a public rally that took place in Grozny on January 22, 2016. In the 2016 dictionary of new words, the noun is defined as (1) a rally of Ramzan Kadyrov's supporters; (2) media activity as a response to Ramzan Kadyrov's statements (Kozlovskaya et al., 2018, p. 47).

'A rally held to protect Ramzan Kadyrov from the fifth column took place in the Chechen capital on January, 22. Open Russia collected the most interesting 'kadyring'-related footage and comments' (Kozlovskaya et al., 2018, p. 47).

'Fierce kadyring started when a Krasnoyarsk deputy raised the question of allocating financial support for Chechnya and for the Academician personally at the expense of Sibirian taxpayers' (Kozlovskaya et al., 2018, p. 47).

Another example of word building based on proper names occurred after the political crisis in Ukraine when Maidan (the name of a square in the centre of Kiev) became a generic label and came to denote a mass civilian protest rally against the authorities. Starting in 2014, Russian political discourse has seen the active use of derivatives from this word – both semantic and word-formative ones. Some examples for церковный майдан (church maidan), майданизироваться (to maidanise), майдануться (to go maidan in the head, meaning to go crazy) and майдауны (maidanites) are listed below.

'Kurayev only listens to oppositional leaders from Bolotnaya Square and is occupied with a church type of 'maidan': by the way, among the church figures he accuses is the bishop of Odessa who calls for [Ukraine's] integration with Russia'.

'It might be impossible to give a rational answer to this question, but I did think of one possibility: the maidanised Ukraine is clearly infringing on the independence and self-contained nature of the Russian Net'.

'The current situation in Ukraine has been accurately described by deputy Yu.P. Solomatin (the Communist faction): 'There is no longer a single political 'Maidan' camp, it is torn apart by the life and death struggle for leadership in the 2006 elections; 'Maidan' has gone maidan in the head!'.

'All of the communication among the parties to the main conflict in Eastern Europe and one of the main ones in the world is built upon exchanging insults – and the worse the insults are, the better they work: Lugandons, Russists, Russ-ka, Ukrops, Maidanites, Downbass' (Baunov, 2014).

This last example is vivid evidence of the creative strategy of socially discrediting the object of nomination: it is a contamination of the generic name 'Maidan' (here, those who protest against the authorities) and the noun даун in the meaning of 'a person of very low intellect'.

In 2015, this derivative series increased by the addition of the words замайданщина (Maidanites, a collective noun referring to supporters of the Ukrainian Maidan) and электромайдан (Electro-Maidan, referring to protests in Armenia in June-September 2015 provoked by the raised cost of electricity.

'Right now, the representatives of the university named after 'the great Ukrainian poet' [Shevchenko] that a mere year ago was a hotbed of the Bandera movement and Maidanites, have decided to hold a rally in Lugansk in which students will be performing the 'folk minstrel's' verses in as many as nine languages. Except Russian'.

'The US Embassy in Yerevan has already spoken in support of 'ElectroMaidan', as it was dubbed by the Western press, and rushed to voice their concern with reports of 'the unlawful use of force by the police when dispersing the protesters on the morning of June, 23'.

'Maidan' is one of the most significant ideologemes of contemporary political discourse. Following Radbil (1998), this paper uses the term

'ideologeme' in a narrow sense as *'any verbal denomination of spiritual values that are significant for a person in which the direct, objective meaning of the word is blurred, while bringing to the foreground purely evaluative, emotionally expressive connotations that are not based on the word's immediate content'* (Radbil, 1998, p. 22). The semantic shifts in the meaning of the lexeme 'maidan' are confirmed by their functioning when the meaning of the word is expanded to refer to any protest and the wordplay functions on the word-formative level. Two proper names – *Михо́* (Mikho), a masculine proper name, the Georgian version of the name Mikhail, and *майдан* (Maidan) – are combined into a new word, *михомайдан* (Mikhomaidan), meaning acts of protest against the official Ukrainian authorities and politicians engineered by the proponents of Mikhail Saakashvili. Cf. also the derivatives, such as *михомайданец* (Mikhomandanite), *михомайданщик* (Mikhomandainist, a participant of Mikhomaidan) (Kozhevnikov & Ridetskaya, 2019, p. 85). Internet memes having fun with the ideologeme 'maidan' often target its participants as stupid, ridiculous and foolish: *'Майдан – ловушка для дураков'* ('Maidan – a trap for fools'); *'Майдан: быдломассе раздают апельсины'* ('Maidan: the dumb masses are given oranges'); *'Караоке на Майдане: новый сезон'* ('Karaoke in the Maidan: a new season') (Kozlovskaya et al., 2018, p. 67).

The creative potential of collective linguistic identity is realised in the formation and development of a new model of word formation by way of analogy with *крымнаш* (CrimeaIsOurs). In 2014, the slogan *Крым наш!* (Crimea Is Ours!) was transformed from a free-standing sentence into a nominative unit. 'This occasionalism came to be spelled as one word and viewed as a name for a standard situation – 'CrimeaIsOurs' (Vepreva, 2015, p. 34). The morphological and derivative dynamics of this occasionalism may be illustrated with multiple examples, such as *крымнаш* (CrimeaIsOurs), *крымнашевский*, *крымнашенский* (adjectival forms), *крымнашевцы* (CrimeaIsOurs-ists), *крымнашествие* (the action of CrimeaIsOurs), *крымнашизация*

(CrimeIsOurs-isation), *крымненаш* (CrimeaIsNotOurs), etc. Here are some further examples illustrating this phenomenon.

'No sooner had the Finance Minister's remark appeared in the newsfeeds than it was as if social media exploded: this is what turns out to be the true cost of CrimeaIsOurs – pensioners have their pension benefits taken away!'.

'Does this mean that the cost of CrimeaIsOurs should be borne by teachers and doctors?'.

'After CrimeaIsOurs, when many friends have turned their backs on Russia, Pyongyang supported Moscow and Moscow supported Pyongyang'.

'Playing around with the infectious 'CrimeaIsOurs' meme, we should not forget the true slogan of last spring: 'Russians do not abandon their own'.

'If … other democrats of the 'CrimeaIsOurs' type also want to come to Crimea to see the sights or even to spend their senior years in a decent way in a nice climate – we would welcome them just as we would welcome all other foreigners who would like to live in our country, observing its laws and refraining from meddling in its affairs'.

'We should give credit to our colleagues who have summarised the materials of a number of sociological studies and have painted a picture with what we may call scholarly conscientiousness, without hushing up the arguments both pro and con with regard to the two population groups singled out by our correspondents – the 'CrimeaIsOurs-ists' and 'CrimeaIsNotOurs-ists'.

'Russia as represented by its sports authorities promised a lot back in August yet a month later has happily forgotten about its assurances concerning soccer in light of the grandeur of the CrimeaIsOurs endeavours'.

'If the majority is united by the pathos of 'CrimeaIsOurs-ism' (which, as we all know, is limited in time, just like the effect of champagne), this does not mean that it is due to regressive traditionalism'.

'In the opinion of the 'CrimeaIsOurs-ists', the main problem is that an intolerance for those who are not willing to share the opinion of the majority is being imposed within the country'.

The wordplay in these examples reflects the contentious perception of the Crimea situation, which is also evidenced in the shift in denominating politically similar phenomena: the *наш* (ours) component establishes the meaning of entering the zone of Russia's political influence. Cf. *абхазиянаш* (AbkhaziaIsOurs), *приднестровьенаш* (TransdniestriaIsOurs), *сириянаш* (SyriaIsOurs), *чечнянаш* (ChechnyaIsOurs), *южноосетиянаш* (SouthOssetiaIsOurs).

As noted, political discourse as reflected in the annual lexical collections – both in the expert sample and in the database – manifests a relatively small number of borrowed words. A distinct feature of the contemporary sociocultural situation is the penetration into Russian of new borrowed words and the formation of entire lexical paradigms (which in most cases reflects global trends). Hence, we have *брекзит* (Brexit), *грекзит* (Grexit), *икзит* (exit), *мегзит* (Mexit), *фрекзит* (Frexit), etc., as well as *аутеры* (outers) and *ливеры* (leavers). What is peculiar about how these words function is their non-participation in cultural appropriation, described as 'the acclimation of borrowed words to the archetypically Russian models of language conceptualisation of the world, value-based paradigms, and communicative-pragmatic orientation' (Radbil & Ratsiburskaya, 2017, p. 34). A prohibition of some sort is imposed by nuclear semes of meaning determined by extralinguistic factors. Cf. *аутеры* (outers) and *ливеры* (leavers) in the examples below.

'This refers to UK citizens who support the country's exit from the European Union; the same as leavers. A third of the population are 'outers' (derived from the English word 'out'), staunch supporters of the country's exit from the EU' (Kozlovskaya et al., 2018, p. 45).

'And then the pendulum swung to the other side: now the leadership is held by the outers and leavers, as they now call the proponents of exiting the EU, with an advantage of three, six and more percent' (Kozlovskaya et al., 2018, p. 45).

A distinctive feature of the contemporary Russian linguistic situation is the discursive migration of terms. Linguists point out that the transition of

'One of the most vital areas in contemporary terminology studies is the investigation of dynamic processes in special lexis'

terms from one type of discourse into another (including migration from the language of science into political discourse) occurs through migration. The study of the migration of terms should allow scientists to identify and describe the mechanisms of transition (consubstantiality, transferminologisation, and determinologisation). One of the most vital areas in contemporary terminology studies is the investigation of dynamic processes in special lexis. The importance of pursuing this research is due to a gap in modern-day terminological studies. Against the backdrop of increased attention to terms, one cannot help but notice the near-complete lack of analytic investigation into the problem of terms which function simultaneously in several special discourses and beyond the bounds of scientific metalanguage.

The migration of special lexis into public political discourse is accompanied by the increased activity of the word. For instance, such a special lexeme is the nomen *мельдоний* (meldonium). In the Integrum periodical database the word was first registered in 2007 as a terminological denomination used exclusively in medical discourse. Since 2016, the word has been used in mass media to denote doping, or performance-enhancing drugs, which caused a sharp growth in its frequency: 2007 (4), 2008 (21), 2009 (25), 2010 (61), 2011 (62), 2012 (30), 2013 (33), 2014 (32), 2015 (69), 2016 (54,823) (the figures are based on Integrum data).

The medical term's penetration into political discourse was accompanied by a change in the frame structure: the deactualisation of the 'medication' rubric, which was replaced with 'doping drug'. The alteration of the substantive term structure in political discourse does not affect the conceptual core that includes basic rubrics preserved in all terminological systems without exception.

Here thus are fragments of dictionary entries for the word *мельдоний* (meldonium) and fixed expressions derived from it: *'a cardiac pharmaceutical recognised as a doping drug, first used in 2007; 'activation and determinologisation are connected to the meldonium doping scandal of 2016'* (Kozlovskaya et al., 2018, p. 65).

The word combinations *мельдониевое дело* (the meldonium case) and *мельдониевый скандал* (the meldonium scandal) denote 'referring to the scandal connected with Russian athletes using meldonium as a doping agent'. The occurrence of these lexical novelties may be explained extralinguistically. In the summer of 2016, more than 140 athletes on the Russian National Team were banned from taking part in the Olympic Games in Brazil due to the detection of meldonium (Mildronate) in their doping tests, which gave rise to lengthy court proceedings, a number of international scandals and a subsequent ban on the Russian National Team forbidding them to compete in the Olympic Games. The substance was declared 'banned for athletes' on January 1, 2016 (Kozlovskaya et al., 2018, p. 68).

Another example is the activation, discursive migration and the resulting determinologisation of the nomen *новичок* (novichok). Two points of view on this process may be singled out in contemporary terminology studies. The first suggests two stages: the term's penetration into common parlance as a word preserving its terminological meaning; and the metaphorical transfer of meaning into common usage accompanied by the creation of an everyday, vernacular word based on it (Superanskaya et al., 2009, p. 134). The second approach, shared by the authors of this paper, holds that any departure of a term beyond the limits of a special discourse may be deemed determinologisation (Kulikova & Salmina, 2019, p. 13). Interestingly, the lexeme *новичок* (novichok) as a nomen first passed through the stage of terminologisation and then, after a long time, through the stage of determinologisation.

The word *новичок* (novichok) has two meanings: (1) a person who is only starting to do something, is getting the hang of something; (2) a person who has appeared somewhere for the first time (Kuznetsov, 2001). Its ironic potential was realised by adding the semantic component 'new' to the name of a new, previously unproduced type of chemical weapon. Starting from the 1970s-1980s, the word *новичок* (novichok), that diachronically may be traced to a vernacular word, became fixed in the language for special purposes as a chemical term – the organophosphorus nitrogenous nerve agent. Its origin and usage are based on the phenomenon of consubstantiality, which is understood as both tracing the term's origin to a general-use word, and its systemic coexistence in different discursive zones of contemporary language.

The word *новичок* (novichok) gained broad publicity after August 20, 2020 in connection with the poisoning of Alexei Navalny. The first stage of the word's functioning beyond specialised discourse was connected with its surge in frequency: according to Integrum data, between January 1, 2020 and August 15, 2020 the word *новичок* (in various meanings) was used in mass media 905 times, while from August 15, 2020 (the beginning of the political scandal) until Autumn of 2020 (as of this writing), the relative frequency rate index rose to 74,000 occurrences. The word quickly became part of social and public (media and analytical) discourse. The phenomenon of special lexis entering general parlance by being used in the mass media is quite common. Terminology and special vocabulary used in mass media in no way contradicts publicistic style. On the contrary, it is an integral part of it. The term or nomen functioning in publicistic texts typically begins with the stage of quotation, i.e. the use of the term with a full-fledged scientific definition.

'Poisoning with the A-232 substance ('Novichok-5'), which is not a traditional organophosphorus nerve agent but a synthesised pesticide with analogous structure…'.

The term's incorporation into non-specialised texts was then accompanied by brief or detailed explanations, i.e. special discursive forms of realisation of the term's heuristic function: nominative-definitive, heuristic (the formation of a special

concept), or classificatory (systematising). Hyper-hyponymic connections of the word in the text reflect the place of the notion denoted by the nomen in scientific taxonomy as poison, a family of poisons, a substance, agent, a type of organophosphorus substance, etc.

'The German government announced that the patient was exposed to the Novichok-type poison'.

'The patient was poisoned with Novichok… Later it turned out that it was not Novichok but some substance not on the list of forbidden substances, the OPCW, but which may be attributable to the Novichok group'.

After a short time, the nomen came to be used in texts without employing the discursive practice of introducing a potential agnonym; the specific name started to be used without any generic identifier, in rare cases even without quotation marks, which may signify the beginning of its transition to the cohort of common nouns (genericised names).

'If the Guardian's sources are right, the British, German and French intelligence services really think that Navalny was supposed to be 'slightly intimidated' or 'a little poisoned' with the help of Novichok'.

'Nick Bailey, the sergeant of the British police who was infected with Novichok in Salisbury after being the first one to examine the house of Sergey and Yulia Skripal, who were poisoned with the same substance, was released from service, as he 'could no longer do the job'.

'With regard to information on the development of Novichok, the list mentions the State Research Institute of Organic Chemistry and Technology'.

'I suggest that after a short break (we do need to give our viewers a chance to catch their breath, don't we?) we will make a statement that Navalny was poisoned with the leftovers of Novichok preserved from the poisoning attack on Skripal in Great Britain'.

'The Germans claim they found traces of Novichok in Navalny's body. German experts have stated that they have found evidence of a Novichok-class substance in Alexei Navalny's body. Meanwhile, the Russian medical experts had not discovered any poisons in his system'.

This highly relevant word also featured in many headlines. Holding a semiotically strong position, headlines concentrate textual information and activate the process of perception.

'Novichok and everything, everything; How Novichok 'leaked' out of secret laboratories and in whose hands it could have ended up; Who brought the secrets of Novichok to the West'.

The migration of the term has led to an increase in the frequency of other terms contained in the 'chemical weapons' thematic field, such as *фосфорорганические вещества* (organophosphorate chemicals/organic phosphorus agents), *ингибиторы холинэстеразы* (cholinesterase inhibitors), *боевые отравляющие вещества* (poison gas weapons), *токсикология* (toxicology), *ОЗХО* (OPCW), *Конвенция о запрещении химоружия* (Chemical Weapons Convention), *масс-спектрометрия* (mass spectrometry), *хроматография* (chromatography).

The actualisation of the term also led to the emergence of a plethora of memes reflecting opposed evaluations of the incident. Memes about Novichok to a larger extent than others reflect the process of de-tabooing in the language, which occurs via the intensive use of obscene vocabulary and taboo topics, a political stand-off being one of them. For instance, there is a photograph of a Western European head of state who is addressing an invisible interlocutor with the piteous request: *'Please give me some Novichok'.*

As language conventions in non-institutional political discourse may be broken, memes become a form or a means of wordplay and creativity. The aesthetic is replaced by the pragmatic as the leading function, so that metaphors, comparisons and other tropes are typically used to surprise, arrest attention, and to stick in one's memory. For example, there is a meme depicting Queen Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom asking, *'When will there be a new episode of Novichok?'.* A similar effect is manifested in the meme containing an image of Navalny eating ramen noodles and asking, *'Hey, guys, how is Novichok supposed to work? I don't quite know how to fake it'.* In addition, the new kinds of wordplay are connected with the process

of increasing the semioticity of political language that is expressed using a deliberate concurrence of several semiotic codes, often involving a picture, a text, a precedent text or any other precedent phenomenon.

This paper, reflecting early research, only briefly touches upon another important process that is reflected in active neography, the phenomenon of activisation determined by extralinguistic factors.

For instance, 2017 saw a rapid activisation of the word *дипобъект* (diplomatic facility), *'a consulate, trade mission or another diplomatic institution located on the territory of one country while belonging to a different one'* (Kozhevnikov & Ridetskaya, 2019, p. 45). This activisation was provoked by mass media spreading information about the closure of a number of Russia's diplomatic facilities on the territory of the US and the closure of American ones in Moscow.

5. CONCLUSION

The semantic and derivational processes connected with new relevant political lexis reflect the productive nature of contemporary non-institutional political discourse. The first stage, which considers how new words, including occasional ones, function in political language, demonstrates the frequent use of wordplay mechanisms on the semantic and word-formation levels. The process of forming new words in political discourse is broader and more extensive than the process of borrowing. Contexts testify to the morphological, derivational and semantic dynamics of newly coined words, while wordplay registers controversial perceptions of the political situation by contemporary society. This study has characterised the key mechanisms of extralinguistic determination of the lexical component of political discourse and identified the principal processes concerning highly active political vocabulary.

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Review

Peacebuilding in language education: Innovations in theory and practice (a review)

Original work by Rebecca Oxford et al. (Eds.) published by Multilingual Matters 2020

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'*We live in a world today where peace is unprofitable*'. So begins Gregory Hadley's foreword to *Peacebuilding in Language Education*. Nevertheless, he goes on to say language teachers are in a special position to encourage the building of peace. Our job, he says, is not just to teach how the language works and help learners become proficient in its use but to teach in a way that fosters peacebuilding. '*Few educators*', says Hadley, '*have access as we do to students who come from a variety of countries and cultures. By teaching languages in ways that foster peace, we have the potential to make helpful contributions that eventually will be felt around the world*'.

That is what *Peacebuilding in Language Education* sets out to do. Organised in five sections, it contains sixteen chapters focusing on teacher personal development, the role of peacebuilding in universities and classrooms and raising critical awareness, peace language and linguistics, and classroom activities for building peace awareness and commitment to interpersonal, intergroup, intercultural, international and ecological peace.

As such, the book is valuable not just to language teachers but to teacher trainers and academic staff in language schools, cultural institutes and universities around the world. It is a detailed well-referenced read and teachers and researchers will find it a valuable resource.

What emerges immediately is that peacebuilding is not just about political action but developing an attitude of mind in the classroom which allows participants, teachers and students to allow the building of good relations through respecting differences in social and personal experience, nationality, gender, politics and faith. Therefore, although it encompasses intergovernmental and NGO initiatives in peacebuilding as examples, it is much more about interpersonal psychology and how teachers can instil mutual respect in the groups they are teaching and raise their own and their students' inner harmony through teaching the target language.

Section 1, *Language Education Responds to the Call for Peace*, explains why teachers of languages are well placed to be peace awareness builders in

'What emerges immediately is that peacebuilding is not just about political action but developing an attitude of mind in the classroom which allows participants, teachers and students to allow the building of good relations through respecting differences in social and personal experience, nationality, gender, politics and faith'

the classroom by focusing on the four competences of ethnocultural empathy, intercultural understanding, cognitive flexibility, and emotional regulation, and showing how these can be included in teacher training courses. It also focuses on the fact that the communicating of peace is not just a matter of words but a matter of body language and voice tone, the aim being to achieve a harmony which allows peace to flourish.

Section 2, *Applying Peacebuilding for Inner, Interpersonal and Intergroup Peace*, applies the notion of peace-building to personal attitude and behaviour both in the classroom and in teacher training – how to help teacher trainers and trainees regulate their own psychology to stay calm and peaceful under the occasional stress of working with the target language in the classroom or training room. This psychological approach is supported by practical activities trainers and teachers can use in person-to-person relationships as in teacher to student, but also between colleagues and between groups. One key area is discussed by Carmen Amerstorfer who explores a holistic teaching approach called COOL (Cooperative Open Learning) and its use in an Austrian secondary school. One key element in peacebuilding is accepting and celebrating the fact that there are differences in background, experience, personality and attitude in both teachers and students and in between classroom groups. Josephine Prado and her co-authors examine how this can contribute to peacebuilding. Their chapter, *Seeking Connection through Difference*, examines how groups can

come to recognise differences as positive, not negative, a very important aspect as a common recognition and valuing of difference can actually lead to greater unity.

Section 3, *Applying Peacebuilding for Intercultural and International Peace*, is one of the most valuable sections in addition to the detailed lesson plans presented in Section 5. Section 3 explores the role and potential of peacebuilding language in institutional settings including minority communities, government institutions and universities.

In Chapter 8, *Can Foreign Languages be Taught for Peace at US Government Institutes*, James Bernhardt and his co-authors examine the work of the United States Foreign Service Institute (FSI) in training international students and professionals in foreign languages. In a fascinating example they describe how US and Russian cosmonauts working together on the Apollo-Soyuz Test Project in 1975, the first joint Soviet-US space flight, cosmonauts were taught English and Russian by US and Russian educators. This process has continued and is a significant contribution towards détente and effective cooperation. Summarising one of the five core principles in FSI teaching Bernhardt et al. write: *'The FSI does not teach French (or any of the other 60+ languages in our course catalogue. Rather it teaches foreign affairs professionals how to use language, such as (French) in their jobs and in their lives'*.

The notion of using language to focus on positive results is expanded by Michael Wei and Yalun Zhou in their chapter on *International Faculty and International Students in Universities: Their Roles in Fostering peace across Languages and Cultures*. Here the emphasis is on using language training to promote intercultural understanding through the encouragement of open dialogue and the analysis of critical incidents. The opportunity for open dialogue is taken up by Laura Mahaligappa and her co-authors in their chapter on working with migrant minorities (Chapter 10). Stressing the importance of Critical Language Awareness (CLA) and Critical Media Literacy (CML) they show how important it is to teach how language is used to express and convey bias. As well as analysing text for

Peacebuilding in language education: Innovations in theory and practice (a review)

Original work by Rebecca Oxford et al. (Eds.), reviewed by Barry Tomalin

bias teachers can also encourage 'counter-storytelling' narrative in the classroom, an opportunity for students from minority communities to reflect on and tell their stories of their own lives and their own experiences.

Section 4, *Applying Peacebuilding through Positive Psychology, Peace Linguistics and Peace Language,* addresses the language of peace and hate and how to move from one to the other. A useful activity is to take what the authors call the Negative 3-H words (hate, hurt and harm), show how they operate as noun, verb and adjective (hateful, hurtful and harmful) and how they can be substituted by the Positive 3-H words (hope, help and harmony). In doing so the authors explain how to move from hate speech to empathy.

Section 5, the final section, focuses on peace building classroom activities, oriented towards all levels of education. Fifty-five activities are featured, some with page references to earlier chapters. Each activity describes its purpose, the language level and student age group it is most appropriate for, the peace dimension it seeks to invoke, language focus, interaction type, materials and time needed, followed by a detailed lesson plan.

The last three activities focus on activities to enhance ecological peace and, as an example, activity 54 is called 'Protect our oceans'. The activity is aimed at higher intermediate teenage and adult students and deals with plastic pollution and en-

vironmental protection. The materials are a short video about the Great Pacific Garbage Patch (available on a video sharing site). The teacher plays the video and gets the students to discuss what causes the pollution and in groups to suggest five concrete actions to reduce pollution. The teacher can help with language and pre-teach vocabulary needed. Each group looks at online news and articles and agrees on three actions to present to the class. Then the class comes together and each group share their key actions. Finally, the class discuss how protecting the environment might facilitate peace. The timing is estimated at 25-30 minutes. I personally would estimate up to an hour and the activity might well extend over more than one class period but the basic lesson plan is systematically and well presented.

The chapter on classroom activities begins with a quote from Albert Einstein: *'Peace cannot be kept by force; it can only be achieved by understanding'*. After Covid-19 retreats and things begin to return to normal, maybe it is something we can all use if we aren't already.

As can be seen, the activities are adaptable both to in-class and online teaching and the lesson plans alone are worth the price of the book. Overall, this is a very rich book addressing personal attitudes, theory and practice in a more open approach to language teaching and learning and a valuable addition to university, teacher training and teacher's libraries.

News & Events

ICC News

by Barry Tomalin
ICC Board Member

ICC Annual Conference

The big news for ICC-Languages was the success of our first online annual conference on October 17th. Sadly, it was impossible to hold the face-to-face conference in Belgrade, as originally planned, but the one-day conference on Zoom had presentations from Susanna Slivensky of ECML (The European Centre for Modern Languages) who explained how ECML was planning for the future following a 2020 of lockdown, contact tracing and self-isolation. Marijana Prodanovic from Belgrade discussed humanistic approaches to the modern era language testing in her talk entitled Testing the Untestable. Barry Tomalin presented his views on innovation in business training, and Emma Abbate from Naples explained how to implement CLIL by using the European platforms Europeana (https://europeana.eu) and GoLab (https://golabz.eu). The final presentation of the conference featured Rob Williams of the University of Westminster in London on how students and teachers can work together in co-creating assessments. The conference concluded with a virtual cocktail and as they say in the UK, 'A good time was had by all'.

Online Webinars

The other new development is the series of online monthly webinars featuring experts in different areas of language and cultural training.

In August Barry Tomalin of Glasgow Caledonian University London explored how the world of business English teaching was changing to respond more closely to corporate needs. In September,

Rob Williams of the University of Westminster discussed new ideas in the teaching discourse management in the language classroom – artificial models vs real language. In October, Elizabeth Mickiewicz of the University of Coventry explained the role of COIL (Collaborative Online International Learning) in language teaching. In December, Geoff Tranter addressed the topic of humour in language learning and teaching. We look forward to more ICC-Languages webinars early next year.

In the meantime, we wish all our colleagues and friends a happy Christmas and hopefully a quarantine freer and more open new year.

EUROLTA News

by Myriam Fischer Callus
EUROLTA Coordinator

Lockdown Solutions at EUROLTA

EUROLTA, the ICC-Languages language teacher training programme is a leading teacher training programme aimed at practising teachers wishing to achieve a recognised qualification and improve their skills. EUROLTA centres have performed well in the lockdown period, delivering their courses online. During the lockdown period EUROLTA has updated its framework and modified it for the teaching of English and German. The framework is accessible at http://icc-languages.eu/eurolta/resources/framework.

ICC-Languages has written an online version of the EUROLTA course which will be delivered through the world-famous online platform MOODLE. This will allow teachers around the world to participate in the course from their home locations.

The course 'EUROLTA Online' will cover all the same input and development topics as the face-to-face EUROLTA, and teachers will be able to arrange teaching practice in their local locations, to be shared with their tutors for support and assessment.

The EUROLTA centres and EUROLTA training courses all carry the ICC-Languages Certificate of Quality Assurance.

EUROLTA is always happy to hear from teachers wanting to see what EUROLTA can offer them and schools interested in joining the EUROLTA certified schools network as a training centre. Learn more by visiting http://icc-languages.eu or contact the EUROLTA co-ordinator, Myriam Fischer Callus at mailto:callus@t-online.de.

RUDN University News

by Elena N. Malyuga
Editor-in-Chief TLC

Training, Language and Culture has been Accepted for Inclusion in Scopus

You know how when something profoundly wonderful happens during your day and you cannot wait to share the story with a significant other, family or friends? You rush home or dial as fast as you can and it's the first thing that's blurted out of your mouth after pleasantries. This is our story.

As some of you may know, TLC dates back to 2017 when on February, 17 the first issue that we poured our souls into saw the light of day. It was all the more meaningful to us since the inaugural release got the blessing of David Crystal himself who was supporting enough to write both an intro and an article for it. In his 'Reflections on TLC' Professor Crystal wrote:

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

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

These lines became our mantra, and three years and a lot of hard work later we are proud to announce that TLC has been accepted for inclusion in Scopus! It is a fundamental milestone and an honour to be part of this unique database that supports and connects people across the entire academic community. And, of course, we wouldn't be here if it wasn't for the support of our publisher, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia, and all of you, our outstanding contributors and devoted readers. We promise to keep up the good work.

Russian and International Experience of Exporting Education was Discussed at RUDN University

More than 600 people took part in the online conference *Export of Education as the Basis for Economic Development of the Russian Federation: Russian and International Experience*, which was held at RUDN University in November.

The plenary session and four discussion platforms brought together employees of international departments of higher education organisations, heads of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of Russia, heads of departments of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of Russia, heads and representatives of Rossotrudnichestvo, representatives of the Federation Council and the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Russia.

At the plenary session, experts discussed current trends in international cooperation and highlighted the basic principles of its transformation in the near future. The vector for the discussion was defined by Vladimir Filippov – President of RUDN University, Chairman of the Higher Attestation

Commission. Dr Filippov spoke of the new tasks and challenges associated not only with the pandemic, but also with the new priorities of state policy in the field of education export.

'In the new realities, international recognition is important for Russia. This task was set by the President of the Russian Federation and aims to make Russia one of the top 10 countries in the world in terms of science and education quality. The key role in addressing this task is assigned to universities', – stated Vladimir Filippov.

Deputy Minister of Science and Higher Education Petr Kucherenko noted that the conference is the response of Russian universities to the state's call to comprehensively develop the export of education and fully support its relevance and international competitiveness. The Deputy Minister stressed that in the tough competitive conditions of the educational market, no given Russian university is able to independently develop an effective systemic international partnership. Pooling of resources, exchange of experience, dialogue and mutual support are extremely important today. A series of events that take place at RUDN University provides such an opportunity.

Konstantin Kosachev, Chairman of the Federation Council Committee on International Affairs, put new emphasis on the issue of education exports. According to the expert, the pandemic is not only a threat to the international activities of educational institutions, but also an opportunity: *'Online education programmes, provided they come with proper technical support, can become a hallmark of Russian universities'*.

Konstantin Kosachev touched upon the problem of attracting motivated foreign students to study: *'Since the launch of the project on education export, the number of foreign students has doubled, and this brings it closer to the desired figure – 425,000 foreign citizens studying at Russian universities by 2024. However, in the pursuit of absolute numbers it is important to retain quality. Today, only 3% of foreigners who entered our universities under quotas are winners of Olympiads or*

competitions. When recruiting foreign students, it is worth remembering that this is human potential for our economy and international projects'.

Executive director of the Global Universities Association Irina Karelina spoke about the Open Doors project, an international Olympiad that allows talented students from foreign countries to enroll for free Master's and postgraduate studies at leading Russian universities without entrance tests.

The conference also welcomed representatives of the diplomatic missions of the Russian Federation in France, Norway, experts on the UK, as well as Acting Director of the Institute of the Far East of the Russian Academy of Sciences Alexei Maslov, who shared the experience of universities in these countries working hard amidst the COVID-19 pandemic.

The experts noted that the main response to the spread of the pandemic was the launch of the online training format. The experts spoke about the practical solutions implemented in these countries and the best practices that could be implemented in Russian universities.

Discussing the best practices in using remote technologies as a response to the COVID-19 challenges, representatives of Russian universities also presented their own cases of exporting education during the pandemic and identified common steps to develop international activities in 2021.

As the conference came to an end, the organisers noted that despite its unprecedented format, the conference turned into a productive platform for discussion.

RUDN University Hosted the 12th International Festival 'Moscow United Us in Friendship'
The annual festival helps students to get acquainted with the culture, science, sports, cuisine and peoples of the CIS countries and Russia. In 2020, the festival was held online for the first time. During the week, students participated in master classes and quizzes, shared recipes of national cuisine, played football and took part in round table discussions.

TRAINING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE