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‘Education is an ornament in prosperity and a refuge in adversity’
– Aristotle

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Introduction to Issue 6(1)

by Editor-in-Chief Elena N. Malyuga

Welcome to Issue 6(1) of Training, Language and Culture. The first issue of 2022 has gathered some comprehensive and illuminating research covering several valid scientific problems, including language research in the academic journals, foreign language speaking anxiety, intercultural awareness and learning, prosodic culturally marked peculiarities of language teachers' speech behaviour, emotions in written communication, and geographically rmarked Hispanic toponymy.

In *Powering the future: Academic journals and language research* Kenneth N. Beatty of Anaheim University offers some promising ideas for a new type of online digital academic journal and suggests how academic journals and papers can be improved, particularly in the area of English Language Teaching and the CEFR. While acknowledging potential resistance on the part of journal editors who might not be willing to go against some established publishing standards, the author still challenges the reader to dig dipper and consider new opportunities to rethink the role and function of academic journals.

In *Dealing with foreign language speaking anxiety: What every language teacher should know* Chahrazad Mouhoubi-Messadh and Kamel Khaldi of the University of Algiers 2 report on a study on speaking anxiety that included a sample of sixteen EFL undergraduates who took part in focus group interviews, revealing a significant impact of the teachers' roles in alleviating much of the anxiety experienced by the subjects in EFL speaking. Expanding on their research questions, the authors identify possible sources of anxiety, such as limited vocabulary mastery, self-criticism, fear of the teacher and/or of classmates' reactions, of being misunderstood, and classroom atmosphere as a whole. Importantly, the study suggests some valuable advice as to how we as teachers can help our students deal with foreign language speaking anxiety, which hopefully will aid the reader in their future teaching practice.

In *Considering perspectives of others: A case study of intercultural learning among English language learners in Norway* Anastasia Hanukaev of the University of Stavanger discusses the concept and practical manifestation of perspective taking embedded within the studies of culture and language. Following through on a case study involving Norwegian EFL students, the author concludes that realisations of perspective taking in the classroom are complex and varied, and the ways the pupils considered the perspectives of others were often contingent on the type of the entry they discussed, meaning that decisions foreign language teachers make about planning and designing classroom activities are crucial to success. Some practical implications for teaching are highlighted in the paper along with the interview guide for focus group interviews, which might be used for both future research and practical implementation.

In *The role of prosody in expressing culture-specific speech behaviour of language teachers in English* Yulia E. Ivanova and Elena I. Mikhaleva of Moscow City Teachers' Training University explore prosody as one of the most salient aspects of speech in expressing culture-specific speech behaviour of Russian teachers of English and their English counterparts. The study illustrates that national and cultural specifics of behaviour are expressed in the choice of prosodic characteristics of the speaker. However, although British and Russian teachers' prosodic repertoires demonstrate lack of similarity, teachers in both groups have shown to be accommodating, wanting to cooperate and overall, linguistically polite. As the authors specify, the article may be of interest to specialists in intercultural communication, phonetics, didactic communication and to anyone researching the issues of the culture-specific speech behaviour of English language teachers.

In *Communicating recipient's emotions: Text-triggered interest* Larisa A. Piotrovskaya and Pavel N. Trushchelev of Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia set out to expand the scope of interpersonal pragmatics and deal with the issue of recipient's emotions which is the least developed area of communication research into emotions. The authors promote the sociopragmatic conception of emotional processes and highlight the strategic nature of emotional impact in communicative situations by focusing on the analysis of emotion-evocative communication in terms of the reader's emotional interest with reference to expository texts from Russian school textbooks. The study ultimately identifies ways that the strategic use of language can increase text-triggered interest and verifies them experimentally, suggesting that linguistic means help authors present content in a variety of linguistic forms and, thereby, provoke the recipient's interest. Furthermore, as claimed by the authors, these linguistic factors can be applied by experts to detect and explore particular interest-evoking strategies.

Finally, in *Hispanic toponymy of Western Sahara: Stratigraphic and typological analysis* Irina A. Martynenko and Olga S. Chesnokova of Moscow State Law University and RUDN University analyse place names of Spanish origin in the Western Sahara context using GeoNames electronic system to classify Spanish elements of Western Sahara's toponyms and categorise Hispanic toponymic patterns. As concluded by the authors, the originality of Western Sahara's place names is manifested in the Hispanic layer, which is a reflection of the country's contradictory colonial past, toponymic classes that are unusual for the embodiment of Spanish place names, in basic topoformants that are different from Hispanic geonaming traditions in other Spanish-speaking parts of the world.

The issue also comes with two reviews that should be of interest to both language and education professionals: *McCarthy's field guide to grammar* (original work by Michael McCarthy published by Chambers 2021) reviewed by Barry Tomalin of Glasgow Caledonian University London, and *Reflecting on leadership in language education* (original work by Andy Curtis (Ed.) published by Equinox Publishing 2022) reviewed by Maurice Cassidy of International House London.

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

TLC welcomes contributions in the form of articles, reviews and correspondence. Details are available online at https://rudn.tlcjournal.org. Feel free to contact us at info@tlcjournal.org.

Original Research

Powering the future: Academic journals and language research

by Kenneth N. Beatty

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The first academic journal was published in 1655 and the first peer-reviewed journal followed in 1731. Since then, academic journals have changed little in form and only slightly in purpose. Academic journals continue to increase exponentially in number in ever-emerging fields, but there are negative washback effects to current journal publication, beginning with the publish and perish principle that works against innovative research objectives, topics and methodologies. Digital technologies now offer new opportunities to rethink the process, role and function of academic journals and, in language education, to overcome typical problems such as limited experimental subject pools, dated data, time constraints, a focus on marginal ideas and static findings. This paper also suggests how academic journals and papers can be improved, particularly in the area of English Language Teaching and the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR).

KEYWORDS: *academic research, experimental subjects, online journals, research methodologies, thought experiment, CEFR*

1. INTRODUCTION

As a thought experiment, imagine what academic journals might look like a century from now. You will likely choose one of two directions. On the one hand, you may conservatively assume that academic journals have flourished in much the same form for hundreds of years and will largely continue as they are now. They may migrate to being exclusively online, but still maintain a format based on what they generally have required for article submissions: a title, an abstract, body text and references. This kind of future journal's articles would appear in public in much the same way, going through a process of submission, peer review, revisions and resubmission and, finally, weeks or months later, publication. Journals appearing a century from now would be either distributed for free as, increasingly, many are now, while others would follow subscription models.

Alternatively, you might consider a second direction, making the fullest use of current technological affordances to enable a different kind of academic journal, one that is multimedia (featuring audio and video), interactive (with models to manipulate), dynamic (open to revisions and additions) and perpetual (always changing yet always available).

To explain these possibilities, as well as the reasons for following this direction, this article outlines the history of academic journals and their shortcomings and explores what an academic journal for language teaching and learning might look like, not in a hundred years, but today, making use of best research practices and current technologies to address language teaching and learning challenges.

2. A BRIEF HISTORY OF ACADEMIC JOURNALS

Quasi-scientific writing likely began with natural history topics, such as observations of the night sky by the earliest literate civilisations. But millennia were to pass before the creation of the first academic journal. First published in 1655, the Paris-based *Journal des Sçavans* was followed two months later by the London-based *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society* (Jenkins, 2019). In these two early journals, feedback loops for quality control and scientific oversight were achieved through readers' letters and successive articles that challenged and/or built on each issue's articles.

The first peer-reviewed journal arrived 76 years later, in 1731 (Jenkins, 2019), and many others soon followed. However, the idea and process of peer review – having others vet the quality of an article's research and writing – was neither quickly nor universally adopted. Shema (2014) notes that more than two centuries would pass before the leading British medical journal, *The Lancet*, implemented peer-review, in 1976.

Since then, academic journals have changed little in form and content, often for good reason. A key strength of academic journals is their standardisation of format, developed over time to bring clarity: *titles* engage, *abstracts* summarise and set out *research questions* or outline *findings*; *key words* help identify central foci; the *research format* of identifying a problem, based on what one may have learned through *observation* and/or *experimentation*, creating a *hypothesis* and conducting an experiment to test it; followed by *interpreting* the data and coming to a *conclusion*.

Together, these components help readers and researchers compare articles over time, supporting or challenging new ideas and incrementally building on the work of others.

The measure of academic journals' success can be seen in the fact that the number of journals continues to increase. Gu and Blackmore (2016), surveying science journals, note a steady growth rate of 3.3% between the years 1900 and 1944, and an increase in rate between 1986 and 2001 to 4.7%. Part of current growth is fuelled by the lower cost of entry to publishing through the creation of digital journals offered online. By 2007, the growth rate of digital online journals outstripped the

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growth rate of print journals and, by 2012, more online journals were being published than print journals (Gu & Blackmore, 2016).

In coming years, it can be expected that printing and mailing costs will drive many journals to take the first steps toward embracing online versions of their editions, and then abandoning print and moving to online journal models completely.

The embrace of online management platforms for journals is an important step toward the democratisation of research and, through it, to improved teacher education. Prior to the availability of online journals, access to quality research was an economic barrier for many researchers. This is still the case among many journals whose publishers bind articles in copyright and sell access for steep fees rather than joining in the Creative Commons, a non-profit organisation that *'helps overcome legal obstacles to the sharing of knowledge and creativity in order to address the world's pressing challenges'* (Creative Commons, 2022).

A trend among some journals is to charge fees for reviewing. For example, the non-profit *PLOS One* charges between 775 USD and 4000 USD to review and include articles, mostly in medical fields. These charges help support *PLOS*'s extensive publishing; between 2003 and 2019, its seven journals published 239,625 articles (Rodrigues et al., 2020). Fortunately, other than the cost of publishing (for which international rates and subsidies are available), *PLOS* articles are open access through Creative Commons licensing and making researchers/writers' contributions free for all readers.

Prior to widespread online access, universities, libraries and individuals who could not afford costly subscriptions were denied access to the latest ideas and trends in research. A parallel development to greater access to research published online has been the enrichment and expansion of ideas by voices previously silent because of a lack of access to be able to examine, debate, refute and build on the ideas within quality journal articles. Enfranchisement of international re-

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searchers through better access to current knowledge has also helped shift language research away from an overwhelming focus on issues mostly related to European languages.

Albiladi (2019) reviewed 400 articles from prominent language journals to determine the most popular topics since 2009. The top five include Digital Literacies / Technology in English Classes (13.7%), Second Language Methodology (12.5%), English for Specific Purposes (10.5%), Testing and Evaluation (8.7%), Language Planning and Policy (8.25%).

Among these five, *Digital Literacies / Technology in English Classes* is understandably important because of societal shifts toward online and blended learning as digital technologies and Wi-Fi bandwidth accommodate live video and greater interaction between students and teachers. The growth of online during the Covid-19 pandemic has likely skewed such numbers upward. It is even more important than the percentage suggests if *Computer-Assisted Language Learning*, seventh on the list at 6.5%, is added to the *Digital Literacies / Technology in English Classes* total. Other emerging themes further down the list are ones that have been sometimes ignored in previous decades and include gender, race, plurilingualism and translanguaging (Albiladi, 2019).

Of the 400 articles examined, 188 were qualitative, a further 84 were mixed methods and 128 articles were quantitative (Albiladi, 2019). The study did not cover language journals published in other languages, but special issue topics frequently arise, such as in response to teaching and learning in the time of the Covid-19 pandemic. Examples of recent *TESOL Quarterly* special issues are *Equity for Students Learning English in Dual Language Bilingual Education* (Dorner & Cervantes-Soon, 2020); *At the Cross-roads of TESOL and English Medium Instruction* (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018); and *Complementary Perspectives on Task-Based Classroom Realities* (Jackson & Burch, 2017). Academic journals’ featuring both current trends and special issues shows an awareness of the importance of addressing teacher needs with ideas that can be implemented in the classroom. Doing so in a timely manner is possible because of the speed of online submission, editing, and publishing of articles.

3. NEGATIVE IMPACTS

In examining reasons for the growth of academic journals and researchers’ participation in them, there are several negative factors. The first and largest negative factor is the so-called *publish or perish* principle. For many universities, publication in prestigious journals is a requirement for hiring, maintaining one’s position, promotion and tenure. Reinero (2019) identifies the quantity of publications as a statistically significant metric for employment opportunities.

By sifting through stacks of CVs, and in line with findings from others (Pennycook & Thompson, 2018), there appears to be a positive correlation around .24 between the year an assistant professor was hired and the number of publications they had, suggesting that today’s early career researchers need to publish more and more.

In a hands-off approach among university administrators, the research itself is sometimes not deemed as important as publication. Rather than a committee approach evaluating the particular merits of each published article by a job applicant, the task is deferred to the editors of journal publications; if a job applicant has published a number of papers in a top journal, then the applicant is assumed to be of an equally high standard.

A problem with this approach is the challenge most researchers face in having a paper accepted by a top journal. For example, a 2007 survey suggested that *TESOL Quarterly* only publishes 8.5% of submissions (Egbert, 2007). It is likely that in the years since that survey was done, the percentage may have dropped even lower.

Compounding this problem is the fact that after waiting a month or several months for one or more rejections, a paper may begin to become stale; research findings from a year or more ago can taint other journals’ acceptance of what they may consider to be outdated research.

Conversely, researchers submitting to less prestigious, low-circulation journals may have their submissions quickly accepted but have their contributions overlooked by other researchers and frowned upon by university hiring committees. In other cases, large research groups with multiple authors may look to recycle findings across multiple journals. It is common to

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find in, say a group of seven researchers, seven publications on similar sub-topics, using the same data, with each researcher taking the role of lead author to artificially boost the group members' curricula vitae.

The pressure to publish also leads to tricks that ethically challenged researchers employ to increase their chances of publication. For example, some carefully reference the articles of a journal's editors and known reviewers, even if these editors' and reviewers' contributions are not vital to the paper. As the Citation Index is important to many researchers for improving academic standing, there may be a temptation for editors and reviewers to approve an article in which one's own articles and books are mentioned. This works in the opposite way as well: some reviewers refer authors to their own articles and books, suggesting they cite them in revisions. Authors who fail to do so risk finding their revised manuscripts dismissed.

The expectations of academic journals may also hamper original ideas. In 1950, John Nash, age 22, submitted his PhD thesis, *Non-Cooperative Games* (Nash, 1950). At just 32 double-spaced pages, with only two references, it is uncertain whether it would be accepted by a doctoral committee today, although brief theses in mathematics are not uncommon. Totaro's (1992) thesis was only 12 pages, featuring eight pages of actual math with 11 references.

Similarly, Nash's (1951) subsequent nine-page article for the *Annals of Mathematics* included only five references with three of his own recently published papers added. Yet his article had enormous impact, cited over 12 thousand times, changing a great many fields within and outside of mathematics, leading to multiple awards, including the Nobel Prize in Economics.

The narrative of Nash's (1950, 1951) slender but impactful contributions begs the question of whether the format of academic journals may have become fossilised, discouraging original thought and innovative approaches in favour of standardised topics and methodologies that become self-referential within a discipline and reflect common thinking rather than explore new paradigms, simply because more pedestrian ideas are less challenging to review.

4. CHALLENGES ON LANGUAGE ISSUES

In language education, academic journals face particular problems based on the research typically undertaken by classroom-based researchers. These include small experimental subject pools, time constraints, a focus on marginal ideas, outdated references, and static findings.

Language teachers/researchers often rely on small experimental subject pools. Typically, the research pool is the teacher-researcher's own students, either a single class, or a few classes, one of which might be a control group receiving no experimental treatment. The problem is that these small group numbers inevitably lead to researchers either being constrained to qualitative measures or using quantitative measures ineffectually. The limited data are usually such that statistical significance cannot be measured and/or applied to a larger population with reliability.

Time constraints are inherent in many academic studies (Korovina, 2020). For studies of language students, the time frame is often a semester or perhaps a school year (i.e., around eight months). Despite the understanding that language acquisition is a long-term process, with learners experiencing an unpredictable mix of advances and setbacks, longitudinal studies of students are often problematical. Student attrition rises with the length of a study. Students may absent themselves pass out of the teacher-researcher's classes, graduate and leave the institution, or leave for other reasons, such as a move to a distant place, or even a general unwillingness to continue to be a test subject in an experiment or set of observations for which they receive no direct benefit. The consequence is that some teacher/researchers arrive at a subject pool of zero before the study is properly concluded, often making much of the data collected irrelevant.

Longitudinal studies, despite their value, are also a challenge to the current academic journal structure because they extend the wait for publication and the recognition that comes from it (Cherkunova, 2021). A common solution is to present intermediary findings before project completion but, for small studies, submissions of these findings can appear inconsequential.

With limited resources, classroom researchers often focus on marginal ideas, atomising teaching and learning issues to look for manageable research that might yield small and often locally practical solutions. Coupled with small group sizes and time constraints, this type of research is often structured in the form of a teacher making a small change to methodology, technology or materials, testing it with one or two classes, reviewing short-term and statistically insignificant measures of improvement, and eliciting student approval in the form of Likert satisfaction surveys. Such satisfaction surveys can be wildly unreliable due to the principle of acquiescence bias (or agreement bias) – subjects telling researchers what they expect they want to hear. Toor (2020) points out that acquiescence bias is particularly rife among collectivist societies and among the poorly educated.

Hatch and Lazaraton (1991, p. 1) note that research is *'the organised, systematic search for questions we ask'*. Nunan (1992) suggests research has three components: (1) a question, problem or hypothesis; (2) data; and (3) analysis and interpretation. But if the question is not worthy, the data not dependable, the analysis and interpretation, in turn, is certain to fail. This is compounded by the inability of researchers to ever hope to research a topic completely and comprehensively. Despite the inclusion of so much research online, the constant expansion of content means that wading through it to find significant references is increasingly challenging. One consequence is that many articles tend to reinvent the wheel – attempt to solve problems that have already been extensively researched and for which credible solutions have already been put forward.

Once an article does appear online, its findings become static. Sometimes, researchers will revisit their own or others' research, doing replication studies to examine differences over time or across geographies, but such studies are relatively rare.

5. RETHINKING THE ACADEMIC JOURNAL

Technology now offers new opportunities to rethink the role and function of academic journals. It is already encouraging that the move to online publishing has sped up the publishing process. Online delivery means that printing and mailing times and costs have been largely eliminated. Access for students, researchers, and teachers has also improved. Gu and Blackmore (2016) estimate that more than 30% of online journals are now freely available through open access websites. Prior to the advent of the Internet era, this percentage of academic journals with free access would have been close to zero.

Moreover, in terms of shortening the time between researchers doing their work and their findings reaching readers, the article review process has become increasingly automated through online tools (eJManager, 2022). These tools allow for a paper to be received by a journal editor by email and then sent to a potential reviewer moments later. In turn, the reviewer has a few days to signal a willingness or unwillingness to look at the paper, with reminders automatically sent if a response is not received. In practice, many reviewers tend to respond immediately, on receipt of the email request. Several reviewers can be contacted at the same time, to get both different critical perspectives and a rapid consensus on a paper's suitability for publication.

Once reviewers have expressed interest, they are usually given a few weeks to complete their reviews. Once the reviews are completed, they are shared through an online form that allows reviewers to offer detailed line-by-line feedback on a paper, or simply offer general comments and their decisions on whether or not to reject the paper, ask for revisions, or publish as is. Editors then consider the reviews, as well as other factors such as an issue's available space, and contact the paper's author(s) by emails.

When one considers the traditional mail times that would be required for each step in the process outlined above, it is easy to understand how getting an article published could previously have stretched to a year or more. The above-mentioned seminal article by Nash (1951), for example, was likely received and accepted without undue delay, perhaps without amendments, but 11 months and nine days elapsed before it was published.

What could a paradigm-shifting academic journal look like, improving on current academic journals of language teaching and learning, reversing negative washback effects inherent in academia today, such as putting a priority on publication over meaningful research, for the sake of employment? How could these changes improve research topics and methodologies? As mentioned in the introduction, such an academic journal would be multimedia, interactive, dynamic and perpetual.

Current journals, even online ones, shy away from many of the simplest multimedia affordances of digital information. For example, most online journals cling to black text only, even though the use of colour could be used to highlight ideas in different ways, improving readability and better conveying information. Applications could be in differentiating annotations from

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'Rather than relying on a teacher's own small numbers of students, the act of sharing a particular methodology and providing an online forum for pooling results would create a database of ever-expanding data points for better understanding of the key issues facing language teaching and learning'

text, identifying different speakers in complex discourse analysis transcripts, or separating arguments. Colour could enhance charts and illustrations and add clarity to photographs.

A digital journal could also incorporate audio, video and animation clips directly into the body of a text. Instead of describing a classroom, an explorable panorama photo could show it in greater detail. Transcriptions of students speaking could include embedded audio or video for other researchers to confirm their accuracy, or to use the base materials for further study of other aspects of classroom conversation. Virtual reality and augmented reality applications could be linked directly to online articles both as a way to explain the applications and to allow readers to immediately evaluate their efficacy.

Academic journals – even those online – are often static. Once they are published, they are not modified. However, they could easily be updated and be more interactive through the inclusion of tools and applications. For example, a journal article discussing audio file speed and pitch could include samples of spoken text with speed and pitch controls. Readers could work with the models to modify the settings as they consider the issues being discussed and even replicate the study using the audio clips, varying speed and pitch with their own students to see if the same results could be reliably obtained. Another aspect would be the opportunity to manipulate models by including additional variables (Petrosyan & Grishechko, 2021).

Integrating large sets of such data could happen between the monthly or quarterly issues of existing journals. A model of perpetual contributions and editing could be implemented, as is already done in many Wiki applications (Vanderbilt University, 2022). Academic journal articles could be refined, added to, and discussed perpetually, with pop-up comments moderated by users. It is an approach that could turn a single paper into an international research project with thousands of researchers and countless experimental subjects. Rather than relying on a teacher's own small numbers of students, the act of sharing a particular methodology and providing an online forum for pooling results would create a database of ever-expanding data points for better understanding of the key issues facing language teaching and learning.

6. A PRACTICAL EXAMPLE

To extend the thought experiment mentioned in the introduction, the following outlines the steps from a teacher's initial question, through the extended life of an interactive digital article.

Currently, research is undertaken and articles submitted largely on the impetus of researchers who have personal interests or stakes in particular language teaching and learning problems and issues and look for ways to explore them through research or, sometimes, a survey of the literature. In other cases, there are calls for submissions on special topics, given by a journal to react to changes in society or technology or to redress deficits, such as a lack of attention to less-researched languages or the struggles of particular groups of students.

Instead of the choice of topics being driven by researchers and editors, a new digital journal might choose at least some of its topics from among suggestions raised by classroom teachers. For example, a teacher or student reader might be curious about the relationship between hours of instruction and performance on standardised tests, with reference to progress through the Common European Framework Reference (CEFR).

After the topic or question is raised, it could be posted to an online area of the journal where other teachers and researchers could rate each topic according to their interest and consideration of its significance to teaching and learning. Rating could be done as simply as adding likes, in the format used by micro-blogging sites like Twitter, or through a one-to-five-star format, as used in online reviews. Those topics of greatest reader interest would rise to the top, while those of limited interest would sink to the bottom of the list.

While this may seem like a populist approach to research, it would be a way to ensure that key issues of the greatest importance to educators were explored without ignoring more arcane topics that may have limited immediate interest, but which nonetheless provide useful contributions to the field. It would bridge the work of classroom educators, who tend not to do as much published research, with university-based researchers who may not do as much teaching or who may never have taught kindergarten to grade 12 students. It is an irony that many teacher trainers have never themselves taught a class of target audience students. Instead, many have gone through Bachelor's, Master's and PhD degrees in areas such as applied linguistics with limited practical exposure to current classroom pedagogy or the real-world non-pedagogical problems such as a lack of funding and training opportunities faced by classroom teachers.

Once a topic has been nominated and selected for future journal publication, it could be dissected by researchers eager to explore sub-topics in keeping with their particular areas of expertise, such as the time necessary to improve discrete reading, writing, speaking and listening skills in terms of the CEFR scale.

One subtopic could be an analysis of the commonly held belief that to move from one level of the CEFR to another level requires a set number of hours of instruction and that these hours of instruction can be reasonably predicted for most students. As a widely held belief and frequently published standard, Cambridge University Press (2018), claims that it takes 90-100 guided learning hours to achieve an A1 competency in English and a cumulative 1030-1450 guided learning hours to reach a C2 level. However, the justification of these estimates comes from the following sources: *'These figures are based on (a) our experience of developing courses that work for schools and colleges around the world; (b) the views of a number of experienced professionals in the ELT field; (c) reference to other sources such as the ALTE guidelines and research such as Elder and O'Loughlin (2003)'* (Cambridge University Press, 2018, p. 10).

From this explanation, it is clear that these estimates have not been empirically tested. Cambridge University Press's (2018) 'experience developing courses' might be considerable, but it is likely that if the development of textbooks is based on pre-held assumptions about the length of time it takes to move from one level to the next, the materials themselves become part of a self-fulfilling prophecy. That is, because they expect it takes students X number of hours to complete a course, the books are created to fill that same number of hours.

Tests, after completing such texts with perfect attendance, should theoretically show a 100% success rate in reaching the level objectives, but this is not the case. Instead, many students fail to smoothly progress from one level to the next, despite sitting in the same classrooms with the same materials and teachers for the same amount of time as more successful students. This being the case, it is obvious that other factors are at play.

Similarly, Cambridge University Press's (2018) second point, based on 'the views of a number of experienced professionals', invites scrutiny. As with the first point, the information is not quantified in any way. Just as one would be curious to know how many courses and textbooks Cambridge based their findings on, and which ones in particular, it would be of interest to know how many experts were consulted, their expertise and experience, particularly in terms of teaching different levels and ages of students from various language groups.

The Cambridge University Press (2018) justification of hours of instruction also points to the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE). Based on its name, it is reasonable to believe that ALTE has a European-centric view of assessment with the CEFR. A review of its membership (ALTE, 2022) shows no members from outside Europe and its bordering Slavic countries, that is, none from Africa, Asia, Australasia, the Middle East, North America or South America. Members might have expertise in these geographies, but if these and other informants of Cambridge University Press are all of European backgrounds, it could raise another research question to see whether the CEFR findings are based on language teaching, learning, and testing assumptions that would be considered reasonable in other parts of the world outside Europe where English is taught. Socioeconomically, historically, educationally and culturally, Europe is not the same as the rest of the world.

A larger area of concern might be looking at the CEFR itself, which has been criticised as being more anecdotal than empirical in its findings. Foley (2019) cites this lack of theoretical background: *'Hulstijin (2007) indicated that the empirical foundations of the CEFR scales were based on the judgements of teachers and experts and not on Second Language Processes or research. Poszytek (2012) warned publishers not to use CEFR's global scale or 'can do' concept to sell their textbooks as they were often misaligned with the CEFR scales and had limited theoretical background'* (Foley, 2019, p. 31).

Fleckenstein et al. (2018) point out that the CEFR is also imperfect in terms of teachers' use of it to assess students impartially: *'Teachers' self-reported familiarity and experience with the CEFR was not found to predict their judgment accuracy. However, this may be due to* *ceiling effects in teachers' self-reports. In any case, the teachers have not received explicit and systematic training on CEFR-based student assessment'* (Fleckenstein et al., 2018, p. 19).

Fleckenstein et al. (2018) also identify the need for teachers to have more rigorous CEFR training, and note that *'Moonen et al. (2013) were able to show, having little experience with the CEFR is a reality in foreign language teaching'* (Fleckenstein et al., 2018, p. 91). This, as with the other points, suggests the need to attack the question of hours of instruction required for each CEFR level from various vantage points, breaking down the question into multiple research questions.

Once research questions on the theme of hours of instruction and CEFR progress have been developed, the next step would be for interested parties to do initial research and create papers with a title, abstract, introduction, a literature review, an outline of the research methodology, the results or findings of the research, a discussion of the importance and/or applicability of the results, a conclusion, recommendations and references. At some point in the paper, usually in the introduction or at the end of the paper, there would also be a discussion of the limitations.

Considering this description of a typical paper, one traditional expectation is that the finished and edited result would be static, other than the possible addition of errata comments.

So, how might each of these article components actually become more dynamic in a new digital journal in practice?

The *title* of the paper would likely remain static but could be infused with meta data tags (as done with microblogging hashtags) that link the paper to other papers being published on the same theme. As with hashtags, these links could grow over time as more papers were published. This would create a parallel thematic index, identifying relationships among papers.

As with other portions of the paper, the *abstract* would exist in two or more versions. The original would always be accessible, but other versions, updated by the papers' original authors or by others with the original authors' permissions, could show refinements of the ideas to better represent subsequent additions, as outlined below.

The *introduction* of the paper could be updated over time to incorporate new insights or to include additional research subjects. For example, a paper written on Russian students' progress through CEFR levels might be extended with data from other countries.

In a traditional article, *a literature review* is static. But, a next-generation journal could constantly update the literature, adding new books and articles, and newer versions of those references already cited. Along with the citing of authors and works in a literature review, there would need to be annotations of how a particular piece of writing applies to the current study. In essence, every article could have its own annotated bibliography. New references could also be added both for new additions to the article, as well as for further and different explanations for existing arguments and conclusions in the original paper.

There are precedents for including new perspectives, in the form of in-text commentaries, that are often appended to religious texts. A challenge with these commentaries is how to display them on the same page. Print solutions have included dividing off the commentaries with lines, the use of footnotes, the use of different fonts and point sizes and, less commonly, the use of a colour, often red. A digital journal could use all of these but also use hypertext links to additional text, so that the reader was not distracted when reading the original text.

An *outline of the research methodology* is useful for replication studies, where the methodology is reapplied at a different time, and sometimes in a different geographical location. Traditionally, however, there has never been a guarantee that such replication studies would be published in the same journals as the original. A next-generation journal would encourage such studies, if only by linking them to the original article. Moreover, data-driven methodologies with clear opportunities for replication could be incorporated into dynamic models.

A dynamic model would be one in which new data could be continuously included to bolster the significance of the findings. For example, instead of relying on the limited data of a few classes of students progressing through CEFR levels, an open source model within a paper could attract contributions from anyone interested in the topic but who might not want to write a separate paper on the issue. Anyone reading the original paper could instead look back on their own records to answer simple questions to collect data on key variables such as the number and ages of students, entry assessment of CEFR levels, number of hours of instruction, and success/lack of success in achieving the next CEFR levels, along with any anecdotal information that would help make better sense of the data, such as whether instruction was face to face or online.

Sharing this anonymised information along with time (i.e., date) and geographical markers (i.e., city, country) could be entered on an online spreadsheet, new entries vetted by the original paper's authors, and added to the dynamic database of the model.

Moreover, such a model could be downloaded and run with various manipulations to see what results it offered. For example, a researcher might look through the progress of hundreds of thousands of students and sort them by CEFR entry level, age, city, country, gender, level and other factors identified by the article's original authors or other authors in subsequent articles that build on the findings.

Most usefully, the data might reveal positive outliers – groups of students taught by particular teachers who progressed at a faster rate than the norm. If other variables were found to be within the norms of other data points, it would signal opportunities to investigate these teachers' teaching methods to see if they employed pedagogies that could be employed more widely.

In a traditional journal article, the *results, or findings, of the research* are static and provide a historical snapshot of a fixed group of subjects in a particular time and place. However, in a dynamic journal model, the results could be constantly reinterpreted. For example, it might reasonably be expected that students from countries/language groups that do not employ English alphabets might progress at a slower rate for the initial CEFR levels (as they learn and internalise the alphabet) but then progress at a rate closer to the CEFR norms as they move through higher levels.

Another issue is the spacing of time between classes. In some schools, only a few hours a week are set aside for English instruction. Other intensive programmes might feature 40 hours a week. At the end of 100 hours of such instruction, it is unlikely that the language gains would be equivalent, as determined by CEFR test scores. Programme duration could be another variable worth exploring, as would follow-ups with students who had achieved certain levels.

These and other insights would help drive the creation of more realistic teaching and learning materials. For example, if it was found that at the A1 level, it took non-English-alphabet students, on average, an additional 20 hours of instruction, that could be incorporated into the textbook and digital learning materials, as well as into class scheduling. Conversely, empirical data obtained from thousands of teachers of hundreds of thousands of students might also challenge ideas about how long higher-level courses should be and whether as many hours need to be set aside for them as is currently believed.

'Existing journal editors may not see advantages in branching off into higher levels of interactivity and researchers may be cautious of writing articles where their ideas may be overwhelmed by additional data and commentary'

A discussion of the importance and/or applicability of the results usually features static conclusions, narrowly drawn from the authors' own experience. In a new digital journal model, a moderated discussion forum could be open for re-interpretations of the data and innovative findings, as well as new questions. A discussion forum might be a venue for the addition of new references, hypertext linked to full source materials.

The *conclusion*, *recommendations,* and *limitations* for an online digital journal article would be tentative. Although they could be written for the initial article, they might be subject to change as more data was gathered and interpretations changed.

7. CONCLUSION

The above ideas for a new type of online digital academic journal may happen over time but, in discussing why change takes so long in academia, Arbesman (2012) suggests personal reasons often trump the common good: *'Data are hoarded, scientists refuse to collaborate, and grudges can play a role in peer review. There's a lot at play'*. In much the same way, existing journal editors may not see advantages in branching off into higher levels of interactivity and researchers may be cautious of writing articles where their ideas may be overwhelmed by additional data and commentary.

Publishers, editors, researchers, universities and other stakeholders are invested in the continuance of the current academic journal structure. A new academic journal paradigm would also require a new paradigm for how research and contributions to knowledge are made and credited for consideration by academic employers. In future, a system of micro credits, perhaps recorded in Blockchain transactions, will better reward researchers for minor contributions to meaningful large-scale research projects rather than meaningless contributions to minor small-scale research efforts.

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Original Research

Dealing with foreign language speaking anxiety: What every language teacher should know

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The issue of language learning anxiety has received considerable attention in the last decades due to interest in learner psychology. Foreign language anxiety has been investigated as situation-specific anxiety related to the language classroom. Lately, researchers focused on language anxiety from a skills perspective, mainly the productive ones, speaking and writing, exploring the debilitating effects of anxiety on language learners. This paper reports on a study on speaking anxiety that included a sample of sixteen EFL undergraduates who took part in focus group interviews. They were conducted to collect qualitative data that would shed light on speaking anxiety from students' perspectives. Based on existing language anxiety research, a theoretical overview of some of the personal and procedural factors that are thought to contribute to foreign language speaking anxiety is provided. The findings revealed a significant impact of the teachers' role (s) in alleviating much of the anxiety experienced by the subjects in EFL speaking. An essential aim of this paper was to suggest some possible pedagogical measures that would help learners, as well as teachers, overcome major difficulties caused by foreign language speaking anxiety in an EFL university setting with reference to the teaching and learning of the speaking skill in the EFL Algerian university context. Ways to deal with and minimise foreign language speaking anxiety could be more effective if they intersect with students' concerns.

KEYWORDS: *speaking anxiety, focus group, reducing anxiety, EFL, foreign language, language teacher*

1. INTRODUCTION

With regards to research into foreign language anxiety, there is ample evidence that it has negative effects on language learning. Foreign language anxiety matters because it *'represents an emotionally and physically uncomfortable experience for too many language learners'* (Horwitz et al., 2010, p. 109). In the language classroom, individual communication attempts will be evaluated according to uncertain or even unknown linguistic and socio-cultural standards. For this, Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest that second language communication entails risk-taking and is necessarily problematic. In their theory of language anxiety, the authors hypothesise that *'since speaking in the target language seems to be the most threatening aspect of foreign language learning, the emphasis on the development of communicative competence poses particularly great difficulties for the anxious student'* (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 132).

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

In this study, the method used was qualitative descriptive research. To explore learners' perceptions of speaking anxiety in EFL learning, focus group interviews were designed to answer the following research questions: what factors do EFL Algerian university students associate with foreign language speaking anxiety, and how could anxiety be reduced in EFL speaking classrooms?

Data were collected from a sample of sixteen (4 males and 12 females) EFL Algerian students at the English Department, University of Algiers 2. Two focus group interviews were conducted by dividing the subjects into Focus Group (FG) 1 (N=8) of low-ability students and Focus Group (FG) 2 (N=8) of high-ability students. Every focus group comprised two females and six males of different proficiency levels. Those participants represented samples of first-year undergraduates (FG1) and third-year undergraduates (FG2) respectively. The division of the population into low-ability and high-ability students was based on overall course grades. Our choice of focus group interviews stems from the fact that participants could provide more descriptions and insights about speaking anxiety in a form of a group. Moreover, researchers have drawn attention to the inclusion of focus groups in research studies since they are *'less threatening to many participants as the environment is helpful for the group participants to discuss perceptions, ideas, opinions and thoughts'* (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009, p. 2).

In constructing the questions of the focus group guide, we have taken into consideration existing research on language anxiety (Yan & Horwitz, 2008), learners' attitudes in speaking classroom and general descriptions of anxiety in speaking given by the students prior to the study. To reduce the chances of falsified responses and comments, each participant was assured that he or she would remain anonymous. The subjects welcomed the opportunity to talk about their classroom experiences in their speaking classes, and the researcher acted as a moderator. In discussing emergent themes and categories, we shall provide verbatim statements made by focus group members. The data from focus group interviews were analysed using the thematic analysis approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The data from the students' comments were recorded in their original form as they were conducted in English, allowing some idiosyncratic language to creep in. We used thematic analysis as it was more suitable in exploring psychological variables like speaking anxiety.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

3.1. Rationale

The tendency on the part of some people to avoid and fear communicating orally is one of the most studied topics. Daly (1991) pointed out that reasoning from the analogy of first language anxiety might offer insights that will aid educators in coping with language anxiety. We assume that there might be some logical ties to foreign language anxiety related to speaking especially if we consider the following description:

'In the typical classroom, students might avoid talking because they are unprepared, uninterested, unwilling to disclose, alienated from the class, lacking confidence in their competence, or because they fear communicating' (Daly, 1991, p. 6).

We may assume, therefore, that many learners who fear participation resort, most of the time, to silence as an avoidance strategy. For this reason, there is an assumption that too much anxiety presents a major hindrance in second language learning (Oxford ,1999). In an oral classroom, for instance, the amount of language production can be influenced by the ways learners perceive themselves, their willingness to communicate and take risks, and by the classroom atmosphere itself.

Researchers like Sevinc and Dewaele (2018) consider that communicative anxiety can occur in a range of cases, typically starting in foreign language classrooms but with the potential to extend to other situations and contexts. In an EFL setting, most opportunities to perform orally in the target language are given in the language classroom (Scarcella & Oxford ,1992). In discussing major sources of anxiety, Price (1991) identified speaking the target language in front of peers as the greatest source of anxiety. Likewise, Scarcella and Oxford (1992) referred to speaking as the major skill that triggers anxiety, described as performance anxiety, stemming from speaking in front of the class.

Assuming that language anxiety may affect learners' speaking skill development, we attempt to investigate this aspect as a central issue in this paper. It is hoped that by examining foreign language speaking anxiety and how it interacts with contributing variables, this study could provide some theoretical insights and pedagogical suggestions to reduce EFL speaking anxiety in language classes. There have been attempts to design some measures to reduce anxiety in language learning situations. Though effective, they would require time and energy on the part of teachers and learners to be applied in classrooms (Jin et al., 2021). As such, our direction of thought is within this framework, that ways to cope with anxiety in EFL speaking could be more effective if they derive from learners' voices. Teachers are not that receptive to those psychological procedures and measures that could be much demanding and need special training. That might diverge educators from their essential role(s) as teachers into psychologists or therapists. As posited by Horwitz et al. (2010), providing help to reduce or overcome foreign language anxiety should be an important concern for all language teachers.

People who suffer from communication apprehension are more reluctant to converse or interact with others and tend to avoid communication. Keeping silent, responding only when necessary, being passive, and avoiding class entirely are typical behaviour patterns of communication apprehension that can be observed in the language classroom (Oxford, 1999.

In examining possible routes to apprehension, Daly (1991) stated that individuals become apprehensive when they receive random and unpredictable patterns of rewards and punishments for engaging in the same verbal activity. The unpredictability of others' responses to a person's communication attempts leads him or her to become apprehensive about communicating. Those views are interesting in the light of research into language anxiety. Apprehensive students who perceive communicating in a foreign language as threatening tend to avoid communicative opportunities. Aida (1994) hypothesises that *'communicatively apprehensive people are more reluctant to get involved in conversations with others and to seek social interactions'* (Aida, 1994, p. 156).

Out of all the language skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing, speaking stands as a major anxiety-inducing skill (Tsui,1995). This might be because of the classroom situation itself or because some individuals are not receptive to the idea of communicating with others (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Moreover, lacking the necessary linguistic tools of the target language, for instance in oral production activities, can generate speaking anxiety (Thaler, 2021).

In many research studies, it has been found that speaking in front of the class provides the greatest emotional challenge to second language learners (Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991). The emotional challenge required when students are asked to speak is described as an inhibition which *'occurs when learners must publicly produce new responses which are not yet well-learned, and such demands for public performance could be premature and may lead to anxiety on the part of the learner'* (Bailey, 1983, p. 67). Individuals who typically have trouble speaking in groups are likely to experience greater difficulties in speaking where they have little control of the communicative situation, and their performance is constantly monitored (Horwitz et al., 1986). In the language class, students are required to communicate via a medium in which only a limited facility is possessed. Consequently, the potential for frustrated communication is always present in the language class (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). As Horwitz et al. (1986) put it, *'the special communication apprehension permeating foreign language learning derives from the personal knowledge that one will almost certainly have difficulty understanding others and making oneself understood'* (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127).

In other words, students' awareness that, at the level of speaking and listening, full comprehension of the foreign language messages is so demanding can generate apprehension. Horwitz et al. (1986) argue that this knowledge might help explain why some talkative people are silent in a foreign language class. The converse seems to be true. Ordinarily self-conscious and inhibited speakers may find that communicating in a foreign language makes them feel as if someone else is speaking. Therefore, those speakers are likely to feel less anxious in the language class.

3.2. Personal and procedural factors that might influence EFL speaking anxiety

According to Horwitz et al. (2010), teachers can help in minimising students' anxiety levels by relying on the *'individual characteristics associated with anxiety and on the instructional factors that contribute to increased anxiety'* (Horwitz et al., 2010, p. 108). In line with this view, we attempt to review the role played by some of the variables that could augment negative affect and foreign language speaking anxiety for EFL learners.

3.2.1. Speaking anxiety and limited self-expression

When communicating in a second language, learners may face difficulties in expressing themselves due to limited ability. In other words, communication in the second language becomes problematic because of the 'immature command' of the second language relative to the first (Horwitz et al., 1986). With their limited communicative competence, learners may have difficulties in relating to others and presenting themselves adequately (Littlewood, 1984). Even attempts to speak spontaneously may result in misunderstandings on the part of language learners. They may feel threatened when the ability and desire to participate in discussion are present, but the process of verbalising is inhibited (Gkonou, 2011).

In language learning, students can feel pressure and frustration when the material is out of their grasp. As Horwitz et al. (1986) put it, *'adult language learners' self-perceptions of genuineness presenting themselves to others may be threatened by the limited range of meaning and affect that can be deliberately communicated'* (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128).

The situation is different when communicating in a native language as it is not difficult to understand others or to make oneself understood. For this reason, assumptions about ability to perform and self-expression are challenged when learners are required to perform in a second or foreign language. Some students might even experience pressure when asked to perform. In the same vein, Tsui (1995) suggests that *'the pressure to give the right answer is exacerbated by the fact that not only do students have to know the right answer but they also need to express it in the target language'* (Tsui, 1995, p. 84).

3.2.2. Speaking anxiety, reduced self-esteem and reduced self-confidence

Learners with high self-esteem are less likely to feel threatened when communicating in another language even in unfamiliar situations. Those learners are ready to risk making mistakes or projecting a reduced image of themselves (Littlewood, 1984). In Price's (1991) study, unsuccessful language learners often have lower self-esteem than successful language learners.

Horwitz et al. (1986) noted that foreign language learning can cause a threat to learners' self-esteem by depriving learners of their normal means of communication, their freedom to make errors, and their ability to behave fully as normal people. Individuals with a sure sense of self-worth could manage more effectively the threats caused by the language learning environment than those with low self-esteem. Among highly anxious language students, those with high self-esteem might handle their anxiety better than those with low self-esteem, resulting in better performance (Oxford, 1999).

As self-confidence is closely intertwined with self-esteem, researchers suggest that students who lack confidence in themselves both in ability level and ability to communicate suffer from communication apprehension (Tsui, 1995). Low self-confidence may cause reticence or withdrawal from classroom interaction. For this reason, teachers should not expect instant fluency and creativity, instead, they should build up students' confidence bit by bit, giving them restricted tasks first before more spontaneous ones (Harmer, 2001).

3.2.3. Anxiety and speaking in front of the class

Many researchers relate language anxiety to some classroom procedures. Speaking in front of the class or giving oral presentations are regarded as the most anxiety-producing activities (Yan & Horwitz, 2008; Malyuga et al., 2016). In Horwitz et al.'s (1986) study, many subjects felt anxious about being called on to respond orally in their language classes. Similar results were found by Price (1991). Speaking the target language in front of peers was identified by all of Price's (1991) subjects as the greatest source of anxiety. Interviewees spoke of their fears of being laughed at by other students, of making a fool of themselves in public, and of being ridiculed by their peers.

3.2.4. Anxiety and learners' help-seeking behaviour

This is another aspect that has been shown to contribute to stress in the classroom. Students who are not comfortable in seeking help from their instructors or teaching assistants may experience a high level of anxiety in the classroom. Accordingly, their failure to seek help may in turn result in lower levels of achievement. As Aida (1994) puts it, *'some students may need assistance from the instructor, but do not ask for help because they might view help-seeking as a manifestation of weakness, immaturity, or even incompetence'* (Aida, 1994, p. 164). Such types of students might feel lost in the classroom when they do not ask for help from their teachers because they consider it as a weakness. Moreover, they can be very anxious about the teacher discovering their problems.

3.2.5. Teachers' intolerance of silence

Research suggests that teachers who are intolerant of silence put a great deal of pressure on students to perform in language classes. Tsui (1995) regarded teachers' intolerance of silence as a contributing factor to anxiety. In her action research project, many teachers reported that they were afraid of silence and that they felt very uneasy or impatient when they failed to get responses from their students. One of the reasons is that teachers are afraid that a longer wait time will slow down the pace and lead to boredom and disruption in the classroom.

3.2.6. Anxiety and peer-to-peer interactions

In language classrooms, students are required to perform orally in front of the whole class. In communicative tasks, for instance, students will constantly assess how significant others will react to them. The possibility that learners' performance can be evaluated negatively on the part of fellow learners is always present. Allwright and Bailey (1991) suggested that for a learner to be open to the experience of becoming a speaker of another language, he or she needs to be receptive to fellow learners. Some language students feel anxious about communicating because they are sensitive to the evaluations, real or imagined, of their peers (Horwitz et al., 1986). The degree of learners' receptivity to fellow students can be affected negatively by the pressure imposed by peers. As mentioned by Allwright and Bailey (1991), the more proficient learners may feel that they have nothing to gain from interacting with the less proficient. Likewise, the less proficient may feel demoralised when they compare themselves to the superior performance of others. It is essential, therefore, to lower anxiety generated by learner-learner interactions since it can have debilitating effects on self-confidence, self-perception of competence and consequently on effort and achievement.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS

Three broad themes that were thought to influence students' anxiety levels in speaking were identified from the focus group interview transcripts. In reporting the findings, tables are used to give an overview of all the themes and categories that emerged from qualitative data along with a number of responses recurrence. In addition to that, sample instances of focus group interview transcripts are presented for every corresponding theme and subsequent category (Table 1).

Table 1
Anxiety, self-esteem and self-confidence in EFL speaking: Focus group 1 (N=8)

CATEGORIES	NUMBER OF RESPONSES RECURRENCE
Limited vocabulary	3
Limited knowledge about the topics	3
Teacher's role	2

According to the responses of FG1 (Table 1), having a limited vocabulary and having limited knowledge about the topics were cited as major reasons influencing self-esteem and self-confidence in speaking. One subject stated: *'Sometimes I'm not sure because I lose words. I'm worried when I haven't many words to express myself'*. The same statement was made by other students of the first group. In this case, lack of vocabulary seems to pose problems for students who are anxious about the way they perform in the class. As a result, feelings of inefficacy can be generated when language learners fail to express themselves properly. Another student added: *'When I know the topic and I have words to express my ideas I feel confident, and I begin to speak freely'*. As opposed to the previous example, it seems that self-confidence depends on the student's knowledge of the topics and mastery of vocabulary.

When topics are unfamiliar, students are likely to experience anxiety and reluctance to intervene in class. Several subjects, for instance, said that they did not always feel confident in their oral classes. One student reported that he did not feel confident in some sessions and said: *'I worry because I don't know the topic'*. Another added: *'Self-confidence depends on the topic. English is a new language for us, and I'm always worried to speak'*. Such comments indicate that when students are required to perform in their oral classes, they can be frustrated especially when the topics discussed are beyond their level of competence. As Daly (1991) hypothesised, the less familiar the situation, the greater the situational apprehension. When topics are unfamiliar, students may feel anxiety and low self-confidence.

Some students believed that the teacher's assistance could help them overcome their feelings of inadequacy and lessen their anxiety. They emphasised the role of the teacher in nurturing self-confidence and situational self-esteem. One student described that he always worried and felt less self-confident in his oral class. He recognised that it was his oral teacher who helped him to build up self-confidence and said: *'When* *the teacher helps me when I stop by giving me words, I feel confident, and I continue speaking'*. Another student shared this comment and said: *'It depends on my teacher. If he helps me, I feel self-confident and I will not have problems in speaking. But if I try alone, I don't feel sure and self-confident'*. Such comments illustrate Horwitz et al.'s (1986) connection between self-confidence and communication apprehension. Students who lack confidence in themselves or their English suffer from communication apprehension.

Table 2
Anxiety, self-esteem and self-confidence in EFL speaking: Focus group 2 (N=8)

CATEGORIES	NUMBER OF RESPONSES RECURRENCE
Limited knowledge about the topics	1
Fear of classmates' reactions	4
Fear of being misunderstood	2
Classroom atmosphere	1

Interviewees from FG1, who reported experiencing low self-esteem and low self-confidence, referred to aspects somewhat different from those of FG2 like topics selection, fear of classmates, fear of being misunderstood, and the classroom atmosphere (Table 2). Responses of FG2 tend to support the view that learners' self-esteem and self-confidence in speaking are affected by having limited knowledge about topics selected for them. One student mentioned that she felt confident when she had ideas about the topics discussed. She went on to describe that *'other times I don't find what to say and I feel that I have no self-confidence'*. In the same vein, another student shared the view that she would feel motivated and self-confident depending on the topic familiarity. She described that sometimes she had ideas but tended to eliminate original ones: *'I make myself superficial. I express myself in a way that I share the common opinion'*.

It seems that such avoidance behaviour is adopted to cope with threatening situations. To explain why she avoided speaking differently this student said: *'In that case, my opinion contradicted the common one to the point that I'm always afraid of the reaction of my classmates'*. Such comments are similar to Kleinmann's (1977) concept of avoidance behaviour. Language students avoid threatening situations – in this case, topic avoidance – to preserve self-esteem.

Besides, several references were made by the subjects in FG2 to the fear of being misunderstood. One of the interviewees argued that she preferred to be silent and avoided participation because of low self-confidence. In an attempt to find out more about what contributed to her lack of self-confidence, this student cited her fear of negative reactions on the part of her classmates. She explained: *'I'm afraid of not expressing my ideas well… to be sometimes misunderstood'*. Low self-confidence can be a result of low situational self-esteem, especially when students fear misunderstanding. Consistent with Horwitz et al.'s (1986) theory, adults' perceptions of the true self are challenged when a limited self is presented at any given moment in the foreign language.

The classroom atmosphere appeared to be another influencing variable from the students' responses. There was a common feeling that self-esteem and self-confidence in speaking can be achieved through a gradual process. For instance, one of the interviewees from FG2 recalled that she was not self-confident at the beginning of her oral class because she was doubtful about the attitude of her classmates and her teacher. This student went on to describe that at first she was forgetful and made a lot of mistakes. After some time, she began to feel sure and self-confident. She said: *'The atmosphere of the class pushes us to remember. When you are not at ease you forget ideas, you make many mistakes'*. Many other students shared that attitude.

We can deduce that the classroom atmosphere is important in building up students' self-confidence. The students can judge themselves positively and perform without fear. In some research studies (Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991), it has been suggested that learners with high self-esteem might handle their anxiety better

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than those with low self-esteem. Just as self-esteem can be situational, comments from FG2 suggest that situational self-confidence may have a different role with anxious language learners.

Interviewees' comments from FG1 revealed that students worry about speaking in front of the class due to fear of speaking and self-criticism (Table 3). Specifically, some interviewees felt frustrated when asked to speak. As one said, *'I worry about speaking a foreign language'*. It was apparent from other comments that some students developed negative beliefs that were potential sources of anxiety. One subject, for instance, brought up the notion of anxiety in speaking: *'I know that I'm not a good speaker and my English is bad. I do a lot of mistakes. I'm afraid when I speak English'*. Another said: *'Speaking makes me afraid and worried. I feel that I'm obliged to answer but I can't. So, this makes me worried. I'm not perfect'*. Expressions like 'I'm not a good speaker' and 'I'm not perfect' are possible indications of self-criticism that can lead to anxiety.

Table 3
Anxiety and speaking in front of the class: Focus group 1 (N=8)

CATEGORIES	NUMBER OF RESPONSES RECURRENCE
Fear of speaking a foreign language	1
Self-criticism	3
Fear of being ridiculed	4

It could be argued that being called on to speak unprepared in front of the class can increase anxiety when learners hold negative beliefs reflected as self-criticism. Perhaps this could sound like a good reason for what makes some low-ability students tongue-tied in their oral classes.

Several subjects referred to the fear of being ridiculed as another source of their embarrassment in speaking. Some subjects felt embarrassed at the beginning of their oral classes. They feared participation because of negative expectations. The subjects cited questions like *'How do they look at me?'* and *'What do they think about me?'* repeatedly when attempting to participate. One possible implication is that when learners have negative expectations of how others evaluate them, they would feel embarrassed. Such types of learners prefer to be silent rather than subject themselves to criticism or humiliation.

Perhaps this can be true since some participants had memories of stressful situations where they were ridiculed as one recalled, *'I feel embarrassed especially when my friends laugh at me'*. Another interviewee commented: *'I feel embarrassed speaking especially when I begin with a mistake'*.

For most of the subjects from FG2 (Table 4) being asked to speak and express personal opinions can reflect their personalities. As such, the fact of taking the risk of revealing personal views can lead to anxiety. One participant described that she was fearful when she failed to express herself fully or showed little of her knowledge, while another said: *'I worry about the way I'm presenting myself because our speaking reflects our personality'*. Another participant reported: *'I'm afraid of being misunderstood by the others'*. In addition to that, other interviewees were fearful of being misunderstood, especially by the teacher, as can be observed in the following comment made by one of the subjects: *'I'm sometimes not at ease. I could not express all my ideas. I'm afraid that other students would judge me negatively. I worry about the teacher'*.

It is possible that speaking unprepared can be stressful for learners who have the personal knowledge that they are revealing themselves in front of the class. This is justified by the fact that most of the oral classes include argumentation and discussion groups where learners are required to present personal views most of the time. As predicted in the literature, anxious students feel a deep self-consciousness when asked to risk revealing themselves by speaking the foreign language in the presence of other people (Horwitz et al., 1986). Accordingly, it is possible to evaluate this result in terms of the predictions put forward by MacIntyre and Gardner (1989). They have proposed that anxiety stems when language learners have mature thoughts and ideas but immature language vocabulary with which to express them.

Table 4
Anxiety and speaking in front of the class: Focus group 2 (N=8)

CATEGORIES	NUMBER OF RESPONSES RECURRENCE
Fear of being misunderstood	3
Lack of interest in speaking topics	1
Forced participation	1
Some negative beliefs	3

Several interviewees of FG2 denied that they would feel embarrassed about participation but others commented differently. Some participants reported that they felt embarrassed in speaking due to lack of interest, forced participation, and some negative beliefs. One student pointed out how she was frustrated when the topic did not interest her and said: *'I feel embarrassed when the topic doesn't interest me'*. This implies that students are unwilling to speak when they are disinterested or forced to participate. Another subject replied: *'I feel embarrassed when I find myself obliged to answer'*. Thus, there is an indication that forced participation can be problematic for students who are not ready to take risks in their oral classes. Some teachers may force students to participate while students are disinterested or fearful. The tendency to have some negative beliefs is of importance to us in accounting for the lack of voluntary classroom participation. One of the participants, for instance, reported that she was fearful about the attitude of her peers. She said: *'I feel always restricted and limited by the students'*. This negative attitude can be aggravated so that students avoid participation continuously. Such negative attitudes are possibly affected by students' fears of making mistakes in front of the class.

An example of this can be seen in the following comment: *'I feel embarrassed when answering in the classroom because I don't like mistakes. I avoid participation most of the time. I participate only when asked by the teacher'*.

Table 5
Anxiety in speaking and classroom interaction: Focus group 1 (N=8)

CATEGORIES	NUMBER OF RESPONSES RECURRENCE
Low ability level in EFL	6
Fear of the teacher	2

According to the interviewees of FG1, feelings of uneasiness and worry before speaking in the speaking class were related to low ability level in EFL and fear of the teacher (Table 5). Particularly, fear of speaking was attributed to vocabulary inadequacies, as one subject described it: *'I don't feel relaxed because when I begin to speak I don't find words. I think always about my English and how I can express ideas'*. Another added: *'Before speaking I'm not relaxed because I don't know all the words'*. Several subjects were aware that their low ability level was due to poor vocabulary, which affected their anxiety before speaking. Another interviewee, for instance, commented: *'I feel anxious before speaking in class because of my poor vocabulary. Since we are in the first year, it is difficult to speak. I feel anxious'*. Besides, the subjects of FG1 were also concerned about the attitude of their instructor, which played a significant role in the amount of anxiety they experienced. The following comment represents an opinion, which was shared by most of the participants: *'I don't feel relaxed before speaking never and ever. I don't know if I will speak very well or not. I think of the teacher. It depends on the teacher. When he looks at you as if you are making something wrong'*.

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There is an indication that instructors might increase students' anxiety in an oral class. We may also explain speaking class anxiety by the fact that some beginners perceive speaking as a threatening situation when the teacher intimidates them by correcting or criticising their performance.

Table 6
Anxiety in speaking and classroom interaction: Focus group 2 (N=8)

CATEGORIES	NUMBER OF RESPONSES RECURRENCE
Classroom atmosphere and peers' roles	5
Classroom atmosphere and teacher's role	3

As opposed to FG1 comments, responses from FG2 (Table 6) revealed that advanced students were less prone to anxiety in the speaking class. Most of the participants expressed feelings of easiness and relaxation before coming to the speaking class. Besides, interviewees spoke of the speaking class as their preferable class as one stated that he felt *'relaxed in the speaking class more than other classes'* and another added that he *'felt at ease before coming to the speaking class because speaking helps us to know each other'*.

Overall, it was apparent from the subjects' comments that the speaking class could be a non-threatening classroom as the class members get to know each other. *'When I come to the speaking class, I feel very relaxed. My classmates understand me'*, said one of the respondents to emphasise the importance of having a shared understanding between peers. Another interviewee pointed out the impact of peers' support in alleviating anxiety: *'I always feel relaxed when speaking in the class. Maybe the participation of my classmates makes me more relaxed. The atmosphere of the class is very friendly'*. It might be said accordingly that speaking anxiety can be reduced when peers build positive attitudes about the speaking class gradually.

Some other interviewees addressed the issue of the speaking class atmosphere as affected by the instructor's roles. One of the participants noted: *'I feel relaxed before coming to the speaking class because I know the atmosphere is good and I'm not going to be intimidated by the teacher'*. Contrastingly, anxiety in speaking can be high when students perceive every correction as a failure as other students described. For instance, one of the interviewees commented: *'If the teacher blames me or evaluates me negatively, I would hate their class. I would not feel at ease. I would feel anxious'*. Such comments are important to account for the instructors' role in lowering anxiety in speaking classes.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. EFL learners' self-esteem and self-confidence

The research outcomes showed that reduced self-esteem and reduced self-confidence can lead to considerable anxiety in speaking for most of the students. Our findings suggest that EFL speaking teachers may boost students' self-esteem and self-confidence by providing encouragement and positive reinforcement. Teachers can contribute to building students' self-esteem and self-confidence by drawing students' attention to their abilities and strengths (Dörnyei, 2001). Encouragement can explicitly make the learner aware of personal strengths and abilities, or it can indirectly communicate that we trust the person. Sometimes a small word of encouragement and positive reinforcement can create an atmosphere of security and trust for the anxious student (Dörnyei, 2001).

In the light of the findings of the present study, several students expressed the view that they would feel more confident if the teacher gave notice to everyone and when he or she understood the difficulties encountered by students. Helping students with necessary vocabulary appeared to increase students' self-esteem and self-confidence, especially low ability students. An increase in self-confidence and self-esteem may lead to increased learner effort in speaking. The students can participate in classroom discussions and continue to make their views understood when teachers provide necessary assistance.

5.2. Vocabulary practice

Based on the findings of this study, vocabulary practice is indicated to help learners overcome their difficulties in speaking. Having limited vocabulary knowledge contributed to students' anxieties. Therefore, more instructional effort has to be given to the teaching of vocabulary. Integrating vocabulary practice

'Based on the findings of this study, vocabulary practice is indicated to help learners overcome their difficulties in speaking. Having limited vocabulary knowledge contributed to students' anxieties. There-fore, more instructional effort has to be given to the teaching of vocabulary'

into the speaking skill instruction can be helpful for students who suffer language inadequacies in speaking the foreign language. Teachers may think of selecting some vocabulary activities to ensure that students encounter situations that are at an appropriate level of difficulty. In this way, the students get accustomed to having the teacher both provide the necessary vocabulary for speaking tasks and practising that vocabulary in meaningful contexts for more classroom interaction. Moreover, teachers may find it useful to present new vocabulary through a variety of word choices and contextual appropriateness.

5.3. Topics for speaking classes

Unfamiliar free topics are likely to increase students' frustration in speaking as revealed in the findings of this study. Most of the time, the topics for speaking classes are based on the teacher's choice, giving less consideration to students' background. Sometimes students are confronted with similar topics over the years of studying at university level. This instructional practice can generate boredom and lack of interest in students. Besides, they might be fearful when asked to speak about topics about which they have nothing to say. Free topics do not usually appeal to students of low ability levels because they require a certain degree of spontaneity and risk-taking. Therefore, if we decide to include free topics, they have to be relevant to the students' own lives and interests. Teachers of speaking could present students with different topics and design activities based on students' preferences and suggestions.

5.4. Time to formulate answers

Students might experience anxiety when having limited time to formulate answers. Allowing students to check their answers before giving them to the whole class could ease much of the tension experienced in speaking. Needing enough time is particularly interesting. Instead of expecting the students to perform directly in front of the whole class, speaking teachers may think of giving sufficient time to students to respond to compensate for their anxiety. However, giving too much time has the opposite effect on some students. Some students expressed great uneasiness and frustration when the teacher allotted more than the time needed to perform in the speaking class.

5.5. Calling on students in the EFL speaking class

Being called on to speak in front of the class could be an anxiety-provoking factor for some apprehensive EFL learners. Most of the time, teachers call on students randomly trying perhaps to keep them attentive or monitor their performance. This random questioning can cause great anxiety for highly anxious students. According to Daly (1991), the performance being sought is a verbal one and any failure in a speaking activity represents in the words of an apprehensive individual a nightmare experience. Letting students volunteer to participate or providing predictable participation patterns such as calling students row-by-row or seat-by-seat would decrease much of the tension raised by the randomness of the questioning in the speaking class.

5.6. Correcting errors in EFL speaking

The selection of speaking correction techniques should be based on reducing negative reactions in students. When the student is speaking in a large group, corrections should be made as tactfully as possible. Students tend to be more comfortable about speaking when they view the classroom as a place for learning and communication rather than as a place where they perform for the instructor (Price, 1991). Providing corrections and feedback on gradual basis would decrease much of the anxiety in EFL speaking. Ölmezer-Özturk (2021) studied the impact of a process enriched with mini speeches activities and presentations on EFL learners' speaking anxiety. The researcher found that scaffolded feedback was effective in reducing anxiety, increasing self-confidence, and getting more opportunities to speak the EFL.

During speaking classroom activities, it is advisable that teachers focus on the message the student is trying to communicate rather than on the accuracy of their grammar and pronunciation (Beebe, 1983). Since 'errorlessness' in speech is beyond reach, students need to be reminded of the value of making mistakes and how much they can learn from those mistakes. However, we do not advocate that EFL speaking teachers should tolerate any sort of mistakes. For some of the participants in the study, the teacher's manner in correcting mistakes was more influential than the corrections themselves. Students need a reaction to meaning not an evaluation of form (Beebe, 1983). It is suggested that providing the former would be more helpful to students to encourage risk-taking. We may cite Beebe's (1983) recommendation when she states that *'if students understand an exercise to be commutative, and they reveal personal views, they seek a substantive reaction from the teacher, not a correction of the technical accuracy of their words'* (Beebe, 1983, p. 61).

In the focus groups, some interviewees reported that sometimes they did not concentrate on the teacher's corrections. They focused their attention on the uncertainty involved in the act of communicating their views, not on the chance of making errors in syntax or pronunciation. So, it is up to the teacher to decide which corrections are more suitable for his or her learners.

5.7. Testing EFL speaking

Tests given orally can bring about test anxiety and communication anxiety. When testing speaking, teachers should not ignore affective factors that can influence students' performance. As pointed out by Phillips (1992), part of the students' anxiety maybe worry about appearing anxious. Realising that the teacher or the evaluator understands the tension caused by being anxious about appearing anxious reduces part of the learners' test anxiety.

5.8. Cooperation instead of competition

Another recommendation would be to include several cooperative activities. They would allow the anxious student to practise the target language in a small group. According to Crandall (1999), cooperative learning has been shown to encourage and support most of the affective factors, which correlate positively with language learning, such as reducing debilitating anxiety, increasing motivation, and promoting self-esteem. In large groups, the use of pair work, group work or cooperative activities can be helpful for anxious students. EFL speaking teachers can group students in groups of three or four to encourage all the members to participate and to benefit from multiple ideas. This practice allows for more face-to-face group interaction. Cooperative activities can provide learners with social skills that facilitate teamwork, create trust and enhance communication, leadership, problem-solving and decision making in group interaction (Crandall, 1999).

'In teaching EFL speaking, it is advisable to present students with models of successful interactional styles through exposure to natural dialogues, the use of video and audiotapes, films and TV programmes. The selection of materials has to be rationally based on situations and topics the learner is most likely to encounter in the real world'

5.9. Aspects of the target language culture

Providing exposure to successful interactional styles seems to be appealing to foreign language students (Scarcella, 1990). In teaching EFL speaking, it is advisable to present students with models of successful interactional styles through exposure to natural dialogues, the use of video and audiotapes, films and TV programmes. The selection of materials has to be rationally based on situations and topics the learner is most likely to encounter in the real world.

In an EFL context like ours where contact with the target language and its speakers is very rare outside formal settings, it is crucial to raise students' cultural awareness of EFL. Instead of limiting video sessions to literature and civilisation classes, we may increase and expand such sessions into videos about British and American lifestyles. In addition, speaking teachers can think of scheduling sessions based on interactions with native speakers both in natural communication and simulated conversations. One should note that the participants in this study expressed great willingness to converse with target language speakers. Such classroom practice can increase students' motivation to participate in the class and encourage apprehensive speakers to have active roles in classroom activities.

6. CONCLUSION

This paper discussed the major research findings of the qualitative study. It was shown that foreign language speaking anxiety could impede students' performance in various instances. The answers to the research questions further helped to clarify the role of anxiety in learning to speak a foreign language in the classroom.

The study has revealed that students, regardless of their ability levels, might be intimidated by numerous speaking anxiety-provoking situations, and possible sources of anxiety were identified. Low-ability students' speaking anxiety originated from limited vocabulary mastery, self-criticism, and teacher fear while high-ability students referred to fear of classmates' reactions, of being misunderstood, and classroom atmosphere as a whole. In the final part, ways to deal with anxiety were suggested, inspired both by existing EFL anxiety research and the findings of this study. Such ways included teacher's assistance in terms of providing relevant vocabulary, boosting self-esteem and self-confidence, selecting topics that appeal to students' interests, considering time devoted to speaking, reassuring anxious students when taking speaking tests, and raising awareness about the EFL culture. Though the study was carried out with a restricted group of students, it might be helpful in understanding some of the ways educators might possibly use to cope with EFL students' speaking anxiety.

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Original Research

Considering perspectives of others: A case study of intercultural learning among English language learners in Norway

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The concept of perspective is embedded within the studies of culture and language, especially with regard to an intercultural orientation within EFL teaching and learning. However, researchers have rarely explored how perspective taking can be facilitated among language learners and what types of tasks can facilitate this process. This paper describes a case study in which English as a foreign language (EFL) learners (aged 14-15) engaged in focus group interviews conducted at the end of an E-portfolio of Intercultural Competence (EPIC) project. By foregrounding perspective taking within intercultural awareness, the paper explores connections between types of tasks implemented and the ways participants considered perspectives of others in their focus group interviews. The findings thus have implications for language teaching as the results highlight the need to support the pupils through adapted activities with a greater focus on the awareness of diversity of perspectives, storytelling, reading picture books, and reflection on narrative accounts of past events. In addition, an understanding of the differences and comparing ways of living of people from diverse cultures should be coupled with support from the teacher, allowing the learners to decentre from their perspectives.

KEYWORDS: *perspective taking, perspective consciousness, intercultural awareness, EFL, e-portfolio, language learning, intercultural learning*

1. INTRODUCTION

Foreign language teaching increasingly focuses on the interplay between languages and cultures as sites of interaction and learning. An intercultural orientation within language teaching seeks learners' transformation through a constant referencing of the language being learned with their own language(s) and culture(s) with the aim of encouraging students to decentre from their linguistic and cultural world to consider their own situatedness from the perspective of another (Scarino, 2010, p. 324). The intercultural orientation to teaching languages revolves around an overarching educational goal, i.e., intercultural competence which generally requires that cognitive, affective and behavioural processes are at work and sustain an individual's understanding of diversity and interaction within intercultural encounters (Borghetti, 2011).

One way to 'decentre' (Scarino, 2010, p. 324) is to gain insights about alternative or unfamiliar perspectives. This can be done through the process which is referred to here as 'perspective taking' (PT). Perspective taking is the *'projection of oneself into another or unfamiliar frame of reference'* (Kearney, 2015, p. 170), which might lead to the acknowledgement that other

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'Intercultural awareness implies the ability to take on the perspective(s) of a conversational partner and of their cultural background (whether they be national, regional, ethnic, or social), and thus, to be able to understand and take into consideration the interlocutors' perspectives simultaneously'

ways of understanding the world do exist and are worth considering or at least recognising (Thein et al., 2007, p. 55). Therefore, gaining new perspectives of other people is tied to the insight that one's own culture can appear to be 'odd' to an outsider (Broady, 2004, p. 69; Pshenichnyuk, 2021). Thus, PT is linked to the recognition of the diversity of perspectives, or 'perspective consciousness' (Tseng, 2002). Perspective consciousness is viewed in this study as the recognition of 'the malleability', or the diversity of perspective (Hanvey, 1982, p. 162).

Existing research suggests that perspective taking means that students not only need knowledge, but also skills (e.g., of identification, interpretation) that allow them to recognise perspectives (Kearney, 2012). Consequently, PT is closely tied with the concept of cultural awareness, which emphasises not information about a culture but skills in exploring, observing, and understanding difference and sameness (Broady, 2004). As stated by Broady (2004), central to this is the willingness to explore the ways in which normality is experienced differently by different people. Tomlinson (2019) uses the concept of intercultural awareness (ICA) to refer to similar conceptions. The term 'intercultural' has gradually replaced the term 'cultural' in foreign language and teaching, therefore, in this study, CA and ICA are not assumed to be mutually exclusive as these processes are to a large extent intertwined and often complementary in praxis (see Borghetti & Lertola, 2014, p. 425). In this paper, intercultural awareness has been used as a theoretical and methodological starting point. Intercultural awareness implies the ability to take on the perspective(s) of a conversational partner and of their cultural background (whether they be national, regional, ethnic, or social), and thus, to be able to understand and take into consideration the interlocutors' perspectives simultaneously.

There has been a growing interest in investigating the benefits of trying out diverse perspectives (see Dypedahl, 2020; Kearney, 2012; Thein et al., 2007; Kopnina & Magirovskaya, 2019). However, despite this attention to PT, researchers have rarely explored what triggers this process and how the process of PT is induced among language learners. In order to address this, the present study explores manifestations of PT that emerge in focus group interviews in response to an e-portfolio-based intervention project specifically designed to facilitate PT. The following research question guided the analysis: how do the pupils consider the perspectives of others when reflecting on the EPIC entries in focus group interviews?

The current English curriculum in Norway calls for developing an intercultural understanding of different ways of living, ways of thinking and communication patterns. Thus, by recognising the relationship between PT and intercultural understanding in the EFL context, this study contributes to further understanding of how pupils can be supported in their building of awareness of 'different ways of living' through their practices at school.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A common understanding is that perspective is *'what frames and defines our vision of reality and the meaning we give to it'* (Giorgis, 2018, p. 34). PT thus starts from the premise that people inhabit a perspectival world, shaped by communication and shared histories (Glăveanu & De Saint-Laurent, 2018). Consequently, to take the perspective of someone whose position we never get to experience is a challenge. Hence, the lack of PT can become a stumbling block in all kinds of interactions, as the tendency of people to impose their frames onto others leads to increased misunderstanding (Friedman, 2014).

PT rarely occurs automatically; it should be facilitated and explicitly activated (Muradova, 2021). The potential for practising PT has been explored within different educational contexts and frameworks (see Hoyt, 2016; Kearney, 2015). Within the intercultural context, much work has been published to operationalise this concept in the classrooms with adults or university students. For example, Hoyt (2016) employed image-based activities with fifty students across three semesters at an American university. She examined the data through the lens of Byram's (1997) five domains of intercultural competence (IC) and used it as a framework to identify change in the development of students' IC. Both quantitative and qualitative data taken from ethnographic interviews and journal entries point to knowledge and skills associated with PT. However, Hoyt mostly related her findings to the participants' self-reported perceptions as indicated in pre- and post-questionnaires not particularly highlighting the link to the ethnographic interview project itself.

A number of studies have exploited Kramsch's (1993, 2006) theoretical framework and the notions of *third place* and *symbolic competence*. *Third place* refers to a context or a way of teaching and learning primarily based on the notion of culture as an interpersonal process to understand otherness. The concept of *symbolic competence* is viewed as the ability to shape the very context in which language is learned and used (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2008, p. 664), which potentially leads to distancing from both the home and the target culture. In a study building on previous research into symbolic competence, Étienne and Vanbaelen (2017) introduced a Semiotic Gap Activity to French students in order to examine how they constructed meanings when watching a scene in a film. Based on answers from a post-viewing questionnaire and the instructor's notes, the findings showed the students' awareness of their own perspective and perspectives of others was enhanced. The participants moderated their own perspectives, deliberately taking the position of an observer (i.e., trying to see oneself as others do) (Étienne & Vanbaelen, 2017, p. 74).

A study by Kearney (2012) integrated both symbolic competence and critical literacy postulates (Lewison et al., 2002). Fourteen university-level learners of French were engaged in PT activities through texts of various cultural narratives related to WWII in France. The study focused on the learners' reflections on historical narratives, which provided a productive avenue for creating links with the students' personal lives or larger social questions (e.g., social inequality). The students displayed their willingness not simply to interpret others' meanings but to create meanings on their own (Kearney, 2012). Kearney (2015) calls for more studies showing how various pedagogical approaches can facilitate growth of personal meaning-making potentials among learners.

Other people's perspectives can be presented to learners by utilising literature in a foreign language class (see Vovou, 2019). PT, particularly as reconstructed in narrative, is one way of de-familiarising what we know, and, hence, providing new understandings. In a study of the use of multicultural literature with white EFL students, Thein et al. (2007) prompted eleventh- and twelfth-grade students from an urban high school to take on alternative perspectives by, for example, writing a letter to the class in the voice of one of the characters of a novel or constructing different versions of the same events based on differences in beliefs, experience, and age. The participants were able to see that our beliefs and perspectives arise from the historical, social, and cultural worlds in which we grow up and live (Thein et al., 2007, p. 57).

'A common understanding is that perspective is 'what frames and defines our vision of reality and the meaning we give to it' (Giorgis, 2018, p. 34). PT thus starts from the premise that people inhabit a perspectival world, shaped by communication and shared histories (Glăveanu & De Saint-Laurent, 2018)'

Despite a growing interest in studying taking the perspectives of others within (and outside of) the field of intercultural foreign language education, this topic has received only limited scholarly attention in the Norwegian educational context. Heggernes (2019) looked at how EFL learners at a lower secondary school engage with reading picture books through a dialogic approach aimed to enhance intercultural learning and PT skills. In another study, Normand and Savić (2018) focus on the use of process drama in EFL teacher education, aimed at increasing future teachers' ability to decentre and see multiple perspectives as a result of deeper reflection about their own and other people's feelings and perspectives.

There are numerous attempts to conceptualise and categorise ways of *taking* the perspectives of others. One categorisation is based on four types of commitment (or focus). Glăveanu and De Saint-Laurent (2018), who analysed online discussions in terms of the perspectives of refugees, propose Commitment to Similarity, Commitment to Difference, Commitment to Persons, and Commitment to Situations. In the present study, two main types of focus are adapted to the data, namely, Commitment to Difference and Commitment to Similarity. The former designates taking perspectives from the outside, building on existing representations of others without the possibility of position exchange because of a clear separation between self and other. The latter refers to perspectives taken from an inside position, a type of identification facilitated by imaginative efforts to approximate the other's experience of the world (Glăveanu et al., 2018, p. 446).

To sum up, while previous research has investigated the role of PT in relation to ICA, it is not certain how language learners perceive these experiences. Most of the studies cited above foreground either Byram's (1997) model of IC or Kramsch's (1993) theoretical framework. The present study responds to the need to provide an empirically driven approach by designing a classroom intervention which foregrounds PT within intercultural awareness and provides an in-depth insight into how PT unfolds when engaging with specifically designed e-portfolio entries with a focus on the language learners' group discussions about these entries. Additionally, this study adds the Norwegian setting into the growing field of intercultural studies.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. The study

The present research is an exploratory case study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) based on a pedagogical intervention involving the implementation of e-portfolio entries within the English language instruction programme. During the eight-week study, three EFL teachers implemented the e-portfolio of Intercultural Competence (EPIC) in their five EFL classrooms in a lower secondary school on the west coast of Norway. The pedagogical foundations of the EPIC project are grounded in constructivism, which suggests that gaining knowledge is a continuous interactional process in which the learners acquire knowledge in their own subjective ways and by means of tacit, meaning-making processes (Taber, 2011). Practices related to intercultural teaching and learning within this approach relate to a shift from teaching a static culture as isolated facts to developing in learners a capacity to engage with the perspectives of others always in relation to their own (Liddicoat et al., 2003, p. 43). The purpose behind the EPIC was thus to promote self-awareness, awareness of others, and perspective taking. Specifically, the present study explores the participants' reflections prompted by seven EPIC entries in focus group interviews following the project. Figure 1 gives an overview of the timeline and the main data collection instruments of the study.

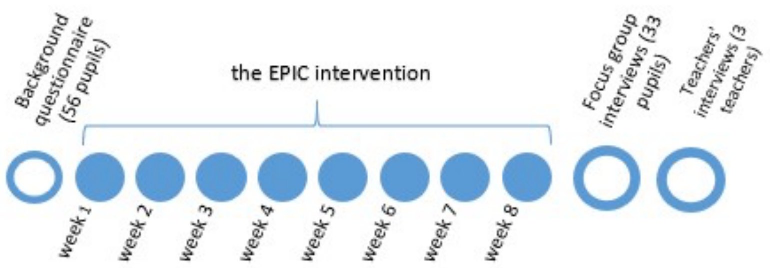

Figure 1. The study timeline

The pupils spent two 1.5-hour class periods per week over an eight-week period on the project. All the participants used iPads and G-Suite (free online Google Classroom application). The latter was used to distribute the EPIC entries.

3.2. The participants and context of the study

A convenience sample consisting of 33 EFL learners (23 girls and 10 boys) participated in focus group interviews. Based on the discussion with the teachers and due to time constraints, it was decided to conduct five focus group interviews (one group per class). The groups consisted of 6-7 pupils. Four participants out of 33 were born outside of Norway. As reported by the teachers, the expected English proficiency level of the participants was ranged between A2 and B2 (CEFR, 2018). That is why the pupils were given an option to use either English or Norwegian in the focus group discussions when they felt Norwegian would help them to express themselves better.

3.3. Focus group interviews

This study draws on data collected from five focus group interviews with 33 pupils who had consented to participate. The focus group interview as the main method for eliciting information was chosen to access more varied interpretations of the phenomena under study and identify links between the EPIC and the way the participants considered perspectives of others. In addition, focus groups were considered less threatening for young participants than individual interviews (Eder & Fingerson, 2002, p. 183). Finally, the interactions in

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groups closely mirror classroom interaction, which may increase their willingness to communicate and share their viewpoints.

Seven EPIC entries (*Sunglasses Story, Fractured Fairy Tales, If I Were… I'd Be…, Interview Room, This Is How We Do It, History Corner,* and *The Other Side*), all specifically designed to enhance PT, served as prompts for discussion during the focus group interviews (see Appendix for more details). The interviews were semi-structured, the exact formulations of questions varied (for the interview guide, see Appendix). Based on their relevance to promoting perspective taking, two main parts of the focus group interviews were included in the data set: Self and Others, and Perspective Taking. In total, 209 minutes of audio recordings were transcribed, of which 85.5 minutes, covering the two parts described above (41.5 minutes related to Self and Others and 44 minutes related to Perspective Taking), comprise the data for the current study.

3.4. Ethical considerations and the role of the researcher

Data gathering adhered to strict ethical procedures and written consent was collected from the three teachers, pupils, and parents, since not all the participants were over the age of 15. The researcher anonymised the data by changing each participant's real name to a pseudonym. In addition, as the interviews were recorded, the researcher tried to lead the discussion over to a different topic when instances of revealing personal information occurred, which may have led to inconsistencies across the interviews. Furthermore, as the focus of the study is on how individuals interpreted their experiences and understandings with respect to perspective taking, this research was guided by the principles of interpretivism, namely, social inquiry that derives knowledge from the interpretation of lived experiences of individuals. Correspondingly, the researcher recognises the subjectivity of her interpretations. The researcher alternated the roles of an informed outsider and participant observer (Woodin, 2016) as, on the one hand, she was not a member of teaching staff and, on the other hand, she had observed the instruction and therefore talked to the pupils during the EPIC project. In the analysis, the researcher acknowledges this dual role as well as the unequal power relations between the adult and minor (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3.5. Data analysis

Focus group interviews were analysed following thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), by using a qualitative data analysis software, NVivo 12 Pro (version 12.6.0.959). NVivo was utilised in order to search for patterns, generate initial codes and sort the codes and categories into potential themes. In the software, interviews were transcribed, cases created for each participant and for each group. Code labels were displayed in various colours which delineate which portion of data is assigned a particular code. However, the software 'does not actually code the data' (Saldaña, 2016); therefore, the researcher is still the driving force behind the analysis. Overall, the analysis process was guided by the six phases outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006): familiarisation; coding; generating initial themes; reviewing themes; defining and naming themes and writing up. All the instances where a pupil both (a) considers the perspectives of others and (b) reflects on the EPIC entries were coded. The codes related to utterances where the participants projected themselves into another or unfamiliar frame of reference were grouped under the sub-theme Specific PT (e.g., one of the codes was 'activating PT'). The utterances where pupils took a general, or an outsider, perspective of the situation and did not actively take or consider perspectives of others were grouped under the General PT theme. The codes under General PT included 'awareness of stereotypes', 'meaning-making', and 'conflict resolution'. Codes related to the enhanced awareness of the diversity of perspectives were grouped under the theme of Perspective Consciousness (PC). All coded instances referring to 'awareness of differences' and 'awareness of similarities' were labelled as Commitment to Similarity and Commitment to Difference themes. Table 1 shows a detailed overview of the final themes, their description and example quotes. The information in the example quotes included the pupil's name, group (FGI) and the EPIC entry.

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Table 1
Final themes and example quotes

THEME	SUB-THEME	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE QUOTE
Perspective Taking	Specific Perspective Taking (Specific PT)	Projection of oneself into another or unfamiliar frame of reference (Kearney, 2015, p. 170), hence, taking a situation-specific perspective	*'I guess I don't think I would have called the police'* (Seline, Group 4, History Corner)
	General Perspective Taking (General PT)	A pupil takes a general, or an outsider, perspective of the situation	*'You can't only hear one point of view, because that's not all true'* (Christina, Group 5, History Corner)
Perspective Consciousness		Recognition that one has a view of the world that is not universally shared and that others have views of the world that can be different from one's own (Tseng, 2002), i.e., the awareness of the diversity of perspective	*'Even though somebody thinks that she did the right thing, somebody thinks that she did the wrong thing, there were many ways to see it'* (Ella, Group 2, History Corner)
Commitment to Difference		Recognition of the opposition between self and other (Glăveanu & De Saint-Laurent, 2018)	*'The music is different, food is different, um, and yeah, pretty much everything is different'* (Frida, Group 1, Interview Room)
Commitment to Similarity		Recognition of the likeness between the self and other (Glăveanu & De Saint-Laurent, 2018)	*'That colour doesn't matter, I guess. People are completely just like you'* (Arne, Group 5, The Other Side)

At the end of the coding process, all the themes were grouped in accordance with the EPIC entries they refer to. The following sections will describe the occurrences and frequencies of the themes found divided into two subsections: (a) a sub-section on PT and PC themes; (b) a sub-section on Commitment to Similarity and Commitment to Difference themes.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Perspective taking/Perspective consciousness

The analysis of all five focus group interviews yielded 46 instances (Table 2). The most recurrent theme across all groups was PC (n=17), followed by General PT (n=6), Commitment to Similarity (CSim) (n=10) and Commitment to Difference (CDif) (n=10). Specific PT is represented by 3 instances.

Most pupils considered the perspectives of others through PC (n= 17). Table 3 shows that the numbers of identified manifestations of PT (General PT and Specific PT) and PC across the EPIC entries are varied, and most opportunities for perspective taking are concentrated under the entry History Corner (n=14). As for This Is How We Do It and The Other Side, the entries based on reading picture books, no manifestations of PC or PT were identified.

When reflecting on the Sunglasses Story, the participants were prompted to reflect on a metaphorical story described by Berardo and Deardorff (2012) (see Appendix for a short summary). Siri recognises a personal prism through which she tends to see things: *'And yeah, you get kind of the perspective of the world from both points of view. Yeah. And I think that is really important because I usually tend to only see… see things from my own point of view especially in arguments. And I really want to stand my ground, but I have to remember that the story is not the same for everyone'* (Siri, Group 2). Siri's emotional expression is boosted as she uses a personal pronoun *I*, and intensifiers such as *really*. Even

Table 2
Frequencies within the dataset

GROUP	THEME					TOTAL
	PT		PC	CDIF	CSIM	
	SPECIFIC PT	GENERAL PT				
1	1	1	3	2	3	10
2	0	3	6	3	5	17
3	0	0	3	3	0	6
4	1	1	2	0	0	4
5	1	1	3	2	2	9
TOTAL	3	6	17	10	10	46

Table 3
A quantitative overview of the PT and PC themes across all the EPIC entries and focus group interviews

THEME	SUNGLASSES STORY	FRACTURED FAIRY TALE	INTERVIEW ROOM	THIS IS HOW WE DO IT	IF I WERE… I'D BE…	HISTORY CORNER	THE OTHER SIDE	TOTAL
SPT	–	–	–	–	–	3	–	3
GPT	–	2	1	–	–	3	–	6
PC	3	2	1	–	3	8	–	17
TOTAL	3	4	2	0	3	14	0	26

without an active projection of herself into an unfamiliar frame of reference, Siri makes her personal involvement with the prompt explicit and adds self-evaluation to what she has just learned.

When reflecting on the Fractured Fairy Tale entry, the pupils demonstrated a recognition of multiple perspectives and the existence of two sides of the story. This entry, included in the project in the form of a written assignment, asks the pupils to write a fairy tale or any other popular story from somebody else's perspective by changing the traditional plot, characters, etc. Hilde, for instance, reflects in the following way: *'A story always has two sides'* (Hilde, Group 3). The two coded instances based on this entry are related to PC, whereas the other two relate to General PT.

The entry If I Were… I'd Be… is one of the tasks which provided the pupils with the opportunities to reflect on PC and ways they perceive their own culture and language through the lens of personal filters and metaphors (see Appendix). A few of the pupils displayed the increased awareness of stereotypes and bias. For example, Sonja concludes that people tend to think stereotypically, which in turn may lead to oversimplification of another culture. She says: *'We just see things based on stereotypes, and therefore it might not be as accurate. It's only the things we see. Like when we think of America, we think of McDonalds, all the guns and Donald Trump and stuff, but America is much more than that'* (Sonja, Group 2).

Rosa Parks' story (History Corner) resonated with many pupils as there were a few comments when the pupils gained deeper insights regarding multiple perspectives on the same event. In the e-portfolio, they were provided with different accounts of the famous incident that happened to Rosa Parks on a bus in 1955, when she refused to give up her seat to a white man. They were asked to identify each of the voices and describe their personalities as they read the narratives of the bus driver, a white passenger, an African American passenger, Rosa Parks and Martin Luther King. During the focus group interview, they were asked to reflect on the merits of PT. Arne summarises his opinion about the entry in the following way*: ‘Because now blacks and whites are equal in rights. But back in there that was different, so I would probably think differently*’ (Arne, Group 5). *‘I think in a way all that Rosa Parks did is right because she has just as much worth as the white man. Back in the day it was legal the white people should sit in front and the black in the back’* (Arne, Group 5). Arne emphasises the difficult decision-making processes caused by what was legal ‘back in that day’, hence, acknowledging the importance of context when decentring from a single perspective on the same event. Christina says*: ‘Because you can’t only hear one point of view. And, because that’s not all true’* (Christina, Group 5). For learners in Norway, the Montgomery Bus Boycott was quite distant in time and space and introducing various viewpoints (even imaginary ones) proved beneficial for the pupils.

The analysis identifies three instances of the Specific PT theme, all related to the History Corner entry. The task enabled the pupils not only to expand their awareness of the multiplicity of perspectives, but also project their own perspectives towards the possible stances of others. For example, Christina argues: *‘I think I would do as the bus driver did in this story when he called the police. Because I would follow the law so it wouldn’t be much trouble’* (Christina, Group 5). Christina gives the reasons for why they acted in a particular way. Seline, on the contrary, when identifying with the other’s actions, says: *‘I’m not sure… I guess I don’t think I would have called the police but maybe he felt like he had to’* (Seline, Group 4). Seline adopts the bus driver’s perspective and considers what she would do if placed in his situation and expresses her disagreement with his actions. The ways in which these instances revealed the signs of Specific PT thus vary from the capacity to relate to the context bus driver lived in (Christina’s comment) to trying to be sensitive to his feelings and actions even though disagreeing with them (Seline’s comment).

The third coded instance was drawn from a conversation about the learning outcomes of the History Corner in Group 1. The researcher draws attention of the participants to the variety of viewpoints of those partaking in the Montgomery Bus Boycott. The rest of the dialogue is provided in Excerpt 1 below (Figure 2).

Christian: *The rules say that she was supposed to stand in the back, but I think it’s wrong because...even though she’s black it doesn’t mean she’s different and the bus driver calling the cops it was his job, and he was supposed to do it but (1.1) like... I think the rules were wrong not the people.*
Frida: *If he was born then... I don’t think that he would think the same. So... it was maybe normal at that time.*
Christian: *Yeah, at that time it was normal.*
Frida: *There were stories from that time. Maybe we don’t know but in our time from our perspective, it is different.*
Christian: *If this has happened now?*
R.: *Yeah.*
Christian: *Then I think the black woman was right that she could sit where she wanted.*

Figure 2. Excerpt 1, Group 1

Christian points out that ‘the rules’ of that time were wrong, ‘not the people’ (line 4). Then Frida questions Christian’s point of view and doubts that he would think the same if he was born ‘then’ (lines 5-6). Thus, Frida’s comment shows how decentring one perspective can serve as a tool for meaning making when she de-familiarises what she knows, hence, gaining deeper insights (Boland & Tenkasi, 1995). Frida adds an argument which reflects her perspective (lines 8-9). In his last contribution, Christian re-frames what had been said and attempts to construct a perspective from ‘our time’ (i.e., from his perspective) (lines 10, 12).

Summing up, the data above suggests that the PT skills of pupils were activated when reflecting on the EPIC entries (in particular, History Corner, Fractured Fairy Tale, Sunglasses Story, and If I Were… I’d Be…). Excerpt 1 illustrates the pupils’ projection into an unfamiliar frame of reference from either contrasting *now* and *then* (Christian) or becoming aware that other perspectives do exist, and they may be different in many ways depending on the context (Frida). More importantly, the pupils managed to recognise that their view of the world may be not universally shared, even within the focus group (Tseng, 2002, p.12).

Table 4
A quantitative overview of the CDif and CSim themes across all the prompts and focus group interviews

THEME	SUNGLASSES STORY	FRACTURED FAIRY TALE	INTERVIEW ROOM	THIS IS HOW WE DO IT	IF I WERE… I'D BE…	HISTORY CORNER	THE OTHER SIDE	TOTAL
CDIF	1	–	4	5	–	–	–	10
CSIM	1	–	3	1	–	1	4	10
TOTAL	2	0	7	6	0	1	4	20

4.2. Commitment to similarity/difference

When it comes to the themes of Commitment to Similarity (CSim) and Commitment to Difference (CDif), they were identified in five EPIC entries out of seven (Table 4). Even though the themes are not evenly distributed across the groups, they reveal some common tendencies.

In This Is How We Do It, inspired by a picture book by Lamothe (2019), the pupils are asked to discuss images representing days in the lives of seven children coming from seven different backgrounds (see Appendix for more details). In the focus group interview, the researcher asked open-ended questions about whether the participants found any differences and similarities between their daily routines and those of the kids from the book and what they had learned from the entry. The following example shows CDif as related to this entry: *'I choose her [showing one of the kids from the image depicting the main characters from the book This Is How We Do It, see Appendix], we didn't have a lot in common. So... Maybe it's because I live in Norway and she lives in Uganda'* (Christina, Group 5).

Christina concludes that her daily routines do not have a lot in common with those of a girl from Uganda, hence, reinforcing the differences based on the fact that they live in different countries. This entry tended to navigate her towards knowing the Other, rather than a willingness to engage with and consider the perspectives of the Other. The former usually implies stereotyping and falls within cultural knowledge, which is likely to be reduced (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004, p. 7). In total, five out of ten instances of CDif are drawn from this entry, all of which are characterised by the danger of reinforcing stereotypes through activity design when emphasising one cultural dimension (a national one).

As for the Commitment to Similarity theme, ten instances signified the participants' focus on and appreciation of similarities between people. For example, The Other Side, History Corner, and Sunglasses Story entries seem to enable the pupils to reflect on the issue of similarity related to how they viewed the issue of race, in particular skin colour. The Other Side is a picture book by Jacqueline Woodson (2011) which invites the pupils to read a story about the friendship between a black girl and a white girl. The entry is used as a resource to introduce learners in the acceptance of the Others and the existence of the diversity emphasising values of respect and tolerance. Tina, for instance, highlights that skin colour does not have any particular importance for kids, who, unlike adults, value people regardless their skin colour: *'It [picture of a fence] shows that kids are just kids, and they not really get involved or like know about adult issues. So they just see like humans, they don't see race'* (Tina, Group 2).

Two of ten coded instances relate to the ways the pupils display a more complex understanding of the interplay between difference and similarity existing in the world. A few pupils demonstrated that things are not only black and white and often the others cannot be characterised by either difference, or similarity. The following excerpt (see Figure 3) illustrating the above statement is taken from Group 2's discussion about the EPIC entry Interview Room. In this entry, the pupils were asked to interview a person from a different background and compare his or her daily routines and interests with their own. In the interaction below, the researcher prompts the pupils to reflect on their experiences. This episode begins when Nicole comments on the importance to learn from and about others and not to have prejudiced representations about another national group (lines 1-6).

By representing two cultures (Norwegian and Brazilian) as reduced to national groups, Nicole first fails to deconstruct stereotypes and value cultural diversity within these groups (lines 13-14). The researcher's impromptu questions on the perceptions of similarities

Nicole: I think it's useful to know that not everybody like, not every culture is the same... because some people are like closed-minded, they only like their own culture, like they think stereotypically about other people, like if you are from there you only do this and only do this, right? But when you get to ask people from that... came from another culture, about their culture, you learn more about people around you and then just, yeah.

R.: Hm...yes

Sonja: I agree. Because when you talk to someone who is actually from that country and are part of that culture, you get a less stereotypical point of view and, yeah, you get more accurate description of what a normal (.) for example, Brazil.

R.: Yeah, and have you found any similarities or differences if you think about it? {} What have you noticed?

Nicole: Uhm... I think like the Brazilian culture and Norwegian culture are quite different. There are some bad things about the Brazilian culture, but also in Norwegian, of course, but... ehm I've noticed that there were actually... like not a lot of differences, but enough differences to...for it to be significant.

Eva: Yeah, I did that task and I found that even though we eat different food and go to different schools, and live in different countries, we share a lot of the same interests and like... we both like to hang out with our friends, we both are interested in our futures, yeah.

Tina: I think I would definitely think about the similarities because that's where you find common ground and... like can develop relationship, like friend relationship.

Sonja: I believe that both are pretty important because you should not get too caught up in the differences and distance yourself too much from the culture, but you also have to remember that there are differences, and you have to respect those differences. And... yeah, I think that it's a little bit of both together.

Nicole: Yes, I agree with Sonja with that... that you have to respect cultures. For example, when you travel, it's kind of important to know like (1.2) uhm... that in some other countries there are things that are bad there that aren't bad in Norway... so you have to like before you travel sometimes you have to learn a bit about, about the culture so you don't disrespect people without knowing.

Figure 3. Excerpt 2, Group 2

and differences between one's own and the target person's background might have influenced this (lines 11-12) as the discussion moves towards the compare and contrast ability. Recognising similarities and differences might be challenging, but it may also stimulate learners' perspectives and cultural awareness (Broady, 2004; Tomlinson, 2019). Eva builds on Nicole's comments that the cultures (Norwegian and Brazilian) were quite different, but she also displays an enhanced awareness of complexities when she argues that on the surface people may look different but when it comes to interests or the 'futures' [sic] (lines 17-20), they seem to share a lot. Tina agrees with Eva by recognising the importance of building mutual understanding through recognising similarities (lines 21-22). In her next turn, Sonja emphasises that differences might cause distances between self and other (line 24). At the end of this extract, Nicole rounds off the conversation by saying that respect and willingness to learn from each other are two interrelated things. In this conversation, one can see that the pupils' fixed beliefs about others based on national differences appear to be significant as there is still a lot of implicit essentialising. However, discussing them with peers offers opportunities for the pupils to learn from each other and decentre from their perspectives and opinions. Through this excerpt it is possible to see how the group of pupils modify their perspectives through group discussions with the researcher and peers.

Summing up, most of the coded instances related to CDif and CSim are attributed to the two entries, namely, Interview Room and This Is How We Do It both of which deal with comparing and contrasting daily routines of one's own and those of another person from a different cultural group. However, the data shows that even though there is an emphasis on national cultures in the pupils' comments, the pupils' discussions are characterised by a dialogical perspective on difference (as opposed to seeing difference as a problem) (Xu, 2013) (Excerpt 2). Undoubtedly, the way the researcher guided conversations may have influenced the ways the pupils responded. Consequently, the teacher's role in a classroom does have an influence on how the learners discuss and consider the perspectives of others.

In conclusion, several patterns emerge from the data which seem to provide insights into how the pupils considered perspectives of others when reflecting on the EPIC entries. When reflecting on the entries dealing with interviewing other people, comparing the routines and ways of living of people from different cultures (namely, Interview Room, This Is How We Do It), the pupils' focus on differences or similarities is mostly grounded in an emphasis on national cultures. However, even in such cases, other pupils challenged such opinions through dialogue. For example, in Excerpt 2, Nicole reflects upon her own monolithic views on culture, which in turn forms the foundation for more open dialogue with others. On the other hand, reflections on such entries as Fractured Fairy Tale, History Corner, Sunglasses Story trigger perspective consciousness and perspective taking among the pupils. Even though the opportunities for PT were less frequent as compared to PC, the pupils in their focus group interviews decentre from one's own perspective and relativise the notion of difference.

5. DISCUSSION

The thematic analysis of the data reveals several major ways in which the pupils considered perspectives of others. First, perspective consciousness is the most recurrent theme within the dataset. History Corner, Sunglasses Story, If I Were… I'd Be…, and Fractured Fairy Tales are among the EPIC entries which have given the pupils opportunities to discuss the issues related to the diversity of perspectives. Three of the EPIC entries (History Corner, Sunglasses Story, and Fractured Fairy Tales) highlight the complexity of narrative realities and provide the foundations for recognising a multiplicity of perspectives. Many studies have proposed the importance of storytelling, or narrative experiences, as an important tool for encouraging the process of perspective taking and intercultural awareness in general (Andenoro et al., 2012; Sell, 2017). The entries implemented in the EPIC provided the pupils with the opportunities to get 'a deepened sense of perspective' (Andenoro et al., 2012, p. 106) through telling and retelling the same story.

Secondly, the three instances of Specific PT (when the pupils constructed the perspectives of others) show that discussing a historical event can and should be presented from a number of different – and often conflicting – voices (Dypedahl, 2020). On the one hand, tasks involving accounts of well-known past events can enable learners to realise how people's perspectives may change depending on the context. The current data echoes the findings from Kearney (2015) and Thein et al. (2007), who indicated that narratives and fiction texts which represent unfamiliar and 'distant' voices (Kearney, 2012, p. 59) can make it possible for students to revise their perspectives and explore how our perspectives arise from the worlds we live in. On the other hand, by showing different reports of historical events and news items, classroom work can contribute to decentring discourse by problematising fundamental concepts like democracy and human rights. While nationality, ethnicity and skin colour may have an impact on how people react to a particular event, there are other markers of identity which influence it (Hoff, 2020). As Hoff (2020) argues, the rationale behind people's responses is varied and may be highly personal. Thus, including a range of diverse responses to and reflections on historical events and discussing them from the current standpoint can potentially provide a platform for intercultural learning.

Finally, as illustrated in Excerpt 2 and shown across the database, inconsistencies and controversies in the pupils' manifestations of PT suggest that the process of considering perspectives of others in the EFL classroom setting is complex and nuanced. Some of the pupils displayed both perspective consciousness coupled with instances of intercultural awareness and formulated stereotyping based on static beliefs (as in Excerpt 2). For instance, Nicole's comments indicate her monolithic view on culture combined with the suspension of previous beliefs and willingness to deconstruct stereotypes. These findings accord with the study conducted by Étienne and Vanbaelen (2017), which showed a mix of ethnocentrism and emerging ethnorelativism among their participants, as they saw differences that they still tended to essentialise instead of exploring and taking into account the foreign context in itself. However, occasionally, the participants from the study revealed more nuanced interpretations, moving towards more fluid interpretations and positionings. In the current study, Sonja and Eva pinpoint that approaching otherness could happen through appreciating and respecting both difference and sameness. Such pupils' comments

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'The data presented above highlights the insights of lower secondary school pupils regarding the perspectives of others through the lens of an intercultural orientation to language learning. It has been shown that realisations of PT in the classroom are complex and varied, and the ways the pupils considered the perspectives of others are often contingent on the type of the entry they discuss. Thus, decisions FL teachers make about planning and designing classroom activities are crucial to success'

serve as an illustration of an argument expressed by Sell (2017) that intercultural understanding is a balancing act between searching for similarities and realising differences. Overall, considering the perspectives of others in the EFL classroom can be organised around activities purposefully designed around PT, moreover, they can be facilitated by classroom dialogues mediated by the teacher.

6. CONCLUSION

The data presented above highlights the insights of lower secondary school pupils regarding the perspectives of others through the lens of an intercultural orientation to language learning (Borghetti, 2011; Scarino, 2010). It has been shown that realisations of PT in the classroom are complex and varied, and the ways the pupils considered the perspectives of others are often contingent on the type of the entry they discuss. Thus, decisions FL teachers make about planning and designing classroom activities are crucial to success.

As for the limitations, the tendency of this age group to respect authority (Alter, 2015) could have influenced the results of the study. It should be acknowledged that children and young adults might mainly orientate their answers toward what they think is expected from them (Alter, 2015). Hence their focus group interview comments can show some signs of social desirability (see Dervin, 2010). Due to space limitations, this paper only focuses on the focus group interviews; however, it would be beneficial to look at the pupils' texts in the EPIC and analyse them in terms of changes in perspectives over time. In addition, not all pupils participated equally in the focus group interviews, and it is not feasible to generalise the findings. In addition, the participants' comments might also be dependent on other factors, such as experience, knowledge gained, individual's motivation, etc. Therefore, the process of considering the perspectives of others should be examined more thoroughly, and closer attention should be given to any factors that constitute learners' context and background.

The findings suggest some practical implications for teaching. The results indicate that storytelling (as in Fractured Fairy Tales), fictional or imaginative texts based on historical events (as in History Corner) and metaphorical representations of the notion of perspective (as in the Sunglasses Story and If I Were… I'd Be…) promote the awareness of diversity of perspectives among the pupils. Correspondingly, the teachers can suggest similar activities, in which the emphasis is put on a decentred perspective (Ware & Kramsch, 2005) and recognition of the multiplicity of perspective (PC) during their classroom interactions or engagements with texts.

It has been shown that the entries based on interviewing people from other cultural backgrounds, engaging with comparing and contrasting can be also beneficial for creating opportunities for PT. However, finding the right balance between similarities and differences is a way to avoid oversimplifications and stereotypes. Thus, the learners' attention should be drawn to the perception of cultural differences as practised by individuals, and, more importantly, to the awareness that *'the self and the other do not necessarily stand in a confronting or dichotomic relation, but in a relation of complementarity'* (Xu, 2013, p. 394).

As the History Corner entry has also shown, the importance of context when drawing the meaning from a text seems to be crucial. As shown in the findings, the recognition of a variety of perspectives might be a steppingstone towards perspective taking, therefore, it might be useful for teachers to elaborate on how one's perspective can change (e.g., over time) or how different perspectives vary (e.g., across contexts, generations, gender, or social roles). Therefore, the teacher who by the careful selection or adaptation of activities may influence whether a more ethnocentric or ethnorelative way of thinking will be reinforced in a class plays a role here. Summing up, this study shows that the role of the teacher is crucial in order to challenge learners' views on the issues of considering the perspectives of others in language classrooms. Creating a scaffold for learners to gain new perspectives is a way to improve foreign language teaching.

Appendix A
Table 5
The overview of the EPIC entries

NAME (SOURCE)	DESCRIPTION
Sunglasses Story (Berardo & Deardorff, 2012, p. 153)	Pupils read and reflect on a metaphorical story which helps them to realise that we all see the world through our own unique lens. The story tells about two groups of people who are born with a differently coloured pair of glasses (yellow and blue). When the groups meet, they put on each other's sunglasses, and realise that both see green lenses.
Fractured Fairy Tale (Dolan, 2014, p. 72)	Pupils are asked to retell a popular story, changing the point of view, the plot or ideas.
Interview Room (Huber-Kriegler et al., 2003)	Pupils interview a person with a background different from their own about things they do in their everyday lives and compare the information obtained with their own daily routines.
This Is How We Do It (Lamothe, 2019)	Pupils complete a series of tasks as they read the book. They explore lives and daily rituals of seven kids and link them with their own lives. An end page with a night sky scattered with stars is accompanied by the words, 'This is my night sky,' hinting that though these kids may lead very different lives, they all see the same sky above them.
If I Were… I'd Be… (Rigamonti & Scott-Monkhouse, 2016)	Pupils complete 12 stem sentences by choosing 12 metaphors thinking about themselves, their culture, and the target culture (all sentences starting with 'If I were… I'd be…'). In the second and third stages the pupils go through the same steps but replace the same metaphors with 'If Norwegians were…, they'd be…' and 'If the British/Americans/… were…, they'd be…' to reflect on themselves, their language/culture and the target cultures and languages, as well as stereotypes shaping them.
History Corner (Bromseth & Wigdahl, 2007, p. 159-162)	Pupils complete a series of tasks as they explore the story of Rosa Parks and the Civil Rights movement. They engage in tasks aimed at perspective-taking as a resource for expanding the meaning-making potential of a historical event.
The Other Side (Woodson, 2001)	Pupils answer a series of questions on their perceptions of the children's book The Other Side by Woodson (2001).

Appendix B
Interview guide for focus group interviews

SELF AND OTHERS

Do you remember the activity where you were asked to interview your friend from another country? 'Interview Room' and the activity 'This Is How We Do It'. Was there anything particular from these activities that you remember? Anything that made you think about yourself and the other person's culture? What did you learn from these activities?

PERSPECTIVE TAKING

The pupils are asked to recall the following EPIC entries/activities, namely Sunglasses Story; Fractured Fairy Tale; If I were…, I'd Be…; History Corner, and The Other Side: (1) How did these entries in the EPIC make you feel? Did you like them? What did you learn? (2) We have discussed how we can use a change of perspective to see ourselves in a new light (e.g., Sunglasses Story; Fractured Fairy Tales; History Corner). What have you learned? (3) In what situations in your real life would you use the knowledge from these activities? Can you suggest any examples? (4) Pupils are shown two images made by E. B. Lewis depicting the main characters from The Other Side book and are asked the following key questions. (1) Who are the people in these pictures? (2) What can you tell me about that picture? (3) What does the fence represent? (4) From what perspective/viewpoint do we see this event? (5) Why is it important to consider different perspectives? (6) Can you make up a short dialogue between the people in the photo? (7) Could you make up titles for the images?

Appendix C: Transcription conventions

[ ]: overlaps in speech
(.): incomprehensible speech
…: pauses less than 1 second, trailed off speech
(1.2): pauses more than one second
{}: material has been deleted from the excerpt

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Original Research

The role of prosody in expressing culture-specific speech behaviour of language teachers in English

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The article explores prosody as one of the most salient aspects of speech in expressing culture-specific speech behaviour of Russian teachers of English and their English counterparts. The significance of the research has been determined by the need to establish the features that display one's identity in a foreign language. Our concern is with the L1 strong influence on L2, due to which non-native speakers fail to conform to native-speaker norms of English. The question of whether to teach students native speaker-like pronunciation/prosody or tolerate the interference of their mother language was once strongly debated and many tend to abandon native-speaker norms for various reasons. However, based on a recent students' survey we can note that their view is to acquire the appropriate norm and sound native speaker-like. Moreover, the study analyses several groups of teachers of British and Russian origin and their classroom English language to point out certain prosodic features indicating their native accent and culture. Each of the segmentals is illustrated with examples from authentic demonstration lessons. A general scientific descriptive method is applied alongside the method of phonetic investigation. The assumption that prosody conveys strategies of politeness theory in the speech of language teachers in classroom discourse was confirmed by study results. We observe maximum correlation between implicit and explicit modality in the classroom management by the group of British informants whereas socially and culturally conditioned speech behaviour of the Russian teachers determined by the type of discourse accepted in society leads to a marked difference from the dominant strategies and prosodic features regarding politeness in British culture. The findings demonstrate the key role of prosody in the study of im/politeness. The article may be of interest to specialists in intercultural communication, phonetics, didactic communication and to anyone researching the issues of the culture-specific speech behaviour of English language teachers.

KEYWORDS: *impoliteness, politeness, prosody, accent, interference, classroom discourse, Russian, English*

1. INTODUCTION

The studies of im/politeness have been a hot topic for the last several decades. Special issues and whole volumes of journals have been dedicated to these studies, and scholars in different disciplines contributed to the phenomena, enlarging the scope of research and boosting the popularity of the im/politeness themes. Such compelling interest can be explained by the pursuit of effective ways and mechanisms for interaction and better mutual understanding. Indeed, these scientific achievements acquire particular significance in intercultural communication when *'due to considerable differences in cultures, there exists a real threat of miscommunication, as a result of which the partners will make an unfavourable impression on each other as impolite, tactless, and emotionally unrestrained speakers, or, on the contrary, will be perceived as indecisive interlocutors'* (Ivanova, 2019, p. 141).

Nevertheless, despite the variety of approaches, languages and contexts for research, methods of analysis of im/politeness there are few works describing and comparing the prosodic features of im/polite culture-specific speech behaviour. As Culpeper (2011) stated, the vast bulk of research on politeness or impoliteness pays woefully little attention to the role of prosody, neglecting such a crucial fact that prosody does more than disambiguate messages. Prosodic features can overrule conventional meanings associated with linguistic forms. It is interesting to give thought to it and try to find reasons for such a mismatch in research. Why does prosody being such a salient characteristic of speech get less consideration in the study of im/politeness?

First, we will contemplate and try to identify some possible reasons for that negligible interest towards prosody in the im/politeness domain. Then we will discuss prosodic interference that inevitably appears in the speech of Russian learners and point out the most relevant deviations from Standard English that might prevent conformity with native-speaker norms. We will also interpret the results of the survey regarding the importance of pronunciation/prosody in the work of future teachers of English and analyse several language lessons to verify the role of the prosodic features in expressing culture-specific speech behaviour in English.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study employed quantitative data collected from a questionnaire and a survey, which allowed us to gather information relevant for our work. Moreover, we analysed seven lessons by Russian and British teachers focusing on prosodic features expressing politeness that were used in classroom discourse. We scrutinised and interpreted the findings. A general scientific descriptive method is applied alongside the method of phonetic investigation (perceptive analysis of speech), which allows to observe the extent that prosody plays in maintaining politeness in Russian and British classroom discourse.

The list of abbreviations of Nuclear Tones and Heads used in the article:

HF – High Fall
LF – Low Fall
LR – Low Rise
MR – Mid Rise
MF – Mid Fall
FR – Fall Rise
HH – High Head
MH – Mid Head
SH – Stepping Head

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

3.1. Changing views

The shift in the focus of teaching the English language from native speaker-like speech models toward intelligibility gave rise to a discriminatory attitude toward pronunciation and prosodic features. According to Munro and Derwing (2011), intelligibility is hard to assess but broadly, they understood it as the degree of a listener's actual comprehension of an utterance. They conducted research with L2 students to clarify some misconceptions about a foreign accent, seen as the cause of miscommunication, by examining its different facets and analysing its impact on intelligibility and comprehensibility of speech.

It is common knowledge that an accent or accented speech differ from the local variety, therefore might be indistinguishable, and might have a negative influence on communication (Popova & Magsumov, 2021). Munro and Derwing view comprehensibility as the listener's perception of how easy or difficult it is to understand a given speech sample and measured the amount of time or effort listeners spent to process utterances (Munro & Derwing, 2011). The overview of the works on pronunciation and intonation in Munro and Derwing (2011) and the results of the scientific experiments confirmed the idea of the explicit effect that pronunciation and intonation have on intelligibility and comprehensibility. However, the scholars emphasise that there are special aspects of prosody and segmentals, like stress error or monotone, etc. which are more crucial to intelligibility than others, hence should be given more attention in teaching the language. Neglecting general speaking habits, volume, rhythm, syllable structure and segmentals with a high functional role as stated by Munro and Derwing (2005) can be frustrating both for speakers and for interlocu-tors.

A stereotypical attitude towards accents according to the basic ranking into 'pleasant vs unpleasant' or 'appropriate vs inappropriate' (Andersson, 1992; Litvinov et al., 2017) existed up until the mid-20 century where 'the most pleasant to the ear' position was taken by the non-regional sociolect – Received Pronunciation. The bottom of the scale was given to the urban working-class accents. Multiple experiments on accented speech demonstrate the subjectivity of its perception, which has existed in society for a few centuries. People used to be judged according to the way they spoke, and cultural stereotypes or associations linked to the local speech varieties and not according to their level of competence (Mikhaleva, 2008).

This form of accent discrimination is gradually levelling off due to the diversification of the language and transition to a more tolerant treatment of any form of speech thanks to the policy of multiculturalism in the modern world. The fact that, according to the national census poll, native Londoners are now in a minority proves that, first of all, accents are flexible and undergo different modifications under the influence of extra linguistic factors and, secondly, there is a relative acceptance of new accent forms in everyday communication (Mikhaleva, 2016).

Consequently, a number of extralinguistic and linguistic factors can cause a distorted perception of a person in everyday communication. We can now witness the active development of self-concept and self-manifestation in the social environment and the English language in particular when traditional values of the language and culture are either lost, merged or slightly modified according to the speech community of the area.

As far as professional communication is concerned, some linguists interpret a foreign accent as *'a pronunciation defect of a non-native speaker, their individual cultural and personal features which differ from the features of a native speaker'* (Baryshnikov, 2020, p. 177). This takes us back to the subjective perception and accent inequality of the participants mentioned above. People may be perceived as incompetent, and the level of credibility may be rather low. Intolerance, rejection or even conflicts in intercultural communication could be avoided by sticking to a neutral form of the English language since there is no universal foreign accent as such which could facilitate mutual understanding and perception of the informants.

Secondly, we can presume that expanding globalisation and the internationalisation of speech behaviour are posing a threat to national cultures and languages, thus raising an interest in national cultures and a desire to preserve their own identity. Non-native speakers are not ready to completely blend in with a new culture and master the native speaker-like speech, which may tamper with their self-image. Moreover, having an accent can be beneficial in communication with native speakers who are aware of speaking with foreigners and will modify their speech for the sake of their partners (Porter & Garvin, 1989; Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1994; Bermus et al., 2021). We do not favour this point of view, which recognises an accent as the main source of expressing identity, as being too naive.

Regarding compatibility of pronunciation and identity, we can turn to Timmis (2002) who speculates on the problem of what to consider a norm for the classroom. Being a full-time classroom teacher struggling with the dilemma of whether to teach his students native-speaker English or international English, he came across completely opposite academic views on the issue. Therefore, to clarify it for himself and find harmony in teaching he surveyed students and teachers from more than 45 countries by asking them questions on pronunciation and grammar. He got quite unexpected and interesting results, which we briefly summarise here. Most students who communicated with non-native speakers or were going to do so in future expressed a desire to achieve a native speaker-like English pronunciation, which would benefit their future career greatly. The teachers were more realistic, saying that native English pronunciation was a long-term goal that is practically next to impossible to accomplish and were satisfied with their learners preserving the accent of their country. Given the results of Timmis's (2002) research into pronunciation, we can suggest that there is a disagreement between the students' wish to sound natural and native speaker-like and the teachers' tolerant attitude toward their learners' accented speech.

Bearing in mind the issue of the role of prosody in im/politeness, we can suggest one more argument, describing prosodic features as conventional and gradient (Arndt & Janney 1985, 1987; Culpeper, 2011) and thus being too elusive to instruct and follow. Indeed, they prove these characteristics by the example of the tempo of speech or the pitch of the voice and raise the question of what tempo to count as fast or slow, high pitch or low pitch and so on. These aspects are relative. At the same time Culpeper (2011) stated that these gradient and relative prosodic traits make it crucial to account for the pragmatic inferencing that underpins its role in communication, once again emphasising close interaction of prosody and pragmatics where prosody helps to maximise a particular part in an utterance or a text for the right interpretation of it.

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3.2. Prosodic interference

To state the obvious, while learning a second language people do not merely acquire necessary vocabulary, grammar and other knowledge and add it to their brains, complex processes of interaction between the languages take place in the minds of learners. Such interactive phenomena back in the mid 20 century were given the notions of transfer, which meant positive effects, and interference, which meant negative ones. In our research, we came across the negative influence/interference of the Russian mother tongue prosodic features (L1) on the second English language (L2). Prosody is believed to be one of the fundamental difficulties faced by learners of English.

In general, interference is defined as deviation from norms caused by one language influencing another. Intensive studies of the phenomenon began a long time ago. Russian phoneticians have made a great contribution to the theory of interference, implementing different approaches to its study: linguistic (Dubovsky, 1978; Dubovsky & Zagraevskaya, 2014; Metlyuk, 1986), cognitive (Fomichenko, 2005), linguo-didactic (Vishnevskaya, 1985, 1993; Anashkina, 1992; Ivanova, 2001; Makarova, 2011).

A significant number of the studies are devoted to the intonation errors in the English speech of Russian bilinguals and some practical hints about how to overcome the difficulties and improve suprasegmental qualities of speech. As Vishnevskaya and Levina (2007) stated, Russian speakers tend to make mistakes in the pronunciation of the English nuclear tones substituting them with less gradual Russian ones. Moreover, complex and compound English tones are much narrower than they are in the English language, and Russian speakers often level them out. They also make a smaller number of pauses in utterances, wrong distribution of stress elements, and do not observe the alteration of stressed and unstressed syllables, which leads to the problems with rhythm.

Moreover, the difference between Russian and English intonation patterns lies not only in the manner of articulating the contours, the choice of the prosodic elements but also in their functioning in speech and the attitudes and emotions that they express in different types of utterances. This is one of the crucial factors in revealing one's national identity and dominant strategic directions regarding positive or negative politeness culture (Ivanova et al., 2020). Makarova (2017) gives a lot of attention in her research to the sentence accent location in the English speech of the Russians, emphasising that the communicative effect of such errors has been poorly studied and does not have a valid experimental confirmation. In different perception experiments conducted by the scholar together with American speakers, they identified and described erratic nucleus shifts in the English utterances of Russian students and the communicative effect they produced on native speakers. Native auditors declared most of the shifts unacceptable. In many cases, they could not derive the speaker's intention from the message. In other words, communication between the speaker and the listener was not successful and failed to achieve the intended goal of the speaker. Ivanova (2001) suggests that the main cause of accent shifts is due to the incorrect interpretation of the meaning of utterances or the neglect of the preceding context. Students fail to observe 'given' and 'new' information (theme/rheme) as important determinants of accentuation or deaccentuation of words.

Anashkina (1992) analysed prosodic interference of contact establishing phrases in dialogues and noted that Russian students do not often observe intonation contours, which convey a certain pragmatic meaning. For example, instead of a friendly, rising tone that encourages further conversation in informal greetings, they sound gloomy and categorical using a falling nuclear tone. The author points out those Russian speakers seem to be unaware of expressing and transmitting their emotions and attitudes to listeners, thus overlooking the essential attitudinal function of intonation. As stated by Wells (2018), *'English makes more elaborate use of intonation to signal meaning than do most other languages. This is the reason why it should not be neglected by learners and teachers of English as a foreign language'* (Wells, 2018, p. 11).

4. STUDY AND RESULTS

4.1. Pronunciation/prosody survey results

Timmis's (2002) survey covered a wide geographical area and included responses from more than 40 countries. It encouraged us to hear Russian students' opinion about pronunciation. Our research was carried out in 2 phases.

In phase 1 we surveyed 100 undergraduate and postgraduate students of the Department of Language Teaching and Business Communication of Moscow City University (Russia). We intended to explore how the respondents would portray a foreign language teacher, what characteristics (linguistic, psychological, personal, the art of teaching, etc.) they consider the most relevant in this profession. We used a questionnaire designed according to a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is the lowest point and 5 is the highest one in assessing a particular component. The questionnaire contained 20 questions.

As this paper is critically concerned with the role of prosody conveying im/politeness in the language of non-native teachers of English in a classroom discourse and identifying the importance of acquiring native speaker-like intonation models, we will briefly outline only those data that are appropriate for us in this research. According to the respondents, the most valuable characteristics in terms of linguistic competence for a foreign language teacher are native-speaker fluency in English; the ability to interact with representatives of different cultures; native speaker-like pronunciation and prosody and the ability to tailor their language to the level and needs of their students. The participants ranked the suggested options in the questionnaire highly. The maximum scores of 4.7 and 4.6 were given to tailoring and fluency respectively. We can note that such a ratio might be attributed to upper-intermediate or advanced L2 students who want to deal with very competent fluent teachers to master a language. However, it might beg the question of whether being fluent in a language is compulsory with beginners, elementary or pre-intermediate students. As for native speaker-like pronunciation and prosody, the average score was 4.2, which, in our opinion, may indicate a tendency among the students to regard native speaker-like norms as very desirable for a foreign language teacher.

In phase 2 we selected and surveyed 12 students studying pedagogy and English in the second year of the university, who are going to be classroom English teachers. All of them are from the most advanced group in terms of their English and have a good command of the language. The aim was to investigate their perception of the importance of studying English pronunciation and the value of sounding native speaker-like both in Russian and in English.

We began by asking the respondents to express their views on whether they consider pronunciation a key to success, particularly in their future profession. In addition, we wanted to find out if the students would like to speak English without a trace of their native accent. Nine out of twelve respondents (75%) were sure that it is crucial for an English teacher to sound like a native speaker of English and to be a role model for their students. They wanted to get rid of their Russian accent in English. Certainly, not all of them speak naturally like a native speaker themselves and they are aware of their problems, mainly in terms of prosody.

‘According to the respondents, the most valuable characteristics in terms of linguistic competence for a foreign language teacher are native-speaker fluency in English; the ability to interact with representatives of different cultures; native speaker-like pronunciation and prosody and the ability to tailor their language to the level and needs of their students’

Such responses were quite predictable, and it was quite interesting for us to know the reasons behind the opinions of those three informants who do not think pronunciation is vital in teaching the language. The students who were not aspiring to native speaker-like pronunciation thought that being confident and using the correct grammar and vocabulary would be enough for them to become a leading professional. It appears that these three students experience problems with pronunciation themselves concerning the articulation of some sounds as well as intonation. The problems with articulation are their ‘fossilised’ errors as initially in their school years they were not instructed on the right position of the organs of articulation. We can acknowledge that some phonetic mistakes in the articulation of some English consonants did not influence the intelligibility or comprehensibility of their speech. However, it was different with vowel sounds. Not having the short-long vowel opposition in Russian, the students quite often do not observe this differentiating qualitative feature of vowels in English either, thus causing a distraction for their listeners.

Concerning the prosodic features, all respondents find it difficult to acquire them correctly. While practising reading dialogues and texts with the focus on intonation in their classes of Phonetics, some of them managed to imitate the speakers and had a positive outcome, sounding quite natural. Eventually, they delivered their own monologues and had roundtable discussions on a given topic where they followed certain native speaker-like intonation models to both their delight and the delight of their teachers of Phonetics.

However, when it comes to other classes, for example, Business English or Speech Practice, few of the students have prosody in mind. They usually concentrate on what to say rather than how they say it and consequently their intonation patterns are Russian, and their speech is heavily accented. They fail to demonstrate fi-

'Nevertheless, non-native speaker pronunciation will clearly be a disadvantage if a person moving to Russia wants to build a career which requires communication with people because they should sound natural. In a professional environment the respondents want to deal with native speaker-like norms, otherwise they will feel some distraction and even mistrust'

nal nuclear tones; they sound monotonous and do not project their voice and the articulation is not energetic. We doubt that they deliberately sacrifice native speaker-like models to preserve their self-identity. It is more likely that sounding like a native speaker requires a degree of effort, both mental and physical. It does not come naturally. It needs practice and experience and a desire to leave one's comfort zone to achieve a positive result, and the students are not always willing to work hard.

Our next question was how the students perceive accent in their native Russian language and whether accent hampers intelligibility and can have a negative impact on somebody's career. In 100% of the responses, the students say that they are not sensitive to Russian accented speech in everyday communication; it does not bother them at all. In other words, they all displayed a high degree of tolerance towards accented Russian speech.

Nevertheless, non-native speaker pronunciation will clearly be a disadvantage if a person moving to Russia wants to build a career which requires communication with people because they should sound natural. In a professional environment the respondents want to deal with native speaker-like norms, otherwise they will feel some distraction and even mistrust. Here we can note a contradiction between the way some students see themselves in their profession as English teachers and what they expect from non-native speakers who work in Russia.

4.2. Expressing politeness through prosody in classroom discourse

To identify the role of the prosodic features that they play in expressing culture-specific speech behaviour in English we analysed seven language lessons conducted by British and Russian English language teachers. The comparison of their classroom language was carried out at the auditory level with the main emphasis on the choice of the prosodic elements in the utterances. The hypothesis of the present research is that there is a clear correlation between explicit and implicit modality, which means that negative and positive politeness culture categories are reflected in the intonation patterns chosen by a speaker. We believe that secondary illocutions, which express the state of mind of the speaker, his/her status-role relations and which are combined with the primary illocutionary meanings, are culturally and socially conditioned and correlate with the types of discourse accepted in society. Thus, we assume that national identity may be subconsciously revealed in a person's speech behaviour.

The first group of informants was a group of native speakers of English. Generalising the teaching style of the British informants we can note that they demonstrate excellent rapport with the audience. The soft tonality of most of the utterances is manifested both in the choice of language and in their prosodic design. A restrained but at the same time unobtrusive, unimposing manner of setting tasks and eliciting answers, moderate pace of speech, and clearly pronounced instructions are the features that characterise all the lessons by the British teachers chosen for the present research.

The quality of the teacher's speaking style is confident, intonationally expressive, but not overly emotional or emphatic. We notice emotional self-regulation during the lessons. Distancing strategies are clearly expressed in the choice of vocabulary, syntax and intonation. We have identified the following tactics of classroom interaction used by the British teachers of English: getting students involved, giving instructions, initiating the activity, giving feedback. The main forms of manifestation of negative politeness are the expressions of uncertainty, softening of the utterances, minimising the imposition, use of modals, conventional indirectness and expressions of doubt in the language of the teachers.

The samples below have been taken from the lessons and interpreted according to the strategies of a negative politeness culture and the basic prosodic features of culture-specific speech behaviour, which we consider the main communication principles in the present study.

We notice emotional self-regulation in the speech of the British language teachers when they are setting communicative tasks. The politeness of distancing is clearly manifested in the types of phrases used by all the informants.

'The hypothesis of the present research is that there is a clear correlation between explicit and implicit modality, which means that negative and positive politeness culture categories are reflected in the intonation patterns chosen by a speaker'

The intonation of the teachers' address to students varies from low falls when calling a student by name, to emphatic high falls when using the pronoun *you*. A low rising tone is used to talk to a group of students.

What do you (HF) think?

Ladies (LR)? What do you two (HF) think?

Daniel (LF), tell us something about your partner (HH+LF).

Feedback language is rather limited in the choice of vocabulary. *Ok* and *good* are often repeated as an approval, used with a rising tone, whereas to signal the transition to the next task – *so, ok* – a descending tone is used.

Ok (LR).

Ok (LF), fantastic (HF).

Very (LF) good. Yeah (MF).

Yes (LF), that's right (LF).

The examples below illustrate negative politeness, which is expressed by softening statements, careful wording and using questions instead of direct imperatives.

Complex utterances

I'd like you to work in your groups (MH+LF), please?

So (LF) what I would like you to do now (MF) is look at all these actions (FR).

Conventional indirectness

Can you talk (HF) together for about two minutes (HF+LR) and answer these two questions (ST H+LF)?

Can you go back and sit in your places (FR)?

Modal verbs

Can I just stop you there (FR)?

Ok, I'm gonna stop you there now, if I may (FR).

Being pessimistic, i.e., expressing doubt about the possibility of an event, is realised in subjunctive statements. However, conditionals are not very frequent in the classroom language that we analysed.

If you check with your partner (MH+FR) …?

British informants do use imperatives in giving instructions. On the one hand, it contradicts the theory of negative politeness culture where there is a tendency to sound less direct and avoid imposition. On the other hand, since it is hardly possible to avoid this syntactical structure in academic discourse, the correct choice of intonation helps to soften the command. For example, in one of the phrases the rising nuclear tone is used in four syntagms out of six to encourage the listeners to perform.

Write some ideas (F+R), talk together (F+R). Five (HF) minutes. Go (HF). I want you to talk together (MH+FR). So, could you talk together (MH+LF), please (LR).?

Despite the above mentioned, the most typical structure for the imperatives is the V+N structure.

Have a think (HF) about that (LF) when you're using (LF) it.

Take a look at this picture (HH+FR).

Have a look at number 5 (HH+HF).

The other thing that we find typical of the negative politeness strategy is the manner and wording with which the teacher sets students' homework. For instance, one of the teachers asks the students for their permission three times, waiting for their approval, which looks like a kind of a game, and as a result, without receiving any reaction from the class, he voices the homework. Negative politeness strategy is expressed here via minimising the imposition, softening the statements.

Thank you very much (LF) for today (HF). You worked very hard (HH+HF). I'd like (LF) to give you some homework (FR). Ok (LR)? Ok (LR)? Alright (LR)? For tomorrow (FR). I'd like (LF) you please (LR) to write (LF) and say (LF) what you'd do (LR) in each of those sentences (HH+FR). Thank you very much, guys (HH+LR). Please (LR) go for coffee (HH+FR).

The dynamics of the lessons observed is consistently smooth. Only once at one demo lesson does the teacher increase the height of the falling tone and the volume of the utterance in general trying to encourage the students to react more actively to tasks, to repeat the phrases in chorus. However, a minute later, she lowers the pitch and volume, the energy subsides and the entire emotional uplift decreases.

Ok (HF). Let's get some energy (HH+HF) in here, ok (LR). Sit up (HH+MR), hands down (HH+MR). Look at me (MR). Yes (LR). Put some energy (HH+MR). So (LF)….

We observe maximum affinity of implicit and explicit modality in the classroom management by the group of British informants, who apply different negative politeness strategies to ultimately achieve their

‘We also notice simple grammar constructions in setting communicative tasks. Future Simple or Present Simple Tenses are used to give instructions. This may sound rather pressured to an English speaker, especially in combination with falling tones’

goal. Interaction with the students employs a variety of prosodic components that are socially and culturally specific to the didactic communication as well as balancing the social distance between the teacher and the student, which is hierarchically minimised in Western culture. The prevailing nuclear tones expressing secondary illocution of the distancing strategies are a Fall-Rise complex nuclear tone and a simple Low-Rise tone. Mid-Level Head in combination with descending tones of Low or High pitch level achieve the desired effects in academic contexts.

The second group of informants includes native Russian teachers of English. The dynamic of the lessons analysed is fast. Students follow the instructions, which are clear and simply verbalised and teachers are actively involved in working with their students. One type of activity is replaced by another without long pauses.

The prevailing communicative style is that of dominance and authoritarianism. However, one typical feature of the positive politeness culture is responsiveness and participation in the students’ language progress. The timbre of voice is a key factor that demonstrates status-role relations in the group of Russian informants. We can characterise it as cold and imperative. Giving instructions, in one of the lessons analysed, the teacher sounds tough with emotional unvariability. The teacher speaks in a high pitch at an increased volume, even though the student audience is rather small.

Positive politeness is demonstrated through the power difference between the teachers and the individuals involved in the educational act and the degree of imposition of authority is quite high. The examples below illustrate a positive politeness characteristic of Eastern European culture. The dominant strategic directions regarding this culture in the lessons include direct imperatives, personal constructions and modality and expressions of interest in the addressee’s involvement in the activities.

Small talk at the beginning of the lesson is typical of the strategy of involvement in the positive politeness culture, however, prosodically it does sound categorical and business-like due to the wrong choice of a falling tone in this sort of utterance. The correct tone in English phrases where we hear Low-Falls would be a low rising tone, which expresses interest and involvement.

How are you (LF)? Good (LR)? Good (LR)? The weather (LF) is bad (LR) but you’re good (LF).

Feedback language just like in the group of the British informants also contains some interjections used with a Russified rising tone, however, a polite expression is used with a typical English complex Fall-Rise tone.

Ah (LR). Oh (MR). Good (HF). Thank you (FR).

General statements quite’ frequently start with the adverb *so* as a way of indicating the teacher’s idea, said with a falling tone. This is an example of lexical and prosodic transfer into English. Addressing students by name is also realised by a low falling tone in English, which is a typical tone of address in Russian. This, however, correlates with the style of the British teachers. We also notice simple grammar constructions in setting communicative tasks. Future Simple or Present Simple Tenses are used to give instructions. This may sound rather pressured to an English speaker, especially in combination with falling tones. However, this strategy illustrates the positive politeness culture.

So, Katya (LF), you will go (LF) next time (LR) and you will correct (LF) your mistake.

So, what do you do? So, one person runs to the board, chooses one word and writes what?

You don’t write anything now. You just speak to your partner, you look at your picture and you make up a sentence and say it, all right?

We analysed a series of video lessons with one group of students and noticed their progress in learning the language material. And even though the students appear tense and are verbally reserved, they smile during the lesson, and appear to be psychologically comfortable. That might be because they have been studying with this teacher for a long time and are familiar with the style and manner of conducting classes. Thus, we cannot deny the influence of a teacher’s personal style on the conduct of his/her classes and the correlation between prosodic features and personality type. The teacher is temperamental and emotional. Instructions are expressed in a motivational imperative form, repeated several times with a categorical descending tone.

Imperatives prevail in the teacher talk of all the Russian informants. We assume that this is the way that teachers concentrate students’ attention on their instructions, subconsciously demonstrating their status, adopting the role of a controller of the lesson, increasing the social distance. Typical of the British informants, V+N constructions have not been spotted in the classroom language of this group.

Now look at the picture (HH+LF).

Stop (HF). Now (LF) listen to me (LF).

Now. Martin, stop (LF). Sit down (LF). Relax (LF).

Prosodically, teacher talk in the demonstration lessons of this group of informants is similar with little variation; the most frequent falling tone is used in imperatives. Softening of the phrases with an exclamation like *please* makes imperatives sound politer, on the one hand, and adds more force to the request, on the other. The melodic colouring of the phrase by using a Mid-Rise intonation in the exclamations reduces the reserve of the falling tone in the main utterance. However, the Russified Mid-Rise intonation indicates the transfer of the rising tone pattern in the native language to a foreign language.

Ask me this question, please.

Please, stop. Pencils down.

Strong modal verbs expressing obligation are chosen by Russian teachers to give instructions. In combination with raised pitch and increased loudness such types of utterances create a rather domineering manner by the teachers.

And then you have to stand here, you will make a line.

You can correct mistakes of your colleagues, then you come back.

The message in the group of Russian teachers of English is conveyed explicitly through the choice of grammar and vocabulary. The teachers' speech is prevalent in the use of imperatives and words expressing directives.

There is minimum correlation between explicit and implicit modality in the classroom management by the group of Russian informants, who use positive politeness strategies in communication with their students. Teachers employ the prosodic components that are socially and culturally specific to the role and status of the speaker accepted in Eastern culture. The prevailing nuclear tones expressing secondary illocution of the strategies of positive politeness culture are falling tones and an involuntary Russified Mid-Rise tone.

To support our assumptions that the choice of intonation patterns reflects the politeness culture theory, we analysed a lesson in Russian taught by a British teacher. We present a sample of the phrases in phonetic script.

The intonation of the address to students varies from Fall-Rise when calling a student by name, to Low-Fall when using the collective noun *class*.

Kiana (FR).

Class (LF).

Melodic variation and the choice of nuclear tones typical of the English language and representing negative transfer into Russian proves our hypothesis. Both positive and negative particles *(yes, no)* are pronounced with a Fall-Rise tone for *yes* with a meaning of encouragement, support and a High-Fall to express involvement, interest and soften the negation. In Russian in a similar context, these words would be articulated using a Mid-Fall tone.

Da (FR).

Net (HF).

The teacher expresses enthusiasm both non-verbally and verbally. Clear actual division of a sentence (theme-rheme affinity) is phonetically inferred and expressed by Fall and Fall-Rise nuclear tones. Very emotional word-by-word emphasis with nuclear tones may be attributed to the teaching process, however, the choice of nuclear tones relates to the strategies of the negative politeness culture and deviates from the norms of the Russian language.

Kto (FR) skazal (FR) 'Ya hochu pojti v teatr' (SH +MF)? / Who said 'I want to go to the theatre?'

On skazal (FR), ya (LR) ne (FR) hochu (LR) idti (LR) s Liamom (LF)./ He said 'I don't want to go with Liamom'.

No (LF) eto (LR) problema (HF). / But this is a problem.

5. CONCLUSION

National and cultural specifics of behaviour are expressed in the choice of prosodic characteristics of the speaker. Asymmetry of politeness systems may lead to misinterpretation of teachers' verbal intentions by their audience. The difference between the Russian and British style is expressiveness versus restraint strategies. Thus, a style that doesn't impose, indirect expression of instructions and relative restrictions on the use of imperatives are typical features of the English communication style.

According to sutyd results, the most frequent prosodic features used by the British teachers are combinations of falling and rising tones, low falling tone and mid pitch. The timbre quality is soft, calm and relaxed. This, together with the syntactic structures, makes role inequality less obvious. In the English language if the primary illocution is expressed by an imperative, the secondary illocution – i.e., prosody – softens the tonality of the phrase.

As far as the Russian teachers' repertoire is concerned, we notice the use of Fall and Mid-Rise tones which are an example of negative transfer. Tonality is the key factor, which demonstrates the role and status of the speakers in this group. The instructions sound like commands, business-like but emotionally flat. This style of communication and specific strategies used in classroom language are motivated by socio-cultural factors which are common to the Eastern tradition high power distance society and consequently, to Russian-speaking students, sound appropriate and comprehensible. We stick to the idea that the teachers employ a prosodic style subconsciously, which to some degree reflects their personal style.

Teachers in both groups are accommodating, wanting to cooperate and overall, linguistically polite. They use expressions that are both contextually appropriate and understood as socially positive by their target audience. However, to a native speaker of English an explicit illocution of Russian informants typical of positive politeness based on an involvement approach may appear as rather direct and an imposition and can pose a threat of miscommunication.

On the one hand, the manner of behaviour, lack of the mask of friendliness, a general impression of authoritarianism when displaying positive politeness strategies in a foreign language may indicate that teachers are bossy, not involved in the work and are indifferent to the audience. This creates a negative impression of Russian speakers of English judging by their language repertoire. On the other hand, speaking about the job of an English teacher, who acts as a mediator of culture and a source of ethno-cultural information, we face the problem of insufficient awareness among the language teachers of this role and their task. Being experts on foreign language culture, teachers should transfer their knowledge and their experience by presenting themselves as role models for students, and their speech behaviour, presumably, should be identified by students with the speech of a native speaker. Hence the need to be able to switch from the native language to a foreign one at the phonetic level: softening the tonality, increasing the register, using nuclear tones in accordance with the rules of their functioning and adding targeting would be more positively perceived by representatives of a foreign language culture. Socio-cultural parameters are manifested in the language and their awareness helps us to understand and correctly interpret the communicative behaviour of representatives of different linguistic cultures. Thus, we tend to believe that strategic use of the language being part of the communicative competence should be taught to learners to be able to apply suitable strategies in a foreign language.

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Original Research

Communicating recipient's emotions: Text-triggered interest

by Larisa A. Piotrovskaya and Pavel N. Trushchelev

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The article aims to expand the scope of interpersonal pragmatics and deals with the issue of 'recipient's emotions' which is the least developed area of communication research into emotions. The authors promote the sociopragmatic conception of emotional processes and highlight the strategic nature of emotional impact in communicative situations. The study focuses on the analysis of emotion-evocative communication in terms of the reader's emotional interest with reference to expository texts from Russian school textbooks. The main purpose of the study is to identify how the strategic use of language increases text-triggered interest. In order to achieve this purpose, the study applies not only linguistic methods intended to explore the strategic manner of language usage, but also experimental methods intended to verify a possible emotional impact. The linguistic analysis reveals that there are three main ways the strategic use of language increases text-triggered interest: expression of dialogicity, concretisation, and manifestation of emotions. The experimental results prove their provoking functions and demonstrate a leading role of linguistic-based factors in interest-evocative communication. The study suggests that the recipient's interest is often provoked by text-based factors, and text-triggered interest is dependent on the linguistic structure of the discourse. The linguistic strategies used to increase text-triggered interest might be treated as a foundation for different interest-evoking strategies and as a discursive dimension of the recipient's interest.

KEYWORDS: *emotions in communication, pragmatics, expository text, text comprehension, linguistics of emotions*

1. INTRODUCTION

Emotions have a direct link to language and human interaction and permeate every kind of communication (Alba-Juez, 2021; Alba-Juez & Larina, 2018; Bucci, 2021; Langlotz & Locher, 2013; Shakhovsky, 2019; Van Berkum, 2018). The discourse studies document a crucial role of emotions in many facets of language usage, discourse processes, socialisation, and separate social fields, like education, politics, or media (Bohn-Gettler & Kaakinen, 2021; Burdelski, 2020; Foolen, 2012; Koivunen et al., 2021; Loseke, 2009; Majid, 2012; Moisander et al., 2016; Ozyumenko & Larina, 2021; Wetherell, 2013). They are primarily concerned with the exploration of emotionally laden interaction with regard to emotional processes, encoding through emotive language and expressive linguistic forms. However, one of the research gaps is the issue of *recipient's emotions* associated with the actual notion of *non-propositional effects* to which pragmatists currently refer (De Saussure & Wharton, 2020; Wilson & Carston, 2019).

As yet, unlike other sides of communicating emotions, this issue is mostly beyond the scope of interpersonal pragmatics.

The present article discusses the issue of recipient's emotions and adopts the sociopragmatic conception of emotional processes. It deals with reader's emotional interest (text-triggered interest) through the agency of expository texts from Russian school textbooks (see Piotrovskaya & Trushchelev, 2018, 2020a, 2020b). The study is organised as follows. Section 2 positions a theoretical approach to recipient's emotions as a part of communicative processes. Having identified the pragmalinguistic approach, Section 3 provides linguistic and experimental investigations of text-triggered interest and looks at a strategic use of language in interest-evocative written communication. Section 4 interprets the results obtained. Section 5 concludes the article.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

There is no unified view of emotions among specialists, physiologists and psychologists. To date, they conceptualise emotional experiences through specific variables, seven of which consistently turn up in most explanations in one form or another: (1) affective valence (positive or negative); (2) provoking stimulus; (3) appraisals; (4) behavioural, physiological, motivational, or cognitive changes; (5) regulation; (6) expectations; (7) activity (Frijda, 2013; Izard, 2007; Lench & Carpenter, 2015). Since Darwin's *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* (1872), scientists also argue that emotions have a discursive nature and serve an interpersonal function in interaction (Bucci, 2021; Oatley & Johnson-Laird, 2014; Shakhovsky, 2019).

Sociopragmatic studies place emphasis on this position and promote '*the analysis of emotion as embedded in discourse and social context*' (White, 2005, p. 246; see also Alba-Juez, 2021; Koschut et al., 2017; Loseke, 2009; Moisander et al., 2016; Olson et al. 2020; Wetherell, 2013; Wharton & Strey, 2019; Zappettini et al., 2021). In this respect, Abu-Lughod and Lutz (1990) were among the first to examine emotion as *discursive practice* and to claim, '*emotions are phenomena that can be seen in social interaction, much of which is verbal*' (Abu-Lughod & Lutz, 1990, p. 10-11). Recently, Alba-Juez and Mackenzie (2019, p. 18) have identified *emotion in discourse* as '*a multimodal dynamical discourse process, which permeates all linguistic levels but also manifests itself in non-verbal ways, presenting different stages and forms … according as the discursive situation and interaction changes and*

'Previously, many studies inspected communicative situations, in which a speaker experiences emotions and expresses them through discursive means. Such studies established the model of the emotive language system that reproduces emotional experiences, attitudes, and interrelations'

evolves'. In a similar vein, discursive psychology draws attention to how emotions arise in social practices and how they perform different tasks in dynamical discourse structures (Childs & Hepburn, 2015; Edwards, 1999).

Danes (1994) suggested that speech events can be characterised through the exploration of *experiencing* language and text processes. In his account, the linguistic aspect of emotions is the most obvious form of users' involvement in discourse (Danes, 1994, p. 256-262). According to this line of thinking, Russian communication research promotes the exploration of *communicative emotional situations* – to wit: real (as a part of the everyday life) or fictional (as a part of the discourse world) situations of interaction that involve participants' emotional experiences in terms of discourse processes (Shakhovsky, 2008, p. 129-133; Shakhovsky, 2018). Previously, many studies inspected communicative situations, in which a speaker experiences emotions and expresses them through discursive means. Such studies established the model of the emotive language system that reproduces emotional experiences, attitudes, and interrelations (Alba-Juez & Larina, 2018; Foolen, 2012; Majid, 2012; Shakhovsky, 2019; Volkova, 2015). Some of them, including Danes (1994) and Volkova (2015), noted that expression of emotions could influence recipient's processing and evoke emotional responses.

Regarding this aspect, the *emotion-evocative communicative situation* can be highlighted as covering every emotional response which arises in the recipient's processing and ranges from a simple affective reaction to a complex emotional experience (see Burdelski, 2020; Katriel, 2015; Koschut et al., 2017). This kind of situation provides the possible emotional impact due to text characteristics, settings of the context, and the recipient's personality (experience, expectations, goals, knowledge, interests, preferences, and others) (Bohn-Gettler & Kaakinen, 2021; De Saussure & Wharton, 2020; Shakhovsky, 2018; Van Berkum, 2018; Wharton et al., 2021). Therefore, the emotion-evocative situation can involve any emotional responses elicited by multilevel discursive patterns. As Shakhovsky (2008, p. 181) precisely pointed out, there will always be a recipient, for whom even a cooking recipe can be quite emotionally affecting. The probable model of emotion-evocative communication thus might be extremely broad. Specifically, Katriel (2015, p. 58) noticed that any discourse '*calls forth some kind of emotional response – including indifference – on the part of listeners*'.

However, back in the ancient literature, scholars discussed the strategic manner of provoking emotional responses in public communicative events, such as speaking in court or political debates (see Aristotle, 2018, p. 55-111; Quintilian, 1920, p. 8-27). Contemporary communication studies develop a similar approach to emotion-evocative communication and propose a strategic view of the recipient's emotions. According to this view, emotion-evocative situations might be conceptualised, and the author (speaker) can predict the discourse processing and manage the recipient's emotional processes through relevant discursive strategies (Shakhovsky, 2008, p. 219). For instance, Ozyumenko and Larina (2021) examine emotional impact as an entire manipulative strategy used in media discourse. Such strategies, in turn, are transformed into the outward expression (speech or text) as the discursive form of emotional arousal stimuli. In effect, the strategies merely enhance the potential emotional impact of the discourse but do not yet ensure the prospective emotional effect.

It is not an exaggeration to say that emotional interest, or curiosity, emerges as an essential variable in communicative events. Interest is a basic (innate and universal) emotion, that continually affects and organises cognitive processes (Izard, 2007; Silvia, 2006; Sung et al., 2016; Tikhomirova et al., 2021). Interest arises within ongoing activity and relates to (1) heightened motivation and attention, (2) feeling of enjoyment, (3) active engagement, and (4) usage of effortful cognitive strategies. Surely, interest is a great benefit to discourse processing. It motivates a reader to spend more time on the message and use more effective reader's strategies, regulates reader's attention, specifies reader's appraisals of text content (Hidi, 2001; Schiefele, 2009, p. 209-213; Silvia, 2006, p. 66-73).

Because the text is generated with the discourse processing in mind, the author is always concerned with the recipient's interest to some degree. In a sense, any communicative situation might be labelled as interest-evocative and examined from this perspective. Having said that, in some social fields, such as education or popularisation, the recipient's interest is an important contextual condition for communicative practices to take place. It follows that such communicative practices serve as the space in which discourse structures conceptualise the ways of constructing the recipient's interest.

3. STUDY AND RESULTS

3.1. Problem statement

It is generally accepted that interest is an important motivational variable in a variety of learning contexts, especially in learning from texts (Hidi, 2001; Schiefele, 2009; Silvia, 2006, p. 66-73; Wade, 2001). Therefore, many studies conducted in the framework of educational reading attempted to reveal external sources of interest. Schraw and Lehman (2001, p. 37) reviewed the works published by the beginning of the 21st century and grouped text-based sources into three categories: seductiveness (i.e., the importance and relevance of information), vividness (i.e., imagery, suspense, unexpectedness), and coherence (i.e., ease of comprehension, relevance, poor organisation). In his well-known review, Schiefele (2009) listed sources extensively tested by experts: surprisingness (or novelty), coherence, concreteness, vividness, and ease of comprehension. Silvia (2006, p. 82) suggested that most of the text-based factors can be integrated within his cognitive model, which includes two appraisal components – *appraisals of novelty-complexity* and *appraisals of ability to understand*.

Although the existing studies greatly influence the education design, only some of them deal with discursive strategies and textual arousal stimuli provoking the recipient's interest (see Hidi & Bird, 1988; Shin et al., 2016; Ksenzenko & Mendzheritskaya, 2021). In particular, Lepper et al. (2021) claim that contemporary research into the relationship between text genre (i.e., content features, text structure, language style) and text-triggered interest should be extended. From this point of view, Odintsov (1984) argued that discourse linguistic structures play a pivotal role in popularisation, and the recipient's interest is usually provoked by linguistic forms of the text.

The present study focuses on this aspect of the interest-evocative communication. It aims to illuminate the strategic use of language for increasing text-triggered interest. It has two parts: the first one conducts a linguistic investigation of textbooks; the second one tests possible emotional effects of text-based factors experimentally.

3.2. A linguistic investigation

3.2.1. Material

Following the sociopragmatic approach to emotions, the linguistic investigation posits an analysis of original textbooks as a space to conceptualise interest-evocative communication. Textbook authors increase text-triggered interest by using a wide range of different strategies (Piotrovskaya & Trushchelev, 2020b). This is especially appropriate to textbooks intended for 11–15-year-olds because it is the age period *the need-motivational sphere* and personal interests principally develop (Polivanova, 2012, p. 1563; Vygotsky, 1984, p. 6-40). In this respect, the present investigation turns to expository texts from contemporary Russian school textbooks for grades 7–9 on Biology, Physics, History, Geography, and Social Science (more than 2,000,000 tokens).

3.2.2. Methodology

The pragmalinguistic investigation of emotions entails a multidimensional context-oriented analysis to capture a lot of discursive variables (Alba-Juez, 2021; Alba-Juez & Mackenzie, 2019; De Saussure & Wharton, 2020). Turning to the strategic aspects of emotional impact, the linguistic investigation needs data about the functions of text components in the communicative situation, especially in achieving author's goals, which might include the goal of provoking reader's interest. In Dridze's (1984, p. 62) account, the text is an integral communication tool and a functional system in which linguistic units implement the author's goals. To analyse such a functional system, the *usage-based position* might be adopted (see Diessel, 2017). This position provides the functional methods of analysis with reference to the emergence of linguistic units in the discourse.

3.2.3. Results

The functional analysis of textbooks reveals that there are three main strategies explaining the use of language in interest-evocative situations: expression of dialogicity, concretisation, and manifestation of emotions.

3.2.3.1. Expression of dialogicity

Expression of dialogicity is related to linguistic resources designed to represent the writer-reader interaction (see Bondi, 2018; Makkonen-Craig, 2014). In the written text, these resources display participants' positions and communicative actions. They cover personal pronouns and personal forms of verbs, progressive tense markers, interrogative and imperative constructions, egocentric units (evaluative adjectives and adverbs, mood and modality units, emphatic and contrastive theme-rheme divisions), cognitive and speech verbs, vocatives, and units of colloquial language – elliptical constructions, emphatic word order, and colloquial words. Together, these items make up a well-studied language system of dialogicity and the discursive space of interaction between an author and prospective readers (see Hyland, 2014; Makkonen-Craig, 2014).

'The present study focuses on this aspect of the interest-evocative communication. It aims to illuminate the strategic use of language for increasing text-triggered interest. It has two parts: the first one conducts a linguistic investigation of textbooks; the second one tests possible emotional effects of text-based factors experimentally'

Expression of dialogicity often underlies so-called dialogic and/or contextualising strategies, which position readers in the text. These strategies make the text more relevant to readers, activate the reader's attention and enhance ease of comprehension (see Gelfman & Kholodnaya, 2019, p. 46; Omarova, 2005; Shin et al., 2016, p. 42).

In this sense, interrogative constructions play a leading role because they have a high frequency in textbooks. They often emerge as *expository questions* (see Sperber & Wilson, 2012, p. 223-226), as the following cases exemplify.

(1) Pochemu zhe na lyzhah mozhno idti po snegu ne provalivajas'? [Why is it possible to ski on the snow without falling through?]

(2) Mogut li sushhestvovat' pravila na vse sluchai zhizni? [Can there be rules for all occasions?]

Here are questions whose answers authors deem relevant to prospective readers. Sperber and Wilson (2012, p. 222) regard that expository questions are used '*to arouse the audience's interest in an answer*'. Gelfman and Kholodnaya (2019, p. 46) note a problem function of such questions because they display the need to seek information. Therefore, expository questions can reflect the constituent of reader's interest – engagement with content. Also, expository questions can organise macrostructure making the text easier to comprehend. For instance, case (1) is located at the beginning of the paragraph about Pressure (Physics) and determines the content of the following passage.

Apart from that, the authors regularly provide the dialogic contextualisation and encode the context of the direct dialogic interaction. The following passages are cases in point.

(3) Mozhno privesti mnogo podobnyh situacij. *Odnako ty, konechno, ponjal, chto rech' idjot o dolge. Dazhe primerno predstavil sebe, chto jeto takoe*. [Many similar situations could be given. *However, of course, you understand that we are talking about debt. You have a rough idea of what it is*.]

(4) My govorim: grjaznye ruki, grjaznyj dvor, grjaznyj gorod. *A mozhno li skazat': grjaznyj vozduh, grjaznaja voda, grjaznyj les, grjaznaja zemlja? K sozhaleniju, mozhno*. [We often say, 'dirty hands', 'dirty yard', 'dirty city'. *But can we say, 'dirty air', 'dirty water', 'dirty forest', 'dirty earth'? Unfortunately, we can*.]

The cases encode the dialogic interaction through personal pronouns *ty* [*you*] and *my* [*we*], modal and mood markers (*konechno* [*of course*], *mozhno li* [*can*], *k sozhaleniju* [*unfortunately*]), progressive tense markers, cognitive and speech verbs (*ponjal* [*understand*], *predstavil sebe* [*have a rough idea*], *skazat'* [*say*]), and an interrogative construction. (The Russian cases also contain elliptical constructions in the third sentences with omitted grammatical *you*-subject.) The first case refers to reader's processing: it encodes the reader's cognitive actions and a moment of interaction (a progressive tense marker *rech' idjot* [*we are talking*]). The next case reflects the dialogic interaction by means of a question-answer construction, which presents a typical part of the dialogue and appears as a progressive tense marker.

In other cases, dialogic contextualisation might appear as a 'joint' discussion, as in (5) below.

(5) *Davaj porassuzhdaem*. Janush Korchak*, kak ty znaesh'*, byl ne tol'ko pedagogom, no i direktorom doma sirot. Svoj obshhestvennyj (pedagogicheskij) dolg on ispolnjal chestno. No vot nastupil osobyj den': ego ucheniki stali zhertvami nacional'noj nenavisti. Fashisty ne shhadili nikogo, dazhe detej. *Kak dolzhen postupit' v takoj situacii direktor shkoly, da i prosto normal'nyj, porjadochnyj chelovek? Ty skazhesh':* borot'sja so zlom. *Bessporno*, jeto edinstvenno priemlemyj dlja porjadochnogo cheloveka sposob dejstvija. No so zlom mozhno borot'sja po-raznomu. [*Let's discuss.* Janusz Korczak, *as you know*, was not only a teacher, but also a principal of the orphanage. He performed his social (pedagogical) duty honestly. But here came a special day: his pupils became victims of ethnic hatred. The Nazis spared no one, not even the children. *What should a school principal or just an ordinary decent person do in such a situation? You would say*: they should fight evil. *Undoubtedly*, that is the only acceptable course of action for a decent person. But people can fight against evil in different ways.]

The passage starts with an imperative construction that is a direct call for a 'joint' discussion. Further, dialogicity means (in italic) encode and structure the process of discussion, which includes typical stages: an actualisation of reader's knowledge (*kak ty znaesh'* [*as you know*]), a problem statement (an expository question), an expression of a reader's guess (*ty skazhesh'* [*you would say*]), and an elaboration of the guess (*Bessporno… No…* [*Undoubtedly… But…*]).

3.2.3.2. Concretisation

Concretisation provides a reference to concrete things or events and encodes fictional situations of visual perception (Odintsov, 1984, p. 25; Piotrovskaya & Trushchelev, 2018). Hence, the linguistic means of concretisation are defined by their referential functions. First of all, they are comprised of so-called *concrete language units*, or concrete words referring to concrete objects (Sadoski & Paivio, 2013). There are three main groups of concrete words: concrete nouns referring to physical things, concrete adjectives referring to observable qualities, and concrete verbs referring to literal actions. Moreover, linguistic means of concretisation are associated with units that narrow down the referential domain of the disourse and convey the perceptual meaning. These means might involve tense–aspect–mood markers (e.g., perceptual verbs, the perfective focus of action verbs), syntactic modifiers (e.g., relative clauses; participial constructions; modifying nouns, adjectives, and adverbs), markers of actual countability, and locative or temporal deictic markers.

According to psychological studies, concretisation benefits interest-evocative communication by making the text more vivid, dynamic, imaginative, and comprehensible (Hidi & Baird, 1988; Gelfman & Kholodnaya, 2019, p. 47; Sadoski & Paivio, 2013, p. 115-132; Wade, 2001).

In popular science discourse, concretisation completely determines linguistic form and largely affects writing styles (Odintsov, 1984, p. 25-48). In contrast, textbooks incorporate stronger characteristics of the academic style, and concretisation merely provides the discourse elaboration of explanations, scenes, actions and characters.

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Later, we will discuss the concretisation of descriptive texts the experimental investigation involves. But now let us turn to a passage from a historical text.

(6) Poltora mesjaca dlilas' bezuspeshnaja osada. Togda bylo resheno proryt' podkop pod krepostnye steny. *Sdelali* dva podzemnyh hoda i *vkatili* tuda 48 bochek s porohom. *Podozhgli* fitili, a na bochkah *postavili* gorjashhie svechi. Odnovremenno takuju zhe svechu *zazhgli* podle carskogo shatra. Jeto byl znak — *sgorit* svecha, i totchas *razdastsja* vzryv. Svecha *sgorela*, no vzryva v podzemel'e ne proizoshlo. V jarosti Ivan *prikazal rubit'* golovy masteram, delavshim podkop. Vot tut-to i *grjanul* moshhnejshij vzryv. [The unsuccessful siege lasted a month and a half. Then it was decided to dig a tunnel under the fortress walls. Two underground tunnels were *made* and 48 barrels of gunpowder were *rolled in*. Wicks were *lit* and burning candles were *set* on the barrels. Simultaneously, the same candle was lit near the king's tent. It was a sign—the candle would *burn*, and immediately an explosion would *thunder*. The candle *burned out*, but there was no explosion in the tunnels. In a rage, Ivan *ordered* the heads of the masters *to be cut off*. It was then that a powerful explosion *burst out*.]

There are a lot of concrete words used to present subjects (*Ivan* [*Ivan*], *svecha* [*candle*], and others), objects (*bochek* [*barrels*], *hoda* [*tunnels*], and others), predicates (*zazhgli* [*lit*], *prikazal rubit'* [*ordered to cut off*], and others), attributes (*gorjashhie* [*burning*], *moshhnejshij* [*powerful*], and others), and circumstances (*na bochkah* [*on the barrels*], *podle carskogo shatra* [*near the king's tent*], and others). The case also employs a perceptual verb (*razdastsja* [*thunder*]), action verbs with perfective focus (in italic), locative and temporal deictic markers (*na bochkah* [*on the barrels*], *totchas* [*immediately*], and others), markers of actual countability (numerals and matched plural noun forms). Together, linguistic means of concretisation allow the author to elaborate on the narrative structure of the discourse and represent in-depth settings of events, a gradual development of the plot and narrative perspectives that capture a point of view of the *Ivan* character. This, in turn, contributes to the vividness, unexpectedness and dynamism of the historical text.

Regarding non-historical texts, it is important to draw attention to a common manner of concretisation – an exemplary-explanatory strategy. For instance, the following cases are taken from the chapters about Entrepreneurship (Social Sciences) and Motion (Physics).

(7) *Predstav'te sebe*, chto *vy reshili* organizovat' svoe delo. Naprimer, *vy uvlekaetes'* rok-muzykoj, horosho *razbiraetes'* v komp'juterah ili *umeete* shit' i *hotite* otkryt' *svoju* masterskuju ili atel'e ili sozdat' muzykal'nuju gruppu. [*Imagine* that *you* have decided to start *your own* business. For example, *you* are fascinated by rock music, or *you* are good with computers, or *you* know how to sew. And *you* want to open *your own* workshop, or atelier, or create a music band.]

(8) Dvizhenie tel *my nabljudaem* povsjudu: plyvut oblaka, kachajutsja vetki derev'ev, padajut snezhinki, letit samoljot i t. d. Kogda *my govorim* o dvizhenii tela, to vsegda *imeem* v vidu, chto ono peremeshhaetsja otnositel'no drugih tel. [*We* see the motion of bodies everywhere: clouds are floating, tree branches are swaying, snowflakes are falling, an airplane is flying, etc. When *we talk* about the motion of a body, *we* always *mean* that it moves relative to other bodies.]

The cases employ concrete words to present subjects, predicates, and objects (e.g., *kachajutsja vetki derev'ev* [*tree branches are swaying*]; *reshili organizovat' svoe delo* [*have decided to start your own business*]). Case (8) also employs locative and temporal deictic markers (*povsjudu* [everywhere], *vsegda* [always]) and a perceptual verb (*nabljudaem* [*see*]). These means give a description of everyday situations that fulfil the illustrative function in the learning context. It is noteworthy that the cases also employ dialogicity units (in italics) that position the reader as a participant of the discourse world. (The Russian cases also contain the personal plural *you*- and *we*-form of the present tense verbs.) Concretisation, hence, can combine with the expression of dialogicity and provide discourse elaboration through contextualisation.

However, exemplary-explanatory passages do not always include dialogicity units. In many cases, authors describe everyday events from a third person perspective. Consider the following passage.

(9) Eshhe v glubokoj drevnosti *ljudi zametili*, chto jantar' (okamenevshaja smola hvojnyh derev'ev), *potertyj o sherst'*, priobretaet sposobnost' pritjagivat' k sebe razlichnye tela: *solominki, pushinki, vorsinki meha* i t. d. [Even in ancient times, *people descried* that amber (petrified tree resin) *rubbed on wool* has the ability to magnetise various bodies: *straws, fluff, fleeces of fur,* etc.]

This passage is the beginning of a text about contact electrification (Physics). It gives an explanation from the perspective of people from ancient civilisations, who did not know about electrification (as prospective readers may not know either). The perspectival interpretation is carried out by a reference to perceptual activity. The core of the first clause expresses a subject and process of perception (*ljudi zametili* [*people descried*]); the second clause details the perspective through a participial construction referring to an observable attribute (*potertyj o sherst'* [*rubbed on wool*]) and concrete words referring to physical things (*solominki, pushinki, vorsinki meha* [*straw, fluff, fleeces of fur*]). The new perspective improves the imagery of the text and elaborates discourse in unusual ways.

It is also important to note that concretisation can provide so-called *seductive details*, interesting but irrelevant information that is not necessary to achieve educational goals (see Mayer, 2018). For example, the following case is taken from a textbook on Biology.

(10) Vazhnejshimi svojstvami kostej cheloveka javljajutsja: tvjordost', prochnost' i jelastichnost', kotorye obuslovleny osobennostjami ih sostava i stroenija. Tvjordost' kostej priblizhaetsja k stali! *Ne sluchajno nashi predki ispol'zovali kostnyj material, poluchennyj ot zhivotnyh, dlja izgotovlenija prostejshih orudij truda, nakonechnikov strel i garpunov*. [The most important properties of human bones are hardness, strength, and elasticity, which are due to the features of their ingredients and structure. Bones have a similar hardness to steel! *It is no coincidence that our ancestors used animals' bones for manufacturing the simplest labour tools, arrowheads, and harpoons*.]

The passage conveys a fascinating fact about bones (in italics). Learners do not need to know this fact in the course on Biology, but the fact makes the text more interesting although it can destroy coherence.

3.2.3.3. Manifestation of emotions

Manifestation of emotions has two sides, *emotion talk* and *emotional talk* (Abu-Lughod & Lutz, 1990; Alba-Juez & Larina, 2018; Burdelski, 2020; Katriel, 2015; Shakhovsky, 2008, p. 53-126). Emotion talk transmits information about emotional experiences through descriptive linguistic forms. In textbooks, emotion talk is a form of concretisation that encodes emotionally laden events. For instance, case (6) above employs the emotion term *v jarosti* [*in a rage*] to encode the emotional state of the *Ivan* character. In the case below, emotion talk transmits a description of emotional behaviour and involves concrete words (presenting a subject, predicates, and modifiers), locative markers, and emotive direct speech.

'Manifestation of emotions has two sides, emotion talk and emotional talk. Emotion talk transmits information about emotional experiences through descriptive linguistic forms'

(11) Arhimed vyprygnul iz svoej vanny i golym pobezhal po ulitsam goroda s krikom 'Evrika!' [Archimedes leaped out of the bath and ran naked through the city streets shouting 'Eureka!']

As is shown incases (6) and (11), emotion talk provides a reference to the subject of an emotional experience (e.g., the character *Ivan* or *Archimedes*) and loads texts with various emotional perspectives. Hence, like concretisation, it enhances the vividness of the text.

Emotional talk is associated with the interpersonal function of language and implies the first-person usage of emotive units, that communicate the speaker's emotional attitudes or states. In textbooks, emotional talk relates to the evaluative sides of dialogicity. For instance, case (4) above includes the emotive marker *k sozhaleniju* [*unfortunately*], which expresses an author's emotionally evaluative attitude to the content of the clause. In other cases, emotional talk frequently contains an emotional experience of surprise. In this respect, authors often use exclamatory sentences that underline the emotional impact of the content, such as in case (10) above or case (12) below.

(12) A v 20-m veke vyjasnilos', chto dazhe ogromnaja Galaktika — jeto eshhjo daleko ne vsja Vselennaja! [In the 20th century, it turned out that even an enormous Galaxy is not the whole Universe!]

In a similar function, authors also use noun phrases, including modifying emotive adjectives (e.g., *udivitel'noe otkrytie* [*an amazing discovery*], *ljubopytnoe javlenie* [*a curious phenomenon*]).

In addition, the emotive markers might play a part in dialogic contextualisation.

(13) A chto chelovek sotvoril s zhivotnym mirom! Vot, naprimer, videl li ty kogda-nibud' morskuju korovu? Ne videl. [And what Man has done to the Animal-World! For example, have you ever seen a sea cow? No, you haven't.]

In this case, for example, the question-answer complex is accompanied by an exclamatory sentence. (The Russian case also contains emphatic words order in the second sentence and an elliptical construction in the third sentence with an omitted grammatical *you*-subject.)

3.3. An experimental investigation

3.3.1. Material

The experimental investigation has sought to test only the emotional impact of linguistic-based factors and to minimise the impact of content properties. That is why we have selected thematically similar texts. They include four descriptive texts about the natural world from 7th grade Geography textbooks. These texts differed in the degree of potential emotional (interest-provoking) impact. To assess this degree, we considered only the quantitative factor.

The characteristic passages from the texts are presented in Appendix A. The passages are given both in the original and in English, and the linguistic means used to increase text-triggered interest are shown in italics.

Text 1 (218 tokens) describes the natural regions and the organic world of Eurasia and does not include linguistic means for increasing text-triggered interest. We rated Text 1 as a text of *the zero potential emotional impact*.

Text 2 (210 tokens) describes the Arctic Ocean and includes some dialogicity means – emphatic and contrastive theme-rheme divisions and evaluative units. But it does not refer to a reader and reflects neither a dialogic interaction nor a situation of visual perception. Given this fact, we rated Text 2 as a text of *low potential emotional impact*.

Text 3 (261 tokens) describes the South American internal waters (Amazon River, Iguazu, and others). It includes numerous means to narrow the referential domain and encode a perceptual situation: modifying nouns and adjectives, relative clauses, locative deictic markers, and perceptual verbs. It also contains emotive and evaluative markers to express subjective attitudes. Because of the orientation towards the subjective perspectives, we rated Text 3 as a text of *medium potential emotional impact*.

Text 4 (310 tokens) describes the oceanic zones and includes the largest amount of linguistics means that increase text-triggered interest. Means of dialogicity and concretisation provide a description of a walk on the bottom of the ocean. The text employs personal pronouns and personal forms of verbs to position the reader as the participant and spectator in the discourse world. For elaboration, it employs concrete words, progressive tense markers, perceptual verbs, and locative deictic markers. Also, it encodes a direct dialogic interaction between the author and prospective readers through a question-answer complex, exclamatory sentences, evaluative markers, and colloquial units. We rated Text 4 as a text of *high potential emotional impact*.

3.3.2. Procedure, methods, and data analysis

The participants were 40 schoolchildren (in the 7th year of school, with an average age of 13) and 25 university students at the Geography faculty (their average age was 18). Each participant was presented with all four texts. After reading each text, a participant rated its qualities on a 5-point bipolar scales where 3 was designated as 'neutral'. The schoolchildren rated four qualities: (a) interestingness, 1 (*boring*) to 5 (*interesting*); (b) novelty, 1 (*familiar*) to 5 (*novel*); (c) complexity, 1 (*easy*) to 5 (*complex*); (d) comprehensibility, 1 (*incomprehensible*) to 5 (*comprehensible*). The items (b) – (d) represent appraisal components of interest. The university students rated just one quality – interestingness. We assumed that the university students must have good knowledge about the school course of geography and understand texts from textbooks.

To establish the validity of the experimental data, the reliabilities of the ratings were assessed first. Reliability coefficients Cronbach's alpha for the ratings were as follows: interestingness = .81 and .72, novelty = .79, complexity = .77, and comprehensibility = .77. These values indicate a high degree of the reliability of composite measurements. Next, to select the relevant statistical methods of analysis, the normality of distribution was tested. The distribution of the interestingness ratings failed the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality (.897, .817, .844, and .820; $p \leq 0{,}01$). For this reason, the non-parametric tests of difference were applied for data analysis. They incorporate the chi-square test (χ^2), binominal test (m), the Wilcoxon test (T), the Friedman test (F_r), and the Spearman's rank correlation (r_s). The non-parametric descriptive statistics and correlation for text ratings are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Median, quartile deviations, and correlation for text ratings

RATINGS FOR EACH TEXT	MEDIAN	QUARTILE DEVIATIONS	CORRELATION WITH INTERESTINGNESS (R_S)
Text 1			
Interestingness	3 (3)	0,75 (0,5)	
Novelty	3	0,625	–0,09
Complexity	2	1	–0,25
Comprehensibility	4	1	0,50*
Text 2			
Interestingness	4 (4)	0,625 (1)	
Novelty	3	0,5	0,23
Complexity	2	1	–0,05
Comprehensibility	5	0,5	0,15
Text 3			
Interestingness	4 (4)	1 (1)	
Novelty	3	0,625	–0,30
Complexity	2	1	–0,20
Comprehensibility	5	1	0,51*
Text 4			
Interestingness	4 (5)	1 (0,5)	
Novelty	3	1	–0,23
Complexity	2	0,625	–0,30
Comprehensibility	4	1	0,39*

* = p < 0,05. The adults' interestingness ratings are presented in parentheses.

3.3.3. Results

3.3.3.1. Interestingness

The central tendency of the interestingness ratings appears as a median. The values of the median for the schoolchildren's ratings are 3 for *Text 1* and 4 for *Text 2, Text 3,* and *Text 4*. The values of the median for the students' ratings are 3 for *Text 1*, 4 for *Text 2* and *Text 3*, and 5 for *Text 4*.

The distribution of the two ratings groups [1 (*boring*), 2 (*rather boring*), 3 (*neutral*)] and [4 (*rather interesting*), 5 (*interesting*)] deviate significantly from a uniform distribution in four dimensions: most of the schoolchildren rated *Text 2*, *Text 3*, and *Text 4* at 4 and 5 points (χ^2 = 9,06; 5,63; 7,26; p < 0,02), and most of the students rated *Text 4* at 4 and 5 points (*m* = 20; p < 0,01). In the other dimensions (schoolchildren' ratings

'It seems reasonable to presume that the ways of increasing text-triggered interest – expression of dialogicity, concretisation, and manifestation of emotions – is a foundation for different interest-evoking strategies. Up to now, there are no entire typologies of such strategies, or acknowledged measurements to classify them. In this context, linguistic-based factors stand out for their methodological suitability'

for *Text 1*, and students' ratings for *Text 1*, *Text 2*, *Text 3*), the distribution of the ratings groups does not deviate significantly from a uniform distribution (χ^2 = 0,63; *m* = 14; 16; 17).

Comparing the related ratings of interestingness shows that ratings of both samples have differences within themselves (for schoolchildren F_r = 11,11; p < 0,02; for students F_r = 8,18; p < 0,04). Comparing the matched pairs of the rankings shows that schoolchildren rated *Text 2*, *Text 3*, and *Text 4* identically, but ratings for these texts differ significantly from the ratings for *Text 1* (*T* = 61,5; 45; 22; p < 0,01). The students' related ratings differ significantly only between *Text 1* and *Text 4* (*T* = 30; p < 0,01).

3.3.3.2. Interestingness and the other ratings

Comparing the related ratings of novelty, complexity, and comprehensibility does not show significant differences within themselves. The schoolchildren rated all the texts for these qualities identically (F_r = 1,15; 4,49; 7,66). Comparing the interestingness and the other ratings shows significant positive correlations between the interestingness and the comprehensibility of *Text 1*, *Text 3*, and *Text 4* (r_s = .50; .51; .39; p < 0,01). However, the values are of a low magnitude, and correlation of the variables is also low.

4. DISCUSSION

The experimental investigation supports the results of the linguistic investigation.

In fact, *Text 1* of the zero potential emotional impact was rated significantly lower than the other texts. The schoolchildren evaluated the potential emotional impact of other texts – *Text 2*, *Text 3*, and *Text 4* – as more interesting. As is shown by the tests of difference, there are no changes in the levels of schoolchildren's interest in these three texts. The students evaluated only *Text 4,* with the largest number of linguistic means used to increase text-triggered interest, as interesting. Participants' interest is not determined by the appraisal components noted above – *appraisals of novelty-complexity* and *appraisals of ability to understand*. Moreover, schoolchildren's ratings of novelty, complexity, and comprehensibility are the same for all the texts. Thus, the ratings of interestingness were determined by linguistic-based factors.

The results allow us to put forward two assumptions. First, the linguistic means, strategically used to provoke reader's interest, benefit the interest-evocative communication. Sure, such means do not ensure the emotional response, but the entire lack of them significantly reduces the potential emotional impact by degrees. As to the students' ratings, we may presume that the quantitative characteristics of linguistic means that contribute to text-triggered interest – a number and a variety of them – positively affect prospective emotional responses.

Second, text-triggered interest can be increased not only by content characteristics, such as novelty, complexity, and comprehensibility. In contrast, it can be increased by the linguistic ways of encoding content in the discourse. For instance, it seems obvious to almost everyone that there is a great difference between an impersonal academic report on the oceanic zones and a vivid description of a walk on the ocean floor from a reader's perspective. At the very least, this assumption might be relevant to educational communication as a part of the *knowledge-building* field (see Rose, 2020). In this field, the content of textbooks should be expectedly novel and complex for learners, and, hence, the contribution of these attributes to text-triggered interest is reduced.

It seems reasonable to presume that the ways of increasing text-triggered interest – expression of dialogicity, concretisation, and manifestation of emotions – is a foundation for different interest-evoking strategies. Up to now, there are no entire typologies of such strategies, or acknowledged measurements to classify them. In this context, linguistic-based factors stand out for their methodological suitability. On the one hand, the linguistic means indicated above can be treated as markers of interest-evoking strategies in expository texts. For instance, the units of dialogicity strongly correspond with contextualising strategies outlined by Shin et al. (2016). On the other hand, the linguistic means indicated above can be employed to explore specific strategies. For instance, such attributes of interesting texts as *character identification* or *activity level* (see Hidi & Baird, 1988, p. 470) can be discussed in terms of concrete words and tense–aspect–mood markers. It is exceptionally urgent to conduct research into seductive details, that are identified with reference to their textual and contextual relevance.

The linguistic investigation demonstrates that the strategic ways of increasing text-triggered interest are dependent on the referential domain of the discourse and general text-design strategies (e.g., the exemplary-explanatory strategy). For instance, concretisation provides discourse elaboration, but does not affect the general academic style of the textbook. Also, concretisation can be different for historical and descriptive texts, and the means of dialogicity accompany concretisation merely in non-historical texts. Emotion talk requires the identification of the subject of emotional experiences, and emotional talk requires a reference to the emotional stimulus. It would be important in the follow-up research to take into account the text structure and expand this direction.

It is likely, the linguistic ways of increasing text-triggered interest might display a cognitive 'picture' of the recipient's interest (see the discussion of *emotional scenarios* in Edwards, 1999 and *affective practices* in Wetherell, 2013). As Lepper et al. (2021) explain, *text characteristics can serve as keys to interest*. As an illustration, expository questions reflect a reader's desire to receive more information about the content, and such desire is the most obvious facet of interest. The linguistic units of dialogicity and units with perceptual meaning locate readers in the text and display the other facet of interest – the active engagement in the learning process. Also, as shown above, many linguistic means used to achieve an emotional impact generally encode concrete and context-dependent information and, thereby, provoke a specific processing mode that actualises mental imagery (see Sadoski & Paivio, 2013, p. 42-66). This observation supports the study by Bornstein et al. (2020) that highlights the differential effects of *concrete* and *abstract* processing on emotional responses. In their account, concrete processing enhances the intensity of basic emotions (which, as stated above, includes interest). Further research may inspect and discuss this aspect.

Finally, it is impossible not to pay attention to how the linguistic ways of increasing interest affect the reader's processing and comprehension. A recent experimental study by Piotrovskaya and Trushchelev (2019) dealt with the same materials (*Text 1* – *Text 4*) and applied the keywords methods (participants wrote out keywords from the texts) to identify the features of the reader's comprehension. The results demonstrate that *Text 4* provokes a high degree of variability in reading comprehension. Therefore, we may assume that the accumulation of diverse interest-evoking strategies within the discourse can make the text less effective for learning. Follow-up research should clarify this assumption.

5. CONCLUSION

We have presented the sociopragmatic interpretation of recipient's emotions as communicative variables. We have focused on interest-evocative situations of written communication in the context of learning from texts. After analysing expository texts from school textbooks, we have identified ways that the strategic use of language can increase text-triggered interest and verified them experimentally. The results suggest that linguistic means allow authors to present content in a variety of linguistic forms and, thereby, provoke the recipient's interest. Furthermore, these linguistic-based factors can be applied by experts to detect and explore particular interest-evoking strategies. Also the linguistic-based factors could give more detailed guidance for educational practitioners.

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Appendix A

A passage from *Text 1* (the zero potential emotional impact)

Naibolee raznoobrazen organicheskij mir juzhnoj chasti Evrazii, gde v techenie desjatkov millionov let sohranilsja teplyj klimat. V centre i na severe materika rastitel'nyj i zhivotnyj mir bolee skudnyj i odnoobraznyj. Prichina jetogo — ne tol'ko sovremennye uslovija. Ego obednenie proishodilo v periody neodnokratnyh poholodanij i oledenenij, goroobrazovanija i issushenija klimata.

[The organic world of the southern part of Eurasia where a warm climate has been preserved for tens of millions of years is the most diverse. In the centre and north of the continent, plant and animal life is poorer and more uniform. The reason for this is not only contemporary conditions. It was depleted during the repeated periods of cold and glaciation, mountain-building, and climate desiccation.]

A passage from *Text 2* (the low potential emotional impact)

Jetot okean *samyj malen'kij, samyj melkij i samyj holodnyj* iz vseh okeanov. No zato *imenno* ego issledovanija, *imenno* ego osvoenie potrebovali ot cheloveka *naibol'shih* usilij. <…> Vody jetogo techenija teplymi *nazvat' trudno*, ved' ih temperatura ne podnimaetsja vyshe +7°C.

[This ocean is the *smallest, shallowest,* and *coldest* of all the oceans. *However, it was* an exploration of and familiarisation with this ocean *that* took the *greatest* human effort. <…> The waters of this stream *can hardly be called warm* because their temperature does not rise above +7°C.]

A passage from *Text 3* (the medium potential emotional impact)

Vody Amazonki bogaty zhizn'ju. *V tihih zavodjah i pritokah* rastet kuvshinka viktorija-regija *s plavajushhimi list'jami diametrom do 2 m*. Sredi ryb naibolee izvestny *hishhnye piran'i, jelektricheskie ugri, akuly, promyslovaja ryba piraruka dlinoj 4 m*. V reke zhivut *kajmany* (*vid krokodilov*), a takzhe mlekopitajushhie — *presnovodnye del'finy*. *Stoit li udivljat'sja*, chto stol' *moguchaja* i *neobjatnaja* reka porodila mnozhestvo legend i mifov, o kotoryh napisano mnogo *interesnyh* knig.

[The Amazon River is rich in life. *In the silent backwaters and tributaries*, water lily Victoria Regia *with floating leaves up to 2 metres in diameter* grows. Among the fish, the most well-known are *predatory piranhas, electric eels, sharks*, and *4 metres long pirarucu trade fish*. The river is inhabited by *caimans (a species of crocodiles)*, and *mammals*, such as *freshwater dolphins*. *Is it any wonder* that such a *mighty* and *immense* river gave rise to many legends and myths, about which many *interesting* books have been written.]

A passage from *Text 4* (the high potential emotional impact)

Solnechnye luchi ne mogut gluboko pronikat' v vodu. Chem glubzhe *my budem pogruzhatsja, tem temnee budet stanovitsja vokrug nas*. *Pervye 20–30 m* pronizany solnechnymi luchami, no na bólshih glubinah *nas okutyvaet golubovatyj polumrak, kotoryj po mere pogruzhenija sgushhaetsja*. *Ne sluchajno* okean nazyvajut *sinej bezdnoj*. *Na glubine okolo 200 m nastupaet pochti polnaja temnota. Zdes nam pridetsja vkljuchit fonar'. I chto zhe my vidim? Izumitelnoe zrelishhe!*

[Sunbeams cannot penetrate the water deeply. The deeper *we dive*, the *darker it gets around us*. Sunbeams pierce the *first 20–30 metres* of the water surface, but at greater depths *we are enveloped in a bluish twilight, thickening as we descend*. *No wonder* that the ocean is called the *blue abyss*. *Almost full darkness sets in at a depth of about 200 metres. Here we have to turn on the flashlight, and what do we see? A stunning sight!*]

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Original Research

Hispanic toponymy of Western Sahara: Stratigraphic and typological analysis

by Irina A. Martynenko and Olga S. Chesnokova

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The research undertaken was aimed at analysing place names of Spanish origin in the Western Sahara context. From Western Sahara's place names extracted from GeoNames electronic system via the continuous sampling method a corpus for the analysis was built. 132 toponymic units of Spanish origin or with Spanish allusions were analysed. The authors classified Spanish elements of Western Sahara's toponyms and categorised Hispanic toponymic patterns. The conclusion is that the originality of Western Sahara's place names is manifested in the Hispanic layer, which is a reflection of the country's contradictory colonial past, toponymic classes that are unusual for the embodiment of Spanish place names, in basic topoformants that are different from Hispanic geonaming traditions in other Spanish-speaking parts of the world.

KEYWORDS: *Western Sahara, Spanish, toponym, typology, motivation, classification*

1. INTRODUCTION

As proper names, toponyms have a closer connection with the named object than nominal nouns. This has a direct impact on their linguistic characteristics. The close attention of linguists to proper names for many years and their numerous works allow subjecting different layers of onyms to a detailed distinction and thorough study. Our material dictates the selection (among these strata) of toponyms as the most numerous class of onyms. Scientists' appeal to onomastics has become a natural phenomenon over time, and the growth of works in this field is due to the increased interest of researchers from all over the world. Any toponymic study is inseparable from onomastics, as toponymy is one of the directions of this multifaceted science.

Place names, like other proper names, are a formally ordered lexical layer, i.e., they have a fixed structure and are formed according to certain morphological-syntactic models. The study of these models, the identification of toponymic formants or other unifying elements, and then the classification of toponyms according to these features reveals the modern organisation of the toponymic system. There are still debates among scholars about the essence and tasks of toponymy as a science. There is a widespread opinion that it is an integral, synthetic discipline, which is at the junction of and uses the data of the three fields of knowledge: geography, history and linguistics. An important aspect of toponymy is its lexical-semantic composition. The undoubted interest that the study of the

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'Semantic categories of the toponymic lexicon, along with topoformants, are part of the inventory of formative means, i.e., they are elements of the system. The set of lexemes in toponymy, for all its apparent limitlessness, is in fact always limited, and, in addition to linguistic factors (which parts of speech and in what form, which words from a given grammatical category can become proper names), there are historical, geographical and social limitations (extralinguistic factors)'

semantics and etymology of toponyms has for the history of language, lexicology, dialectology, as well as for history, geography, historical geography, ethnography and archaeology does not exhaust its significance. Semantic categories of the toponymic lexicon, along with topoformants, are part of the inventory of formative means, i.e., they are elements of the system. The set of lexemes in toponymy, for all its apparent limitlessness, is in fact always limited, and, in addition to linguistic factors (which parts of speech and in what form, which words from a given grammatical category can become proper names), there are historical, geographical and social limitations (extralinguistic factors).

In recent years, new directions for toponymic research have been actively developed. Over the past 10 years there has been a kind of technical revolution in terms of GIS resources: new ways of collecting and processing spatial data have appeared, and the programmes already created have received strong development. Technical progress cannot be stopped in the field of scientific and translation electronic systems. All this can and should be turned in favour of toponymic studies, increasing their speed, reducing the energy costs of their implementation, expanding the bibliographic base for them and thus improving the quality of their content. In general, we find some modern electronic tools extremely useful for the identification, description, study, comprehensive analysis and systematisation of toponymic material.

Critical toponymy has become an important prism for reviewing geographical names and strategies for changing place names, which remind of the economic crisis, crime and urban degradation. Micro-toponyms, such as urbanonyms, also motivate the choice of their names (Kozintsev, 2018). Hispanic toponyms are important symbolic markers in preserving or changing cultural identities, as well as in facilitating socio-political changes and relationships. This role cannot be realised and fixed without a careful study of the etymology, social meaning, and structure of place names, which critical-toponymic and political-toponymic approaches provide. Changes, particularly within the Hispanic toponymic stratum, entail a number of factors that are also studied from other angles: tourist tastes are shaped, the interest of national and international investors is aroused, an influx of financial and informational sector workers is formed.

New and powerful geographical names contribute to the marketing of urban space. The study of consequences of renaming oikonyms, hodonyms and urbanonyms constitute promising material for research in terms of critical and political toponymy, relatively new scientific directions.

A comprehensive method of studying toponymic units within the framework of a cognitive-matrix analysis of geographical names in combination with statistical analysis, historical and geographical reconstruction, descriptive method and GIS-mapping method contributes to the scientific solution of a number of general and private problems of applied toponymy. In a mental system with holistic thinking, language and, within language, toponymic representations, which are part of the mental lexicon, are interconnected with spatial representations. Cognitive toponymy studies the embodiment of information in geographical names, as well as the peculiarities of the use of toponymic vocabulary in comparison with other forms of information actualisation.

The synthesis of ecolinguistics and toponymy as branches of linguistics is extremely effective. As a consequence of this synergy, it becomes clear that within the framework of the scientific, theoretical, methodological and terminological unification of different directions, linguistics ceases to be a single-segment discipline. The main knowledge that toponymy carries is the information about the interaction between man and nature in the linguistic environment. At the same time, ecolinguistics can offer various methodologies, analysis tools and a clear framework for naming. The ecolinguistic approach highlights not only the effectiveness of the structural analysis of place names, but also emphasises the cultural and environmental parameters that should be taken into account when studying such onomastic units.

The Hispanic toponymic layer currently has thousands of objects around the globe. Due to certain historical events, by the beginning of the 21st century the main regions of the accumulation of Hispanic toponymic units are mainly Spain, Latin America, the United States, the Caribbean, as well as Equatorial Guinea and some other countries. However, due to the euphony of the language, Spanish geographic names appear in the urban nomenclature of almost every state.

Spanish or the pluricentric Ibero-Romance language, which originated in the medieval kingdom of Castille and became widespread in other regions of the world during the Age of Discovery (primarily in South and Central America), is today the second most spoken language in the world after Chinese (and, of course, English as an international lingua franca).

A special intralinguistic and linguocultural variety of national variants of the Spanish language is manifested in Latin America. A lot of research is devoted to Mexican, Colombian, Bolivian, Argentine and other national variants (see Guilherme, 2019; Jett, 2019; Díaz-Torres et al., 2020; File-Muriel et al., 2021; Nuzzo & Cortés Velásquez, 2020; Sessarego & Rodríguez-Riccelli, 2018; Tkachev, 2020; Fábregas et al., 2021; Rona, 2015). The linguistic situation in Equatorial Guinea, where Spanish is still one of the official languages, is also being carefully researched (see Lipski, 2019; Gomashie, 2019; Smith, 2020).

Thus, the choice of the topic of this article was determined by the urgent need for systematisation and scientific analysis of the accumulated factual material, and its relevance – by the development of toponymic research and the lack of any systematic description of the Spanish toponymy of one of the most ethnolinguistically original territories of the globe.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Access to geodata

In recent years, geographic information systems and geospatial databases have begun to play an increasing role in toponymic research. The focus of scientists on high-quality topographic data is mainly due to the fact that it has become much easier to use them online. In the context of globalisation, informatisation, and the development of Internet technologies, prompt access to reliable spatially distributed information is of paramount importance. In general, with the development of information technologies, toponymic research has acquired a new format, characterised by new approaches to the collection and processing of geodata.

‘Online computer access to geodata is provided today by such Internet resources as Bing Maps, Google Maps, Yandex Maps, etc. Current trends make the integration of geographical knowledge and web-based GIS technologies the most important tool for identifying and studying toponominations. New web-oriented technologies, even in the tourism industry, are focused on several main areas: mapping services that provide satellite maps online, maps based on tourist information portals, geoportals and mobile applications’

Widespread informatisation, development of high-speed Internet, the availability of purchasing and using portable computers and mobile devices, increasing the computer literacy of the population cover most countries of the world, which is reflected in qualitatively new approaches to the study of toponymic vocabulary.

Online computer access to geodata is provided today by such Internet resources as Bing Maps, Google Maps, Yandex Maps, etc. Current trends make the integration of geographical knowledge and web-based GIS technologies the most important tool for identifying and studying toponominations. New web-oriented technologies, even in the tourism industry, are focused on several main areas: mapping services that provide satellite maps online, maps based on tourist information portals, geoportals and mobile applications (Larrain & McCall, 2019). These types of technologies are also applicable for scientific research.

Among those currently used in practice and the most popular electronic resources for scientific toponymic research, we single out specialised sites, online toponymic dictionaries, electronic maps, scientometric databases, geographic databases and electronic translators.

2.2. Online toponymic dictionaries

Obtaining information from a toponymic dictionary requires effort: it takes time to search, money to buy a book, time and effort to work with a publication in a library. Sometimes toponymic dictionaries become an alternative, giving the etymology and the year of creation of the toponym online. The advantages are obvious:

ease of search, instantaneous results, no financial costs. But, at the same time, arising questions on the authorship and of the dictionary, if data provided can be trusted, if the data obtained was collected using crowdsourcing and if the information contained can be considered folk etymology, require attention. In addition, once the data are taken from other published sources, it should be checked whether the references to them are indicated.

To be reliable, the online dictionary data should be compared to the published edition of the region's place names dictionary by someone else's authorship. It is in this way that several etymological versions are often identified and compared, and conclusions are drawn about their plausibility.

A separate category is composed by so-called *gazetteers* – online geographic directories (see Victorian Places, 2015; Queensland Place Names, 2022; Elvis Place Names, 2022; Gazetteer of British Place Names, 2022; Getty Thesaurus of Geographic Names, 2022). They are often used in conjunction with a GIS and generally contain a list of place names along with data about their location or other spatial reference systems. But such directories, depending on the quality of the work done on them, may also contain other data, such as the type of object, its naming options, and sometimes even the etymology of the name.

2.3. Internet sites dedicated to toponymy

Recently, a number of toponymic web resources have been attracting attention by the completeness and brightness of their content. Many of them are professionally oriented blogs run by experts in the field of onomastics. Here are some typical examples:

– Toponímia de Lisboa (2022), a very informative site dedicated to Portuguese toponymy offering access to a lot of publications in scientific and periodical press about Portuguese geographical names;

– Arqueotoponimia (2022), a blog in Spanish by the philologist Dolores González de la Peña operating since 2008. The site contains a lot of publications about Spanish geographical names and provides an opportunity to comment on them;

– Neotoponymy (2022), a similar French-language site devoted to considering toponyms from a political point of view;

– Toponymio (2022), Bulgarian website offering an extensive range of toponymic publications, including articles on the geographical names of the American Indians and the description of the 1939 map of Lithuania.

'With the advent of electronic systems, such as Google Maps, Apple Maps, Yandex Maps, Bing Maps and the like, toponymic research has acquired a new character. Research at the level of microtoponymy has become clearer and more detailed. It became possible to see not only the streets, but also urban objects, with a description of the direction of their activities'

2.4. Electronic maps

With the advent of electronic systems, such as Google Maps, Apple Maps, Yandex Maps, Bing Maps and the like, toponymic research has acquired a new character. Research at the level of microtoponymy has become clearer and more detailed. It became possible to see not only the streets, but also urban objects, with a description of the direction of their activities. Currently, the inconvenience in this case lies in the imperfection of electronic maps. In the case of Russian resources, toponyms on the same map are often given in both Russian and English, the same type of Hispanic toponyms can be depicted on the same map with graphic icons (emphasis, tilde) and without them. All this introduces heterogeneity into the corpus of data presented.

2.5. Geographic electronic databases

Such instruments, in our opinion, are a necessary source of information for authors studying particular geographical names. GeoNames geographical database covers all countries and contains more than eleven million place names, information about which can be obtained free of charge. GeoNames is a project of the Swiss company Unxos GmbH. Unfortunately, the resource does not provide data on the etymology of the names, however, it gives other accurate information about a geographical object. It's possible to search both within a certain country and around the world, one just needs to indicate the required settings in the corresponding window. So, upon requesting *Toledo*, for example, the search engine returned 2,828 objects at the macro- and microtoponymic level around the globe. At the same time, each line contains information about the country and region of the object, exact coordinates (latitude, longitude, altitude, population, postal code) and its class (administrative division of the first / second / third order, airport, railway station, hill, etc.).

‘Etymology, internal form, morphological structure, derivational and discursive resources of geographical names are not a complete list of issues that are of interest both for traditional toponymic studies and for studies, which include the reconstruction and interpretation of the linguistic picture of the world, i.e., features of the world perception of society fixed in linguistic signs’

In 2013-2014 an additional 35,000 records of historical names were added to GeoNames (Aucott & Southall, 2019). Thus, the resource is very convenient, especially for identifying metonymic chains. It is important to note the fact that, just like on Wikipedia, entries in GeoNames can be edited and corrected, and new names can be added by users.

Regarding Western Sahara, the GeoNames electronic system produces a corpus of 2,280 toponymic units. From this corpus, using the continuous sampling method, we were able to identify 132 toponyms containing Spanish components, which is 5.79% of the total amount. For comparison: in Equatorial Guinea, where the Spanish toponymic heritage is just as strong and multifaceted, this number corresponds to 11% (Martynenko, 2021, p. 37).

At the same time, it is necessary to emphasise that the traditional etymological analysis presented is directed to the past: what, when, and how became a toponym; historical analysis reveals the path of a word from a noun to a proper name, and within proper names from one type to another.

The main purpose of this article is to conduct a linguo-historical analysis of the Hispanic place names of Western Sahara, and to offer its typology, which is important both theoretically and practically for the study of Romance philology, applied linguistics and foreign language teaching.

In the toponymic research of any region in terms of synchrony, the paramount aspects are linguistic and chronological stratigraphy, territorial distribution and the scale of toponymic features, as well as identification of a structural models complex that determines its organisation (Chloupek, 2018). A typology of place names is a flexible and developing entity (Blair & Tent, 2021; Iaroshenko, 2021) and the main questions are the primary motivation, the intention of the naming, and its linguistic expression (Blair & Tent, 2021, p. 34).

Etymology, internal form, morphological structure, derivational and discursive resources of geographical names are not a complete list of issues that are of interest both for traditional toponymic studies and for studies, which include the reconstruction and interpretation of the linguistic picture of the world, i.e., features of the world perception of society fixed in linguistic signs (Chesnokova, 2020, p. 469).

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Western Sahara is a disputed territory on the northwest coast of Africa and in the Maghreb region to the north and beyond. About 20% of the territory is claimed by the self-proclaimed Sahrawi (transliterated into Spanish as ‘Saharaui’ or French as ‘Sahraoui’), Arab Democratic Republic, while the remaining 80% of the territory is considered occupied and administered by neighbouring Morocco. It is one of the most sparsely populated areas in the world, consisting mainly of desert plains and extremely rich in minerals and fish.

Arabic is currently the most widely spoken language of Western Sahara. Its inhabitants speak, like the population of neighbouring Mauritania, a special dialect, *Hassānīya* (Qasmiyeh & Fiddian-Qasmiyeh, 2020).

In Africa during the 14th and 16th centuries Spain captured the Canary Islands (1478) and the cities of Melilla (1492), Mazalukwir, Oran (1509), Algiers (1510), Bejaia (1510), Tripoli (1511 to 1551), and Tunis (1535 to 1569). In 1580-1640 the Spanish colonial empire also included Portuguese colonies: Tangiers, Guinea, Angola, Mozambique, and the Cape Verde Islands. In 1668 Portugal ceded to Spain the city of Ceuta on the Moroccan coast.

By the beginning of the 20th century, however, Spain owned much less territory in Africa: Spanish Guinea, Spanish Sahara, and Spanish Morocco. Spain left Morocco in 1956 and granted independence to Equatorial Guinea in 1968. When Spain left the Spanish Sahara in 1976, the colony was immediately annexed by Morocco and Mauritania, and then in 1980 by Morocco entirely, although technically the territory remained under the control of the Spanish administration by UN decision. Today in Africa the Spanish flag is flying only over the Canary Islands and two enclaves on the North African coast, Ceuta and Melilla, which are administratively part of Spain.

European expansion in the territory of Western Sahara began in the 15th century, when the Portuguese created their strongholds on its coast, mainly for the ex-

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port of black slaves and gold. From the beginning of the 16th century, the Spaniards began trying to establish themselves in the country. Spain's initial interest in the Sahara was centred on using it as a port for the slave trade. However, by the 1700s Spain had refocused economic activity on the Saharan coast towards commercial fishing (Besenyő, 2009, p. 49). Precisely at that time, the Spaniards began the colonisation of the region, attracted by the opportunity to control the trade in gold, salt, and slaves, as well as local fish resources throughout Western Sahara (Vizcaya, 2019).

The Spanish protectorate over the coastal part was officially established only by the decision of the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885. Spain pursued a number of goals, one of which was to protect its owners in the Canary Islands from the raids of African peoples (Porges, 2019). The detachment of Emilio Bonelli took up the settlement of *Villa Cisneros* (now *Dahkla*, founded by the Spaniards in 1502 but abandoned by the end of the 19th century, where the Spaniards erected a fortress as a base for further advance deep into the mainland. This initial garrison had only 25 soldiers, who, due to the hot climate, were replaced once every three months, when a ship arrived from the Canary Islands. Bonelli had lived in Morocco for more than six years. He spoke Arabic fluently and was the leader of communications with the Western tribes. The captain made a proposal to the Spanish government to establish additional coastal strongholds (*Angra de Sintra, Cabo Blanco* and *Río de Oro*) (San Martín, 2010).

The borders of *Río de Oro* were defined by the Treaty between France and Spain of 1900. According to the Treaties between France and Spain of 1904 and 1912, Spain joined the *Río de Oro* territories to the north of the *Cabo Bojador* (now *Cape Boujdour*): *Saguia el-Hamra* and the southern part of Morocco (the so-called Spanish Morocco). Spain completed the capture of the Western Sahara territory only by 1934. After 1939 and the outbreak of World War II, this area was under the control of Spanish Morocco.

In the mid-1930s, under pressure from the French, dissatisfied with the raids of the Sahrawi tribes on the French possessions, the Spaniards took control of the interior of the Sahara, establishing a series of forts with permanent garrisons. In 1940, in a convenient valley 25 kilometres from the ocean, the city of *El Aaiún (Laayoune)* was founded, which became the administrative centre of the Spanish Sahara.

In 1946, Ifni and the Sahara were united as a single colony – the Spanish West Africa. In the Sahara itself, there were not more than 100,000 people, but in Ifni nearly 50,000 citizens lived, one-fifth of whom were Spanish colonists.

The colony received income only from fishing, but not even a tenth of it covered the colony's expenses. The situation began to change only after World War II. In the late 1940s, Spanish geologist Manuel Alia Medina discovered the first phosphate deposits in Bu Kra. Saharan phosphate was characterised by a high degree of enrichment (up to 85%), which made its development commercially viable.

In March 1956, France granted independence to its part of Morocco. Following this, Spain also gave up its protectorate over Spanish Morocco. But it did not intend to give up power over the part of its colonial possessions that were not part of the protectorate. The Moroccans, on the other hand, considered Ifni and the Spanish Sahara (as well as Ceuta and Melilla) as original Moroccan lands taken over by the colonisers. This led to the Ifni War.

After the independence of Morocco in 1956, its government announced its claim to Western Sahara. In 1958, Spain agreed to the reunification of Spanish Morocco with the Kingdom of Morocco. In December 1965, the UN General Assembly called on the government of Spain to immediately take measures for the decolonisation of the territory and the organisation of a referendum under the control of the UN with the aim of providing for the population of Western Sahara the necessary conditions for their self-determination (Camprubí, 2015).

In 1974, Spain agreed to hold a referendum on the fate of Western Sahara, which was opposed by Morocco and Mauritius, considering themselves historically and ethnically connected with this territory. By decision of the UN General Assembly, the issue was referred to the International Court of Justice in The Hague.

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In October 1975, the International Court of Justice recognised that by the time the Spaniards appeared in Western Sahara, it was not 'anyone's territory' (*terra nullius*), and confirmed the existence of historical, geographic and ethnic ties of local tribes both with Morocco and with the tribes of Mauritania (Zunes & Mundy, 2022). Morocco eventually secured *de facto* control over most of the territory, including all major cities and natural resources. Meanwhile, in Spain there is a powerful movement of solidarity with the opposition *Polisario Front*, and pro-Saharan sentiments are predominant in society. Thus, 10,000 Saharan children spend their summers with Spanish families every year. The Spanish public is showing solidarity with its former colony, which is expressed in significant humanitarian assistance provided to refugee camps (Cherkasova, 2012, p. 38). Now-adays, according to the Cervantes Institute annual survey, there are 22,000 Spanish-speaking residents in Western Sahara (Fernández Vítores, 2020).

4. STUDY AND RESULTS

The geographical position and climate of the country dictate their conditions for geonominations on its territory. So, *wadi* (also *wādī, wād* or *Oued*) is the Arabic lexeme for 'river', but it also means the 'river valley' and in general any elongated deepening of the soil, which turns into a stream during the rainy season. The Arabic word for 'river' – *Wadi* or *Wad* – passed into Spanish language as *Gwadi* or *Gwad*, where the names of many Spanish rivers come from (e.g., *Guadalquivir*, from the Moorish name of the river *Al-wādī l-kabīr* 'Great River', *Guadiana, Guadalete, Guadarrama, Guadalajara,* etc.). In general, *Wadi* is an integral part of the names of many rivers, valleys, countries and localities, for example, *Wadi Muza* town (Valley of Moses) in southern Jordan. As a common noun, this lexeme used to refer to river valleys of temporary or periodic water flows, filled, for example, during heavy rains. In Western Sahara, a number of *wadis* are called in Spanish: *Canal Central, Punta Blanca, Punta del Estante*.

Also, due to the climatic conditions of the country, one of the toponymic classes is a *waterhole*. This is a water source in the desert, a natural depression in the ground in which water can collect. In Western Sahara, waterholes have names, and one of them is Spanish: *Canal de La Hoja Llamera*.

In the desert, water is worth its weight in gold, which is why, we suppose, the toponymy of this territory linguistically reflects much respect for its smallest sources and traditions of use. Since Western Sahara is washed by the Atlantic Ocean, *anchorages* are not uncommon in the country. They also have names, such as *Güera, El Monito, Fondeadero de La Monja, Fondeadero del Médano de Santiago*. It's worth mentioning that '*fondeadero*' literally means 'anchorage' in Spanish.

In Western Sahara, even the dunes have names. The dunes nominated in Spanish are *Boca de Jarro, Falso Cabo Blanco, La Mancha Blanca, Las Ballenas, Las Matillas, Médano de Santiago* (*médano* means 'dunes' in Spanish).

The Hispanic toponymy of Western Sahara is very special from linguistic and cultural points of view. Its originality is manifested, along with toponymic classes that are unusual for the embodiment of Spanish place names, in basic topoformants that are different from Spanish geonaming traditions in other parts of the world. In Western Sahara we have identified several distinctive features of the Spanish toponymic vocabulary.

1. The use of the *Bajo* 'low' formant not as an adjective, but as a noun in the meaning of 'shallow water, spit': *Bajo Ahogado, Bajo Aprieta Primo, Bajo Arcila, Bajo de El Carenero, Bajo de La Galeota Grande, Bajo de La Pared, Bajo del Marrajo Chico, Bajo del Marrajo Grande, Bajo del Medio Golfo, Bajo del Puertito, Bajo El Tortugo*.

2. The use of the *Morro* formant (Spanish for 'knob', 'hill', 'impudence') in the meaning of 'cape' for the ends of the land: *Morro Ancla Sur, Morro de San Pedro, Morro del Ancla Chica, Morro del Ancla, Morro Falcon*. It should be noted that the Dictionary of the Royal Academy of the Spanish Language, among other meanings of the word, defines the lexical unit *morro* as *'a steep promontory or cliff that seafarers can use as a landmark'* (Diccionario de la Lengua Española, 2022). In addition, Litvin (1983a) in the Dictionary of Toponymic Vocabulary of Latin America, among others, also indicates the meaning of '*high cape'* (Litvin, 1983, p. 138).

3. Frequent discrepancy between the nominated object and the semantic core of the toponym used. This trend turned out to be characteristic not only for some countries of Latin America, but also for Western Sahara: the shipping channels *Bajo de El Carenero, Bajo de El Tablero, Bajo del Centollo* (*bajo* is Spanish for 'shallow water, spit'); the dunes of *Boca de Jarro, the rocks of Boca de la Aguada, Boca de Sotavento* (*boca* is Spanish for 'mouth'); wadi *Punta Blanca* (*punta* is Spanish for 'cape'), *Río de Oro* bay (*río* is Spanish for 'river').

4. Non-contraction of the *de* preposition with the masculine definite article in some nominations: *Bajo de El Carenero, Bajo de El Tablero, Ensenada de el Puertito, Punta de El Aargub.*

5. Frequent use of the Spanish diminutive suffixes *-ito, -illa*: *Bajo del Puertito, El Camellito, Ensenada de el Puertito, Las Cuevecillas*.

Among the Hispanic place names of Western Sahara, except for the dunes of *Médano de Santiago* and the anchorage of *Fondeadero del Médano de Santiago*, we did not find the names with religious allusions, or the nominations by the names of saints, indications of Catholic holidays, names of missionaries which are very typical for Spanish geographical naming in the New World.

However, we conclude that the reference topoformant *Arciprés* is a transformed unit from *Arcipreste* (Spanish for 'archpriest'), since the lexeme orthographic form *Arciprés* does not occur in any other language. Thus, capes *Arciprés Chico, Arciprés Grande* and lighthouse *Arciprés Grande Light* stand out on the map of Western Sahara.

The hybrid toponymy of Western Sahara with Spanish components consists of names supplemented with formants from Arabic (Wadi *Punta Bu Talha,* shore *Las Matas de Alí,* cape *Punta de El Aargub*), English (lighthouses *Cabo Barbas Light, Cabo Peña Grande Light, El Cabino Light,* cape *Punta Durnford*) and Portuguese (bay *Cabo Corveiro*, mount *Hierro Gorrei*, cape *Morro de Gorrei*) languages, which illustrates the linguistic affiliation of the conquerors of the region.

Among the toponymic hybrids with components from other languages, we find the *Playa de Pikín* beach and the springs of *Pozo Auhaifrit, Pozo Boxibia, Pozo Bu Guffa, Pozo Laiafa, Pozo Yelua*.

On the map of Western Sahara, we found a small layer of English place names. Historically, there was no political presence of the United States and Great Britain in the country, so the circumstances of the origin of these units have yet to be clarified. However, already now, along with Spanish-English hybrid place names, one can note the English names of *Virginia Rock Island, Sugarloaf Hill, Sahara Line Hotel and Garnet Bay*.

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More recently, in the 20th century, Spanish troops carried out a number of punitive operations against the Saharan tribes. The armed struggle of the indigenous inhabitants of Western Sahara did not stop. Many tribes remained unconquered throughout the entire colonial period (Drury, 2018). However, despite the change in the winning language in the country's toponymy and the rejection of Spanish culture at all levels, including the toponymic one, Spanish orthographic norms in the studied toponymic units (stress marks, endings, tildes and other Spanish lexicographic features) are present in 90% of cases.

5. DISCUSSION

We are not sure about the naming language of the two bays of *Angra del Caballo*. From the morphological, and semantic points of view, the nomination *Angra del Caballo* (Spanish for 'bay of horse') definitely has a Spanish origin. However, the presence of the bay of *Angra de Cintra* strengthens our confidence in the Portuguese origin of the toponym, since *Sintra* is a city in Portugal, and it was the Portuguese who were the first Europeans to land on the shores of Western Sahara.

Geonames of Western Sahara containing the *El* article (*El Fersig, El Gaada, El Medna, El Aatf*, etc.) can be mistaken for Spanish-Arabic hybrid or blended toponyms. However, *El* is the Arabic romanised definite article *Al*. Thus, such nominations hardly have something to do with the Arabic language and the Spanish toponymic heritage.

The units *Güera* ('anchorage') and *Punta Güera* ('depression') attract attention with their unusual spelling. The conclusion suggests the presence of Mexican-

Spanish colloquial vocabulary for a fair-haired girl. *Güera* is a Mexicanism that is also used by the US Chicanos (the Hispanic population of the Southwestern United States who settled these lands in the 16th and 19th centuries during the period of Spanish colonisation). The name *La Güera* actually comes from the Spanish word *Agüera*, which means a ditch through which rainwater enters the crops. Note the presence of the ghost town of *La Güera* at the southern tip of Western Sahara. It is the southernmost city of the country, located south of the Moroccan Wall and technically abandoned.

The extended Russian Encyclopaedia (2022) points out that the city of *Río de Oro* (Spanish for 'golden river') was founded by the Portuguese in the 15th century. Our study results concur with the time of the foundation of the settlement. However, we support the idea of the Spanish etymology of the nomination, since the 'golden river' in Portuguese is graphically distinguished by one letter in each noun: *R**í**o de Oro* vs *R**i**o de O**u**ro*.

6. CONCLUSION

The structural and grammatical analysis of modern heterogeneous Hispanic toponymy in Western Sahara has made it possible to identify not only the most viable and productive models and toponym-forming means on the scale of the entire language system, but also rare forms of Spanish place names and hybrid toponyms.

Stratigraphic and typological analysis of the Spanish layer in the toponymic system of Western Sahara shows the presence of diverse Spanish lexemes describing local geographic features. Spanish elements in Western Sahara's context manifest culturally the bond in the use of lexemes *bajo, morro*, and the discrepancy between the named place and the semantic core of the primary meaning of the toponym, the abundance of diminutive suffixes, proper rather for Latin American communicative strategies and linguistic world view, and special patterns for Spanish-Arabic blended place names.

The diverse Hispanic layer in the context of Western Sahara's toponymy is a reflection of the country's contradictory colonial past.

The results of lexical analysis are noteworthy: the transparency of the semantics of Hispanic place names makes it possible to trace the very process of the emergence and formation of names, their motivation, that is, the socio-psychological patterns of the nomination process.

The research into the linguacultural specifics of Hispanic place names in Western Sahara is significant for international relations between the Spanish-speaking and Arabic-speaking business partners, as well as for comprehension of the existing forms of Spanish, it being a semiotic and communicative system, and teaching Spanish language and culture.

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Book Reviews

McCarthy's field guide to grammar (a review)

Original work by Michael McCarthy published by Chambers 2021

Reviewed by Barry Tomalin

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A popular guest editor of Training, Language and Culture and author of the best-selling Cambridge Grammar of English, Linguist and Professor Michael McCarthy is an excellent guide to many of the issues researchers and writers have to face when using the English language and especially when preparing academic papers. The *Field Guide to Grammar* addresses a number of grammatical features which regularly confuse learners and language users. Items are presented in alphabetical order from A to Z and with an index at the end for ease of reference. The author also includes a glossary of basic grammar terminology, including what we mean by word classes, phrases, clauses, cases, transitive and intransitive verbs, active and passive voice, main and subordinate clauses and sentences. So, a guide of real value to teachers of English, not just for researchers and writers. And indeed, *so* is one of the items McCarthy discusses in the book. Used as a way of introducing a conclusion or summing up, especially in spoken presentations and interviews, it is the equivalent of *well* and can also be used to introduce a new topic as in *'So, let's explore what the book contains'*.

What exactly is a *Field Guide* and how is it different from a more traditional grammar? McCarthy has spent years as part of his work doing field work, examining books, articles, broadcasts and conversations and noting down how the English language is actually used in daily life. In doing so he has noted the difference between grammar as we learn it from books in school and at university and popular usage, as the language is used in real life. After explaining the differences, as a leading grammarian he is able to advise on whether we should stick to conventional grammar or accept the popular usage. Throughout the book he gives examples from his field work of how the language is being used, including 'field notes' labelled with the initials *fn*.

Grammar divides into two main areas, prescriptive grammar and descriptive grammar. Prescriptive grammar tells you what you ought to say and write and is found in grammars and textbooks. Descriptive grammar is about what people actually say and write, which may not conform to the rules we learn about and observe in prescriptive grammar. Two of the features that have affected our use of English grammar are the globalisation of English as a lingua franca which means the language changes according to the national community using it and also changes in language usage and register (choosing a style appropriate to the context). The English language has always been open to loan words from different language communities. So, for example, we use many words from other English-speaking countries, such as India, Nigeria, South Africa, Australia and so

'McCarthy has spent years as part of his work doing field work, examining books, articles, broadcasts and conversations and noting down how the English language is actually used in daily life. In doing so he has noted the difference between grammar as we learn it from books in school and at university and popular usage, as the language is used in real life. After explaining the differences, as a leading grammarian he is able to advise on whether we should stick to conventional grammar or accept the popular usage'

on. The key influence on British English has been American English, the language as it is used in social media and movies and TV networks introducing major changes in usage into British English. One import is the placing of prepositions after a vowel. Instead of *wait* you often hear the US form, *wait up*, especially among younger users.

We have adopted the word *guys* as a unisex casual way of greeting people as in *'Hey, you guys. How are you doing?'*, instead of *'Hello everybody, how are you?'* You'll hear or read the expressions *double down on*, meaning 'to emphasise something and do more of it' in politics and especially on broadcast and social media. Nowadays, instead of *contacting* people we *reach out* to them and we *roll out* new products and projects rather than *market* them or *spread the word* about them.

What I didn't know was that many expressions used in American English were actually introduced from Britain but are no longer part of current British English. For example, when we say *Monday to Friday*, in America they say *Monday through Friday* which was what the British used to say in the 18th century.

The American English expression *real good* (*really good* in British English) comes from Scottish Englishm and the common American English valediction *enjoy* rather than *enjoy yourself* now appears to be equally popular in both countries. Also, in spoken English American pronunciation has affected the way speakers of British English talk, particularly word stress. McCarthy gives a number of examples where British English speech puts the stress on the second syllable of a two-syllable word where American English puts the stress on the first syllable, e.g. (UK) *Bagh'dad* but (US) *'Baghdad*. He goes on to say that many Brits (British English speakers) get mildly annoyed by Americanisms as they are called as an amusing cartoon illustrates. The author's advice is say or write what comes naturally but be aware that some British readers, especially the older generation, may get annoyed.

A number of McCarthy's observations concern punctuation. For example, when in practice do you need hyphens? McCarthy takes the example of compound adjectives, when two words are placed together to create an adjective as in a two-syllable word above. However, if I make a sentence like *'Many words are formed of two syllables'*, no hyphen is needed.

As a result of social media and communication via Tik Tok and Instagram, to name just two, abbreviations are now much more common, as in *LOL* (laugh out loud), *IMHO* (in my humble opinion), *TBH* (to be honest) and one I use a lot in emails – *BTW* (by the way). McCarthy's advice in this matter? Maybe we should be careful not to use TBH and IMHO in more formal situations.

Spelling can cause problems between British and American English, particularly whether some words should have a *-c* or an *-s*. Good examples cited by McCarthy are *defence* (UK) and *defense* (US), *offense* (US) and *offence* (UK). Sometimes, the use of the American English spelling rather than the British English spelling seems to be down to the computer, which selects the US English spelling by default (my conclusion not McCarthy's). But it is always important to double check the typing if you are writing in British English. A similar problem occurs with the endings *our* (British English) and *or* (American English) as in *labour* (UK) and *labor* (US). What is important is to recognise which 'language' you are writing in, UK or US English, and check the spelling accordingly.

A key problem, even for fluent non-native speakers, is usage. What do people actually say in different situations? One issue that McCarthy deals with is how English speakers express vagueness. Words like *whatever* as in *'What shall we do? We can go to the cinema or whatever'*, meaning 'something like that'. Once again US and UK English come together. Another example is the phrase *bits and pieces*, as in *'I'm going to buy some bits and pieces at the supermarket. You know, fruit and vegetables and stuff'*. The words *and stuff* as an informal equivalent for *etc.* (etcetera) is now in common use but, as McCarthy advises, check that the expression is appropriate to the situation and the level of formality.

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Business jargon plays a big part in changes in English usage. A cartoon in the book dramatises the situation when a young couple discuss their holiday. The man's partner is using international business expressions to describe the holiday plans. In the cartoon the man looks very confused as he hears, *'Going forward I'll keep you across some blue-sky thinking I've been doing about our vacation this year, so we can diarize the best weeks and leverage the potential low season offers'*. In other words, *'As things develop I'll make sure I tell you about some original ideas I've had about our holiday this year so we can put the best weeks to travel in our diaries and take advantage of the low season offers'*. *Low season* means the period outside the main part of the year when most people go on holiday and is a time when hotel prices etc. are lower. High season is the peak of the holiday season.

So punctuation, Americanisms vs. Britishisms, differences in language usage and especially the difference between formal grammar and informal grammatical changes linked to the situation you are in, as well as confusions between words and phrases, make the *Field Guide to Grammar* an essential, practical and enjoyable guide to how English is changing and how to adapt. If you are an English language teacher, researcher or writer use it to check the English you are using suits the situation and expresses clearly what you want to say. Above all, enjoy!

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Book Reviews

Reflecting on leadership in language education (a review)

Original work by Andy Curtis (Ed.) published by Equinox Publishing 2022

Reviewed by Maurice Cassidy

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This is a very interesting book which covers and promotes the role of reflective practice or, as some call it, reflexivity, in language teaching and leadership in education. Reflective practice involves devoting time to thinking about your work, examining what has gone well and what could have gone better and deciding how you can improve your performance.

The editor and organiser of the book is Andy Curtis, Professor of Graduate Education at Anaheim University in the USA and one-time President of the TESOL international organisation. The book is part of a series on reflective practice with Thomas Farrell of Brock University as series editor.

The book is organised into four parts with an introduction and conclusion by Andy Curtis. The topics of the four parts are *Learning from the life stories of others*, *The multiplicity of meanings of reflective practice*, *The challenges of doing reflective practice* and *Reflecting on leadership challenges in language education*.

Aware of the danger of what he describes as 'exclusionary academic language' which often fails to communicate with practising teachers, Andy Curtis adopts a policy of narrative disclosure, which he defines as giving examples from his life to illustrate the points he is making. To do this he enlists the services of a group of leaders in language education and gets them to give their views on the four topics on reflective practice described above. The book asks what effective leadership in language education involves and focuses on the reflection of ten reflective teacher leaders. The ten leaders in language education are leaders in class, in school and in teaching organisations.

Each chapter begins with a brief introduction to the topic under discussion by Andy Curtis followed by the contributions of the ten contributors (including Andy himself) reflecting on their experience and their ideas. Each chapter concludes with references and a brief contributor biography. Apart from Andy Curtis himself, the contributors to the book are Okon Effiong, Christel Broady, Leo Mercado, Marjorie Rosenberg, Rosemary Orlando, Rosa Aronson, Deborah Healey, Neal Anderson and Kathleen Bailey. An interesting and useful practical activity is included in the *Reflective Breaks* which punctuate the interviews and invite the readers to reflect on their own knowledge, experiences and ideas regarding RP (reflective practice) and LiLE (Leadership in Language Education). There are 62 Reflective Breaks, offering excellent guidelines for a teacher training course in reflective practice, not just about leadership but about the practice itself and how to manage your life and career as a teacher of languages.

So, what do we learn? In Chapter 1, *Learning from the Life Stories of Others*, Andy Curtis sums up the ideas of his interviewees as follows: (1) it is never too early

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for a teacher to start thinking about a leadership role – even if they think they will never achieve it; (2) it is never too late to start your leadership journey; (3) build resilience, determination and perseverance, all essential leadership qualities; (4) leaders in language education often follow different paths to their peers, and this may make the journey more difficult but also more rewarding; (5) diversity is a strength but with it also comes the challenge of understanding ourselves and the world around us.

Andy Curtis also mentions Accelerated Language Learning, which he says, *'May be more myth than method',* and warns users of accelerated language learning to, '*beware of burnout'*.

Kathleen Bailey, another former president of TESOL, reflected interestingly on some of the key skills she had learned. The first was interpersonal skills, the second was management and leadership skills, the third was professional communication skills, and the fourth was time management. All valuable lessons for teachers, trainers and leaders in education.

In the Reflective Breaks at the end of Chapter 1 readers are asked to write a no more than one-page summary of where they are in their professional lives, how they got to this point and where they would like to be in the future. In another reflective break they are asked to say what images, metaphors or analogies would describe their journeys as language teachers. So, Reflective Breaks allow teachers to reflect on their progress and performance but also encourages them to use their creativity and imagination in expressing their thoughts.

Chapter 2 explores the meaning of reflective practice and compares it with two other important management disciplines that have come into prominence in recent years – mindfulness and metacognition. Mindfulness is being in the present, a practice that derives from Buddhist philosophy, but which was popularised internationally by Jon Kabat-Zinn. Metacognition is the understanding of your own thought processes and patterns and using that knowledge to solve problems. Summarising the views of the contributors to the topic of the definition of reflective practice Curtis says: (1) reflective practice means different things to different people so it is essential to be clear about what it means for you; (2) to be effective it means the conscious setting aside of time for reflection; (3) it is not a quick or easy solution but it has important results both for the way we teach and in our career development; (4) think of reflective practice in relation to metacognition and mindfulness,

'Chapter 4, in which the contributors reflect on leadership challenges in language education, yields new insights. Curtis focuses on psychological issues as well as organisational concerns. Embracing the fear of doing something different, staying focused and open and not being afraid of making mistakes and trying to avoid uncertainty are some of the issues the contributors address. They also stress the importance of building trust, being prepared to let go and keeping a sense of humour even when challenging assumptions or dealing with criticism'

as it will help you become a more conscious and self-aware learner, teacher and leader; (5) data gathering of all kinds is useful in reflective practice; (6) think of reflective practice as a deliberate stepping back so we see both the big picture and the detail at the same time so that we can learn lessons from it.

In response to the third topic, the challenges of doing reflective practice, Curtis summarises the responses of his contributors like this: (1) he re-emphasises the point about devoting dedicated time to reflective practice; (2) he suggests reading not just research in language education but also in other areas to gain knowledge; (3) on data collection he stresses the importance of getting feedback from the classroom, using audio and videos, journal entries and teaching portfolios; (4) he also stresses the value of receptive practice mentors; (5) next, he emphasises the importance of learning to set reflective practice goals; and finally (6) to balance the moment to moment interactions in the classroom with the 'big picture', long terms aims.

Chapter 4, in which the contributors reflect on leadership challenges in language education, yields new insights. Curtis focuses on psychological issues as well as organisational concerns. Embracing the fear of doing something different, staying focused and open and not being afraid of making mistakes and trying to avoid uncertainty are some of the issues the contributors address. They also stress the importance of building trust, being prepared to let go and keeping a sense of humour even when challenging assumptions or dealing with criticism. In the process, he gives references from management and psychological studies to reinforce the points made.

In the final chapter, Curtis recaps the lessons learned by the contributors and makes a number of concluding remarks. First, language education needs to be much more aware of the importance of reflective practice in improving the quality of academic leaders in language education. Secondly, there tends to be a 'silo effect' separating the study of reflexive practice from academic studies of applied languages and teaching methodology. This needs to be overcome. Thirdly, he stresses the need for better training in management skills of leaders in language education and finally, he notes the huge impact on reflective impact of the introduction of new technologies.

Reflective practice is already an important concept in education and in management and is likely to increase in importance as an essential skill and attitude of mind for teachers, trainers and leaders in language education. This addition to Equinox Publishing's expanding list of studies of the role of reflective practice in language education is important for researchers and for teachers in administrative and leading teaching and teacher training roles. As well as its extensive use of reference its dynamic quality comes from the actual reflections of leaders in language education about their lives, their teaching and their working in running teaching organisations.

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News & Events

RUDN University News

Topical Issues of Linguistics and Teaching Methods in Business and Professional Communication

10th International Research Conference Topical Issues of Linguistics and Teaching Methods in Business and Professional Communication is scheduled to take place April 22-23, 2022.

This year, the conference will convene in mixed format due to the restriction of face-to-face events. Conference Proceedings featuring participants' report theses will be published in Russian at the pre-opening stage. Upon conference completion participants are invited to submit papers in English to be further published as part of Collected Papers (European Publisher, indexation in Web of Science). Papers in English are to be submitted by May 10, 2022.

Three papers selected by the Organising Committee will also have the opportunity for publication in Training, Language and Culture indexed in Scopus. All contributors are requested to register online using our Registration Form at https://lspconference.ru/register.html and attach their report theses/papers.

For detailed information on the speakers, plenary sesstions, round table discussions, contact details and more, please visit the conference website at https://lspconference.ru. For any inquiries, please contact conference representatives at flangs@mail.ru.

RUDN University Has Joined the Global Community of edX Partners

edX is a software platform that brings together the best universities in the world to create courses for everyone. RUDN University has already launched 11 free online courses on the edX platform: 7 in Russian and 4 in English. The university's professional certification programme is scheduled for launch in the nearest future along with some new online courses.

'We are pleased to welcome RUDN University to the edX partner consortium. A huge advantage is that RUDN University is a classic educational institution that provides courses on various topics from medicine to architecture, from project management to literature. Providing high quality and accessible learning content is part of the edX mission and we are excited to bring RUDN University courses to our global community of over 40 million learners,' said Anant Agarwal, edX founder and Director of Open Education at 2U.

RUDN University Linguists Have Proposed a New FL Teaching Methodology in the Field of Professional Communication

To illustrate the new methodology, RUDN University linguists demonstrated the algorithm in their own professional field of foreign language learning.

The first stage is the formation of a raw base, the foundation. Here, linguists have identified five basic concepts – education, language, multiculturalism, culture, and knowledge.

The second step is to understand the meaning of these elements. To do this, linguists create an axiological tree for each concept. For example, Education is associated with 12 concepts – learning, rules, experience, system, information, etc. Each of them branches further. For example, the concept of System is associated with Structure and Method among others.

At the next stage, the connections between the 'branches' of the tree are studied. Finally, based on the obtained 'map', the real use of the professional language is analysed – what terms are used, what 'branch' they belong to and how they are combined with each other.

This results in a better understanding of the laws and culture of professional foreign language speech.

High-Profile and Well-Deserved Awards for University Staff

Over 30 employees of Peoples' Friendship University of Russia have received awards from the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, the Federal Financial Monitoring Service, Certificates of Honour from the RUDN University Academic Council, and Letters of Appreciation from the Rector of the University.

The award ceremony took place on February 28 at a meeting of the RUDN University Academic Council.

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TLC News

TLC Welcomes New Members of the Editorial and Advisory Boards

Training, Language and Culture is proud to welcome new members of the Editorial and Advisory Boards: Dr Wayne Rimmer of University of Manchester (UK), Dr Zrinka Friganović Sain of Rochester Institute of Technology (Croatia), and Dr Jean Langlois of Sciences Po (France).

Dr Wayne Rimmer is coordinator of International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), author of teaching materials and resource books published by Cambridge University Press. Doctor of Philology in Applied Linguistics at the University of Manchester, UK.

Dr Zrinka Friganović Sain is CSc in Linguistics, Professor at Rochester Institute of Technology Croatia, Dpt of Modern Languages and Cultures. Master of Science in Comparative Literature, University of Zagreb, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences. Research interests cover foreign language teaching, comparative literature, and migrant literature.

Dr Jean Langlois is former associate researcher at CHART Research Centre (Human & Artificial Cognition, EPHE/Paris VI/Paris VIII), and a researcher at the National Institute for Research in Digital Sciences and Technology-INRIA. Taught one of the first courses in France on the impact of language on decision making, New Trends in Decision Making Science: Transdisciplinary and Transcultural Perspectives, with Zydney Wong at Sciences Po (2019). Currently works on the translation of several Chinese classics on strategy. Holds a Certification in Sanskrit from Karl Jaspers Centre for Advanced Transcultural Studies (Heidelberg University), a Masters in Cognitive Science and Psychology from Paris VIII University and a PhD in Mathematical Economics from PSL/ EHESS. Currently a student of the Executive Global Master in Management from LSE (London/Beijing/Bangalore). Research interests cover cognitive science, languages and culture.

TLC Editorial Board is composed of prominent international scholars who help oversee procedures for manuscript submission, acceptance, release, and publication, as well as the criteria for peer review and other editorial matters. This is a highly experienced and well-respected team of experts who take an active part in defining and following the journal's aims, scope, policies and editorial coverage. TLC editorial team is happy to welcome the new members of the Editorial and Advisory Boards and are looking forward to future fruitful cooperation.

Applying to TLC Review Panel

Authors who have benefited from the peer review process are invited to consider becoming peer reviewers as a part of their professional responsibilities.

Training, Language and Culture requires a semi-formal process of appointment to the review panel, meaning that anyone interested in becoming a reviewer for Training, Language and Culture can do so by sending a request in free form to info@tlcjournal.org.

Aspiring reviewers need to include in their request the general information about their professional background, affiliation, the scope of their expertise, their recent and/or most notable publications, as well as any personal and professional information that is accurate and a fair representation of their expertise, including verifiable and accurate contact information.

At Training, Language and Culture, we are always looking forward to extend our expert reviewer pool for the benefit of a more expedient, thorough and comprehensive publication process.

Submitting Book Reviews to TLC

Training, Language and Culture invites contributors to submit book reviews on relevant issues. A book review should present an objective critical assessment of the books revealing their merits and/or drawbacks in terms of their contribution to the relevant field of science within the range of the journal focus areas. Book reviews should follow the same format and style requirements as articles, the length being 1,500 to 2,000 words.

The review should introduce the reader to the book's content and focus on the subject of the book being reviewed. Reviewers need to include an exposition of how the book fits into the current thinking on the subject (e.g., a novel approach, an introduction, a magisterial review, the finest book on the subject ever written, etc.) and avoid repeating its table of contents; rather, give the reader some idea of the author's thesis and how they develop it.

If the book is an edited collection of essays, or chapters by different individuals, reviewers need to give some idea of the overall theme and content, but be free to focus on specific chapters they consider particularly significant or worthwhile. A review should inform the reader about what is happening in the area of academic activity the book addresses; what the state of knowledge is in the subject; and how this new book adds, changes, or breaks new ground in our knowledge of this subject. The review should be fair to the author, convey the content of the book (not chapter by chapter so much as the entire book), include pungent or revealing quotations from the book or notable findings.

Reviewers are expected to establish their authority to write the review, not point out the author's flaws, but display in a detailed and instructive way their expertise on the subject. It is essential to keep in mind the reader of the review or the audience of the book and focus on what this readership might be looking for. Judgments can be made more convincing by quoting examples from the book. It is also imperative for reviewers to be honest while writing a review and whilst concluding it.

Training, Language and Culture encourages the reviewers to acknowledge their work as big responsibility because it can influence a reader's decision of either choosing or rejecting the book.

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