TRAINING, LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

'A word is a microcosm of human consciousness.'

– Lev Vygotsky

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Introduction to Issue 7(3)

by Editor-in-Chief Elena N. Malyuga

Welcome to the September issue of Training, Language and Culture. This issue explores a diverse range of topics at the intersection of language, culture, communication, and education to contribute to the ongoing dialogue in the respective areas of inquiry. The research incorporated in this issue contributes a unique perspective to the field of linguistics, communication, and language instruction and will hopefully inspire further exploration and discussion, ultimately benefiting educators, researchers, and language learners alike.

In *Probing the relationship among reading anxiety, mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading comprehension ability of Iraqi intermediate and advanced EFL learners*, Hussein Kareem Alsharhani, Behzad Ghonsooly and Elham Naji Meidani explore the relationship between mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading anxiety, and reading comprehension ability among Iraqi intermediate and advanced English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. By employing a mixed-methods approach, the study investigates the impact of these factors on reading comprehension and specifies learners' attitudes toward them. The findings underscore the importance of creating a relaxed and secure learning environment for EFL learners and suggest important observations for educators seeking to enhance reading comprehension in language learners. By uncovering the dynamics between cognitive processes and emotional factors in language learning, this work points to the holistic approach required to empower learners and enrich their educational experiences.

In *(Digital) empathising: (De-)constructing (digital) empathy in foreign language teaching*, Isabelle S. Thaler looks into the evolving landscape of empathy in foreign language teaching, with a specific focus on the digital realm. As digital technologies reshape the way learners interact and communicate in foreign languages, the concept of empathy also takes on new dimensions. The author explores the significance of empathy in digital spaces, offering a preliminary model of (digital) empathising. This model encompasses emotional, cognitive, and communicative empathising, highlighting the importance of adapting empathy to various contexts and modes of communication. In addition to illuminating the evolving landscape of empathy in foreign language teaching, Isabelle S. Thaler's research provides a crucial framework for educators to navigate the nuanced realm of digital empathy, emphasising its essential role in fostering meaningful language interactions in today's technologically-driven world. By acknowledging the multifaceted nature of (digital) empathising, educators can effectively guide learners in building cross-cultural connections and enhancing their linguistic and intercultural competencies.

In *English for Specific Purposes: Tailoring English language instruction for history majors*, Asya S. Akopova addresses a critical gap in the application of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) within the humanities, particularly history. The study evaluates the effectiveness of an ESP approach tailored to the linguistic needs and characteristics inherent in historical discourse, archaic language, and academic writing. The results demonstrate the significant improvement achieved by history students who received ESP-oriented instruction, highlighting the potential for innovation in English language instruction and the importance of aligning language instruction with the specific demands of learners' fields of study. The research not only advances the field of English for Specific Purposes by addressing the unique linguistic challenges within the humanities but also points to the broader potential for ESP to be tailored to other specialised academic disciplines, offering a promising avenue for improving language education across diverse fields of study. The study's success in enhancing History students' linguistic proficiency through tailored instruction serves as a compelling model for educators seeking to bridge the gap between language learning and specific academic disciplines, promoting effective communication skills in specialised contexts.

In *English dog expressions: Categorisation, structure, attitude, semantic molecules and translatability into Arabic,* Mohammed Farghal and Ahmad S. Haider offer a comprehensive examination of English dog expressions, exploring their categorisation, structure, attitude, semantic components, and translatability into Arabic. The study puts a focus on the conceptual metaphor that associates humans with dogs and provides a rich analysis of a diverse corpus of dog expressions. The findings not only enhance our understanding of linguistic expressions but also contribute data valuable to both non-native English speakers and native English speakers, enriching their lexical competence. Beyond enriching our understanding of linguistic expressions, the study illuminates the complex relationship between language, cultural symbolism, and cross-cultural communication. This research not only benefits non-native English speakers but also provides observations of interest to native English speakers, contributing to their lexical competence and fostering a deeper appreciation of the nuances within language and culture.

In *Colombian national anthem as the dialogicity continuum*, Olga S. Chesnokova investigates Colombia's national anthem from a multi-modal perspective, encompassing lexical, grammatical, and discursive elements. The author explores how the anthem reflects Colombian collective memory and its evolution, exposing the thematic messages conveyed. The study employs a comprehensive approach, including discourse analysis, linguacultural exploration, stylistic analysis, insights from native speakers, and linguistic-semiotic analyses. The findings highlight the anthem's rich discourse, contextual oppositions, metaphors, and its core concepts such as liberty and independence, emphasising the role of precedent phenomena in shaping cultural memory. Olga S. Chesnokova's research on Colombia's national anthem not only unravels the specific linguistic and cultural dimensions of this emblematic song but also serves as a gateway to broader discussions about the role of national symbols in shaping collective identity, the interdisciplinary nature of linguistics, and the

preservation of cultural heritage in an increasingly interconnected world. Moreover, it prompts reflections on the impact of linguistic choices in national anthems, their translation and adaptation, and their influence on social, political, and global contexts, highlighting the nuanced dynamics between language, culture, and national memory.

In *Headline complexes in business articles as a means of opinion manipulation*, Olga V. Aleksandrova and Victoria V. Sibul analyse the role of mass media in shaping public opinion through speech manipulation, particularly focusing on headline complexes in business articles. The authors examine linguistic indicators of speech manipulation within the discrediting strategy, which can manifest explicitly or implicitly. Through linguistic and functional analysis, the study identifies various tactics of direct and indirect accusation, opposition, solidarity, and rejection. The research is a valuable addition to the body of works addressing the linguistic means used by mass media to influence public perception, especially in articles related to economic and political issues. The study deepens our understanding of speech manipulation in mass media and accentuates the ethical and social responsibility of media outlets in shaping public opinion. By unveiling the linguistic tactics behind opinion manipulation, this research highlights the need for media literacy education, enabling the public to critically assess the language and discourse used in news articles, thus empowering individuals to make informed decisions in an information-rich society.

In *The impact of presentation skills on Moroccan engineering students' language abilities*, Soufiane Abouabdelkader, Hassan Abouabdelkader and Khalid Ben Kaddour investigate the influence of technology-assisted presentation skills on the English proficiency of Moroccan Engineering students. Focusing on the ability to define, illustrate, categorise, describe, compare, and analyse engineering concepts, the study employs a mixed-methods approach to assess language development. The findings reveal significant improvements in students' English proficiency post-intervention, highlighting the effectiveness of technology-assisted presentation skills. The study emphasises the importance of integrating these skills into engineering education to enhance academic and professional communication. Beyond academic and professional contexts, this study prompts discussions on the broader integration of technology-enhanced language learning in specialised domains, promoting a holistic approach to language education that prepares students for both technical and linguistic challenges in their future careers.

In *Academic writing details in critical perspective,* Olga A. Suleimanova and Tatiana A. Lykova address the critical aspects of academic writing, focusing on error analysis in academic discourse texts. The authors distinguish between stylistically relevant mistakes and ethics-related errors, offering guidelines for researchers, particularly beginners, on how to improve the presentation of research results. By examining issues related to negations, evaluation markers, syntactic constructions, and academic ethics, this article suggests actionable guidelines to enhance the quality of academic writing across languages. The research not only contributes to the improvement of academic writing but also emphasises the crucial link between linguistic accuracy and ethical considerations in research communication. The examination of ethically marked errors underscores the importance of maintaining integrity and transparency in scholarly discourse, highlighting the ethical dimension of linguistic competence in the academic realm.

Finally, the issue also features Barry Tomalin's review of *Everyday Shakespeare: Lines for life*, and Eman Adil Jaafar's *Introducing stylistic analysis: Practicing the basics* with critical examinations of the original works. As is customary, recent news from RUDN University and TLC finalise the issue.

Training, Language and Culture welcomes contributions in the form of original research articles, book reviews and correspondence. Details are available at rudn.tlcjournal.org. If you have any questions, feel free to contact us at tlcjournal@rudn.ru.

Original Research

Probing the relationship among reading anxiety, mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading comprehension ability of Iraqi intermediate and advanced EFL learners

by Hussein Kareem Alsharhani, Behzad Ghonsooly and Elham Naji Meidani

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While students can benefit from mindfulness and reflective thinking practices in their academic success, few studies grasp the entire scope of individuals' experiences. The current study aimed to investigate the relationship among mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading anxiety, and reading comprehension ability in two groups of lower intermediate and advanced Iraqi EFL learners. The research questions investigated role of mindfulness, reflective thinking, and foreign language reading anxiety in the reading comprehension ability of Iraqi EFL learners as well as the predicative power of these variables in EFL learners' success. The research also examined the effect of these variables on learners' level. Finally, learners' attitudes towards the investigated variables were reported. To meet the objectives of the study, mixed-methods research was employed. A total of 200 Iraqi EFL learners were selected and assigned to the experimental and control groups. Both groups were subjected to the reading anxiety comprehension scale, reflective thinking questionnaire, mindfulness scale, and iBT TOEFL reading tests. Data in the qualitative phase of the study were obtained from the semi-structured interviews. It was found that mindfulness and reflective thinking played a positive role in Iraqi EFL learners' reading comprehension, while reading anxiety could negatively affect it. There was a significant difference between Iraqi lower intermediate and advanced EFL learners concerning their mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading anxiety, and reading comprehension ability. Some of the themes arose from the analysis of the interview included working memory enhancement by mindfulness, meta-cognitive reading by reflective thinking, and fear of frustration by anxiety. In conclusion, variables of mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading anxiety could affect the reading comprehension of EFL Arab learners at advanced and lower intermediate levels. Therefore, teachers are highly recommended to create an atmosphere in which pupils are relaxed and secure.

KEYWORDS: *mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading anxiety, reading comprehension*

1. INTRODUCTION

The ability to comprehend what is being read is a fundamental factor for effective engagement within our society. Reading comprehension entails a multifaceted process between identifying printed symbols and interpreting the meaning behind the symbols (Dennis, 2008; Sobhanifar & Ranjbaran, 2023). In this context, word decoding involves efficient recognition of letters and words, while language comprehension pertains to the skill of grasping lexical information and deriving interpretations at the level of sentences or beyond (Hoover & Gough, 1990). Despite many studies on identifying important linguistic mechanisms and learning strategies for successful reading comprehension (Cutting & Scarborough, 2006), a significant proportion of students still lack effective reading comprehension skills (Lusnig et al., 2023). Therefore, there is a need to consider psychological factors affecting reading comprehension since a readers' failure to control their thinking while reading may impede comprehension and hinder grasping the intended meaning of the writer

(Paris et al., 1991). It can be, therefore, inferred that reading comprehension is affected by psychological constructs as they can exert control over readers' cognitive processes.

One of the factors that is negatively associated with reading comprehension is anxiety. Horwitz (2001) defined anxiety as the subjective feeling of nervousness, tension, apprehension, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. In the context of language learning, foreign language learners are not immune to anxiety (Tasan et al., 2021) and it negatively affects language acquisition at slight, moderate, or extreme levels (Tianjian, 2010). Foreign language anxiety can be distinguished from general anxiety as it is a kind of uneasiness and an anxious state of mind typically caused by the unrivalled nature of the language learning procedure (Suleimenova, 2013). Many researchers have, therefore, examined the role of anxiety in language learning since the early 1970s (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991) in association with concepts, such as language achievement (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009) and willingness to communicate (Tianjian, 2010). Despite numerous studies on the link between anxiety and language learning, much of the attention has been paid to students' progress in the area of speaking, where they have been reported to feel the highest levels of anxiety. It should not be ignored that students' reading skills are adversely correlated with high levels of anxiety symptoms (Ghonsooly & Loghmani, 2012; Grills-Taquechel et al., 2012; Plakopiti & Bellou, 2014). Previous research on reading and anxiety, on the other hand, has mostly concentrated on general anxiety in communities with extreme reading disabilities or in the sense of second language learning (Brantmeier, 2005; Guimba & Alico, 2016; Horwitz, 2001; Mohammadpur & Ghafournia, 2015).

Another contributing factor in reading performance is mindfulness. It is a psychological concept that has garnered theoretical recognition for its effectiveness in anxiety management (Chesney et al., 2006), a non-judgmental, moment-to-moment awareness condition (Kabat-Zinn, 1990) that can develop fresh and effective ideas, artifacts, or solutions (Runco, 2014), regulate emotions, and decrease different kinds of distress (Baer, 2003). Mindfulness can improve attention capacity and attention capacity positively correlates with reading comprehension (Lusnig et al., 2023; Tarrasch et al., 2016). Moreover, mindfulness can improve brain function (Creswell et al., 2007), as well as cognitive abilities, such as working memory (Zeidan et al., 2010), leading to improved reading comprehension (Mrazek et al., 2013). Therefore, mindfulness in reading involves being fully present and engaged with the act of reading, immersing oneself in the words and ideas on the page without distraction. This focused presence enables a deeper connection to the text, fostering a heightened awareness of the author's message and the subtleties of language.

Similarly, reflective thinking encourages individuals to contemplate and analyse what they have read, to pause and ponder the significance of the concepts presented. Reflective thinking is important since it helps students think critically about their own learning and professional growth (Leung & Kember, 2003; Mes-

bah et al., 2022; Phan, 2009; Yanchar et al., 2008). It can improve learners' metacognitive abilities (Lin et al., 2022), promote conceptual understanding (Pei et al., 2020), and enhance their learning engagement (Chen et al., 2019).

Considering reading comprehension, mindfulness offers a solution to the challenge of anxiety hindering reading comprehension. By adopting a mindful approach to reading, EFL learners can become more aware of their emotions and thoughts, effectively addressing any anxiety that may arise. This creates a mental environment that promotes better understanding. Additionally, incorporating reflective thinking into this process enhances engagement. Reflective thinking prompts learners to pause, question their interpretations, and relate the material to their existing knowledge and experiences. This multifaceted approach not only improves comprehension but also empowers learners to manage anxiety, leading to a more profound and peaceful reading experience. As a result, the field of language learning needs to research mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading anxiety in a more comprehensive manner and evaluate the extent to which students' language skills can contribute to developing a complete knowledge of these ideas by taking EFL students' language levels into account (Thompson, 2011). In this regard, the current study aimed to examine the relationships among the variables of mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading comprehension, and reading anxiety by identifying the sources of foreign language reading anxiety to help students manage this type of anxiety. With this in mind, this study sought to answer the following research questions.

1. Do mindfulness, reflective thinking and foreign language reading anxiety play a significant role in the reading comprehension ability of Iraqi EFL learners?

2. Which of the main variables of this study (mindfulness, reflective thinking, foreign language reading anxiety) is a better predictor of reading comprehension ability of Iraqi EFL learners?

3. Are there any statistically significant relationships among mindfulness, reflective thinking, and foreign language reading anxiety of Iraqi EFL learners?

4. Is there any statistically significant difference between Iraqi below intermediate and advanced EFL learners in terms of mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading anxiety, and reading comprehension ability?

5. What are the attitudes of Iraqi EFL learners about the relationship between reading anxiety, mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading comprehension ability?

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The concept of foreign language anxiety was introduced by Horwitz et al. (1986, p. 128) as *'a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process'*. According to Horwitz (2001), a third of all foreign language learners experience language anxiety in varying degrees. Although reading as a component of second/foreign language skill may not sound anxiety-provoking, it cannot be ignored that

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by Hussein Kareem Alsharhani, Behzad Ghonsooly and Elham Naji Meidani

reading is an individual act with great potential for anxiety (Saito et al., 1999). Reading anxiety usually stems from unfamiliarity with the writing systems and cultural material (Ahmad et al., 2013; Saito et al., 1999; Yousef et al., 2014). For instance, Arabic is written from right to left, the alphabet is quite different, negations and articles are not interchangeable, and texts can be united together in the Arabic language. These differences may significantly raise reading anxiety in Arabic-speaking high-schoolers (Farran et al., 2012; Mace, 2008; Tawalbeh, 2013). To alleviate this anxiety, it is crucial for students to comprehend the source of their unease and its effects (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). This leads to the hypothesis that incorporating mindfulness and reflective thinking can positively impact foreign language learners' anxiety. Mindfulness theory is concerned with present-moment awareness, derived from contrasting situations that broaden one's perception of a situation by having an open mind to different viewpoints and concepts (Carson & Langer, 2006). Mindfulness has been proven to improve attentiveness, spatial memory, cognitive function, and attention (Zeidan et al., 2010). According to Langer (2000), mindfulness will culminate in *an increase in competence; a fall in accidents; an improvement in memory, imagination, and good affect; a decrease in stress; and an enhancement in health and life'* (Langer, 2000, p. 220). Mindfulness has been suggested as a way to perform better academically (Rosaen & Benn, 2006; Rosenstreich & Margalit, 2015), keep improving English and math scores on standardised tests (Nidich et al., 2011), and bolster academic achievement in students with learning disabilities (Beauchemin et al., 2008; McCloskey, 2015). Research has also revealed that after completing the mindfulness practice, sustained effects can be found, implying that practicing mindfulness can have a long-term anxiety-relieving effect (Newsome et al., 2012). Studies have indicated that mindfulness-based education is useful in reducing the effect of stress on university students (Regehr et al., 2012).

Reflection is an active, sustained, deliberate appraisal of any notion or professed body of knowledge in light of its premises and outcome (Dewey, 1997). Reflective thinking has two key aspects, as it involves (1) a state of hesitation, indecision, confusion, or psychological complexity from which thinking arises, and (2) a quest for material that would fix the doubt, solve, or try to get rid of the perplexity (Dewey, 1997). Studies have highlighted that reflection involves rational, organised, language-based decision-making processes that also include non-rational, gestalt type operations (Akbari et al., 2010; Korthagen, 2001). Chi (1997) further highlights reflective thinking's capacity to bridge prior and current knowledge through personal observation, allowing for the recognition of new connections and relationships.

The relationship between mindfulness and reflective thinking suggests that these two concepts can synergistically contribute to addressing foreign language reading anxiety. Mindfulness serves as a foundation for cultivating self-awareness, while reflective thinking empowers learners to engage deeply with their experiences and perceptions. Both strategies equip learners with tools to manage and reduce anxiety, thereby enhancing their reading comprehension and overall language learning journey. In the context of foreign language learning, the integration of mindfulness and reflective thinking offers a promising approach to fostering a more effective learning experience.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS
3.1. Research design
To address these research questions, the study employs a mixed-methods research design. The primary aim of this design is to comprehensively explore the roles of mindfulness, reflective thinking, and foreign language reading anxiety in the reading comprehension abilities of Iraqi EFL learners. Additionally, the study seeks to uncover the relationships among these variables and discern any disparities between intermediate and advanced-level Iraqi language learners. The data for this phase of the study were collected using questionnaires for each investigated variable. Three questionnaires were used to collect data. Furthermore, to provide a deeper and more nuanced understanding, qualitative data was gathered through interviews.

3.2. Participants
A total of 200 EFL Iraqi male and female learners studying at English language institutes in al Qadisiya city, Iraq, participated in this study. The participants were recruited using convenience sampling due to the accessibility criteria. Of the total, 100 students were lower-intermediate and 100 were advanced-level learners. The participants were within the age range of 20-28 years. They were all originally from Iraq, and their mother tongue was Arabic.

To collect the data, the researchers had instructors' permission for administering the questionnaires during class time. English versions of the questionnaires were distributed among the learners and the participants filled out the questionnaires in the classroom. Before distributing the questionnaires, the researchers briefed the participants on the study's goals and gave them an estimate of how long it would take them to complete the questionnaires (about 60 minutes). Students were also assured that their participation would be voluntary, anonymous, would not affect their grades in any way, and that their anonymity and confidentiality would be protected.

3.3. Instrumentations
3.3.1. Langer mindfulness scale
The first instrument used in the current study was the Langer Mindfulness Scale (LMS) which examines the respondents' level of mindfulness. This scale was developed by Pirson et al. (2012). This 14-item scale assesses three components, namely novelty searching, novelty making, and interaction. These factors are rated on a seven-point Likert scale with notations ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The scale has the reasonable internal consistency, with alphas ranging from .80 to .90.

3.3.2. Reflective thinking questionnaire

The second data collection instrument employed in the present study was the Reflective Thinking Questionnaire adopted from Kember (2000). It contains 16 items for the respondents to engage in reflective thinking. This version of the questionnaire includes four subscales of habitual action, understanding, reflection, and critical reflection. The items are on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (definitely disagree) to 5 (definitely agree). The reliability and validity of the questionnaire were estimated by Ghanizadeh and Jahedizadeh (2017) in their study. The reliability was calculated by Cronbach Alpha to be .81. They found the reliability estimate of each subscale, and they were reported as habitual action (.78), understanding (.84), reflection (.80), and critical reflection (.74).

3.3.3. Foreign language reading anxiety scale

Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) was the third instrument used in this study. It measures a learner's anxiety and fears when s/he is unable to comprehend a text in an EFL/ESL context. Saito et al. (1999) developed this questionnaire of 20 items, each of which was answered on a five-point Likert-type scale. The scale has the internal consistency coefficient of .86 using Cronbach's alphas.

3.3.4. Reading comprehension test

Finally, the cloze test was derived from reliable and credible reading passages of iBT TOFEL to assess EFL earners' reading comprehension. The deletion method which is based on Klein-Braley (1997) eliminates every nth word (where n refers to the number of deleted words that is normally between the fifth and tenth word of a sentence in the text). According to Jonz and Oller (1994), word deletion should begin and end with an unchanged sentence. This cloze test was chosen for a target population of L2 English learners with levels ranging from lower-intermediate to advanced.

3.4. Procedures

The study was conducted from 2021 to 2022. To enhance the validity of the research instruments in the context of Iraqi EFL learners, a rigorous process of adaptation and translation was undertaken. Given the potential impact of cultural nuances and language proficiency on participants' responses, the instruments were scrutinised for their appropriateness within the Iraqi cultural and linguistic context. The LMS, Reflective Thinking Questionnaire, and FLRAS were adapted through a systematic process of translation and cultural adaptation. Expert linguists proficient in both English and Arabic languages were engaged to ensure accurate translation while preserving the intended meaning of the items. Following translation, three Iraqi language experts reviewed the items for cultural relevance and linguistic appropriateness. Based on their feedback, necessary refinements were made to the instruments to enhance their suitability for Iraqi participants. The reflective thinking questionnaire was administered to lower-intermediate and advanced Iraqi EFL learners to determine its relationship with their reading ability. Participants gave informed consent to be part of the study. Next, groups of participants were subjected to LMS to investigate the relationship between their mindfulness and reading comprehension. During the same session, FLRAS scale was employed to determine how reading anxiety is related to students' reading abilities. Both groups of participants were subjected to these surveys. Finally, a reading comprehension test was conducted to determine if there was a relationship between mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading anxiety level, and reading comprehension ability.

First, actual texts were excerpted and evaluated. Then, two texts were chosen from iBT TOEFL (Educational Testing Service, 2007). The Flesch Readability Formula was used to determine their readability. This test was chosen for L2 English learners with lower intermediate and advanced levels and was administered at the end of the semester. Students had 20 minutes to finish the reading. The Cochran formula was used to determine the number of interview participants. This formula is as follows:

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}}$$

where N signifies population size, and $n0$ denotes the required return sample size according to Cochran's formula.

According to the formula, 22 participants were selected for the qualitative study. In a semi-structured interview, the first researcher probed into learners' attitudes concerning the relationship between mindfulness, reading anxiety, and their reading comprehension ability. At this point, a number of questions related to each of these factors were developed and posed by the researchers (Appendix 1).

The obtained data were analysed using SPSS software (version 23). First, descriptive statistics (frequency, mean and standard deviation) were used for the quantitative research questions. After running Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test, a set of Pearson-product moment correlation was employed to address the first three research questions. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was performed to answer research questions 4 and 5 using Lisrel software by modelling the interrelationship among the investigated variables. For the sixth research question, an independent samples t-test was run. To answer the last question, the researchers conducted the interviews and transcribed the respondents' answers until they reached saturation. Then, the collected data was coded. Codes were separated into concepts, then themes (or categories). The researchers retrieved the codes and evaluated them in MAXQDA software. The study's quantitative and qualitative data was then presented in tables and figures.

4. RESULTS

Table 1 tabulates the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test to check the normality of the data. As can be seen all of the stated variables met the normality assumption since a value of more than .05 is indicative of an inclination toward normality.

Table 1
Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for the normality of data

	READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY	MINDFULNESS	REFLECTIVE THINKING	READING ANXIETY
N	200	200	200	200
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	1.346	1.262	1.510	0.690
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.165	0.231	0.177	0.728

In order to answer the first research question of the study, the researchers performed a correlational analysis of students' mindfulness and reading comprehension ability with respect to their filled-out questionnaires. Table 2 shows the correlations between mindfulness and reading comprehension ability. As can be seen, mindfulness correlated positively with the reading comprehension ability of Iraqi students. Table 3 indicates the relationship between students' reflective thinking and their reading comprehension ability using Pearson-Product moment. The as-sociation between students' reflective thinking and reading comprehension ability was significant (r [200] =.57, p =.00), showing a relationship. Accordingly, reflective thinking can improve EFL learners' reading comprehension.

Regarding the third research question, Iraqi EFL students' reading anxiety was adversely associated with their reading abilities (r [200] = -.40, p =.00). So, a negative association between reading comprehension and reading anxiety was established (Table 4).

Table 2
Correlations between mindfulness and reading comprehension ability

		READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY
	Pearson Correlation	0.62
Mindfulness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00*
	N	200

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3
Correlations between reflective thinking and reading comprehension ability

		READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY
	Pearson Correlation	0.57
Reflective thinking	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00*
	N	200

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4

Correlations between reading anxiety and reading comprehension ability

		READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY
	Pearson Correlation	-0.4
Reading anxiety	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00*
	N	200

*. *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

Figure 1 shows the factor coefficients and path coefficients to examine the predictors of reading comprehension ability. To answer the fourth research question, and based on the literature, reflective thinking and mindfulness are the two main psychological factors that can determine one's L2 reading ability.

Anxiety negatively affects learners' language achievement (Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003). SEM predicts reading comprehension using only these parameters and was used to investigate the predictive capacity of psychological states on EFL readers' comprehension. Model's arrows reflect the scholars' assumptions.

Chi-Square=1946.95, df=1218, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.055
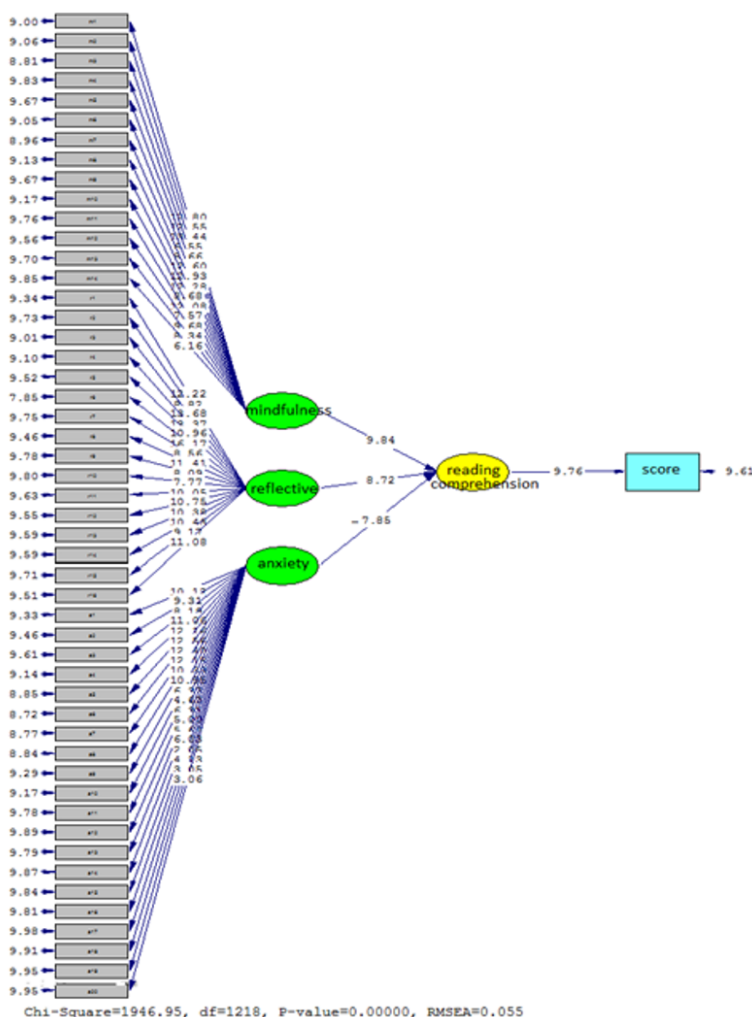
Figure 1. Factor coefficients and path coefficients to examine the predictors of reading comprehension ability

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The analysis of data indicated a positive path coefficient between mindfulness and reading comprehension (0.63). The t statistic was 9.84, which was more than 1.96; therefore, with 95% confidence, it could be inferred that the path coefficient was significant at the 0.05 level and that mindfulness had a favourable influence on reading comprehension. The path coeffi- cient between reflective thinking and reading comprehension was equal to 0.58, which was a positive value. The t statistic was 8.72, which was more than 1.96, thus, there was a significant and positive link between reflective thinking and reading com- prehension. Reflective thinking improved reading comprehen- sion (Table 5).

Table 5

The Results of SEM for three variables of mindfulness, reflective thinking, and anxiety

THE RELATIONSHIP		PATH COEFFICIENTS	t-value
Mindfulness	Reading Comprehension	0.63	9.84
Reflective thinking	Reading Comprehension	0.58	8.72
Reading anxiety	Reading Comprehension	-0.43	-7.85

The analysis revealed a notable relationship between read- ing anxiety and reading comprehension, with a path coefficient of -0.43. The corresponding t statistic of 7.58 highlights the sta- tistical significance of this relationship, demonstrating a strong in- verse association between reading anxiety and reading compre- hension. This outcome provides compelling evidence that ele- vated levels of reading anxiety substantially hindered the read- ing comprehension abilities of learners. Moreover, the most in- fluential predictor of reading comprehension was found to be mindfulness. The results indicated a robust positive impact of mindfulness on reading comprehension outcomes. This suggests that cultivating mindfulness practices could potentially enhance learners' reading comprehension abilities. The assessment of model fit revealed promising results. The relative chi-square val- ue of 1.59, falling within the optimal range between 1 and 3, in- dicates an acceptable fit of the model. Additionally, indices in- cluding AGFI, GFI, IFI, CFI, and NFI, exceeding the threshold of 0.9, indicate a good model fit. The alignment of indicator values with interpretation requirements further supports the validity of the model's dimensions. Confirmatory factor analysis provided valuable validation for the underlying structure of the model, re- inforcing the credibility of the study's findings (Table 6).

Table 6

Goodness-of-fit Indices for predictive ability of mindfulness, reflective thinking, and anxiety for reading comprehension ability

$\chi 2/DF$	RMSEA	NFI	GFI	IFI	CFI	AGFI
1.59	0.055	0.91	0.92	0.92	0.93	0.92

To address the fifth research question, a path analysis was conducted to explore the relationships between mindfulness, re- flective thinking, reading anxiety, and reading comprehension. The analysis yielded insightful findings regarding the strength and direction of these associations. Mindfulness and reflective thinking exhibited a positive path coefficient of 0.83, indicating a robust positive relationship between these two variables. The t statistic for this relationship was 10.32, signifying a high level of statistical significance with a confidence level of 95%. This out- come underscores the significant positive link between mindful- ness and reflective thinking, offering valuable insights into their interplay within our study context. Regarding the relationship between mindfulness and reading anxiety, a negative path coef- ficient was observed, with a t statistic of -9.31. This result indi- cates a substantial inverse association between mindfulness and reading anxiety. The statistical significance of this association highlights the potential of mindfulness to mitigate reading anxi- ety among Iraqi EFL learners. Furthermore, a negative path co- efficient was identified between reflective thinking and reading comprehension, with a t statistic of 7.83. This finding demon- strates a significant inverse relationship between reflective thinking and reading comprehension. This suggests that as re- flective thinking increases, reading comprehension tends to im- prove among the participants (Figure 2).

Table 7 shows fitting index values. Since RMSEA was 0.054, the model was acceptable. Also, the relative chi-square value was 1.58 (1172.55 / 1172) between 1 and 3, while the AGFI, GFI, IFI, CFI, and NFI indices were 0.9. In general, indica- tor values match their interpretation criteria, and confirmatory factor analysis verifies the model's dimensions.
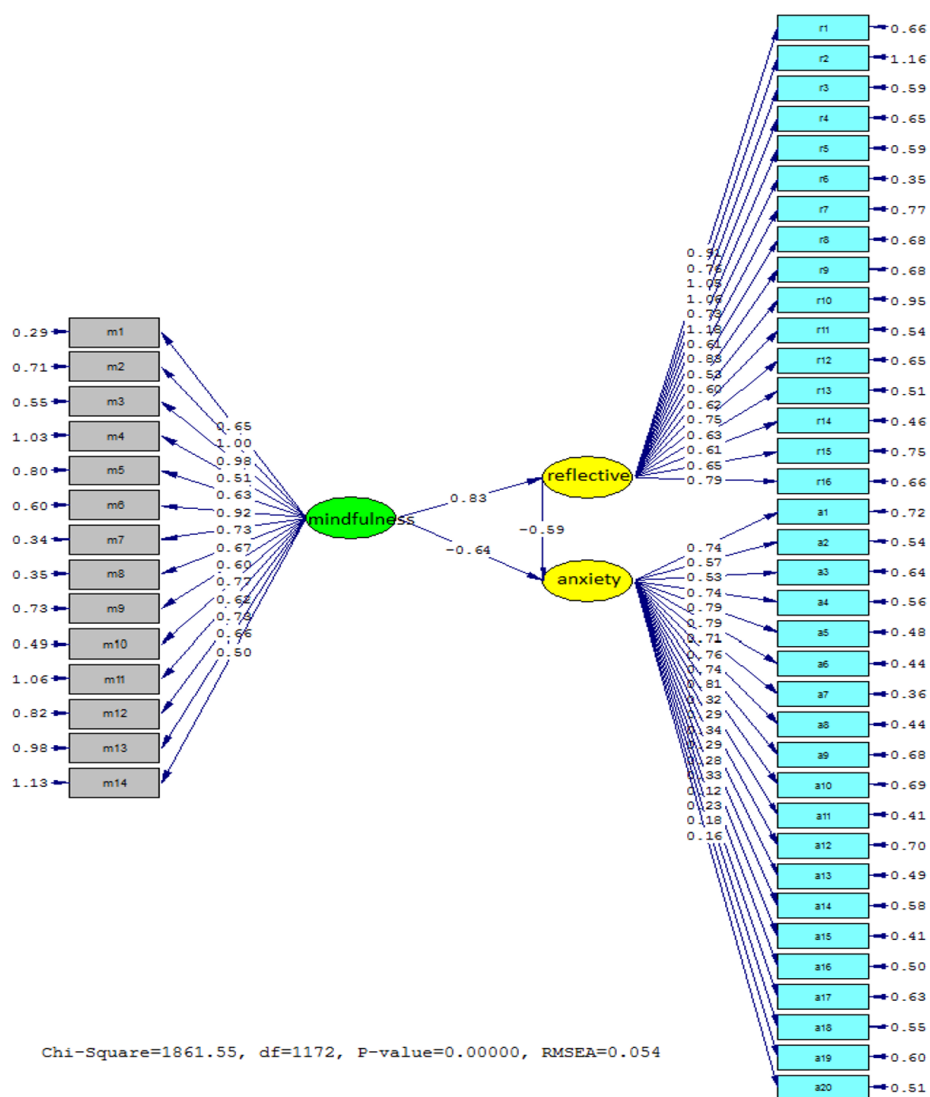
Figure 2. Factor coefficients and path coefficients to examine the relationships among mindfulness, reflective thinking, and foreign language reading anxiety

Table 7

Goodness-of-fit Indices for the relationship of mindfulness, reflective thinking, and anxiety

χ2/DF	RMSEA	NFI	GFI	IFI	CFI	AGFI
1.58	0.054	0.92	0.91	0.94	0.91	0.91

To address the sixth research question, Levene's Test was used to test the equality of variances hypothesis (Table 8). The significance value for the equality of variances in all variables was over 0.05, indicating the variances were equal. The significance threshold of the test for all variables was 0.00, which was less than 0.05 (p = 0.000 < 0.05), thus, there were significant differences between lower intermediate and advanced language learners. Mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading anxiety, and reading comprehension differed between Iraqi English students (Table 8).

To address the seventh research question, the student's responses were coded. Figure 3 illustrates all codes and subcodes that can be regarded as the most significant in terms of mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading anxiety.

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Table 8

Independent samples t-test of the variables of the study

	Effect Size		Levene's Test for Equality of		t-test for Equality of Means			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)		
								Lower	Upper
Reading	.305	Equal variances assumed	.062	.804	-2.154	198	.000	-0.41	-0.35
		Equal variances not assumed			-2.154	196	.000	-0.41	-0.35
Mindfulness	.395	Equal variances assumed	.511	.475	-2.790	198	.000	-0.29	-0.12
		Equal variances not assumed			-2.790	197.9	.000	-0.29	-0.12
Reflective	.337	Equal variances assumed	.006	.940	-2.384	198	.000	-0.26	-0.18
		Equal variances not assumed			-2.384	198	.000	-0.26	-0.18
Anxiety	.303	Equal variances assumed	.001	.973	2.140	198	.000	0.14	0.16
		Equal variances not assumed			2.140	198	.000	0.14	0.16

**. significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure 3. The MAXMap of the students' attitudes towards mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading anxiety in their reading comprehension

According to three questions about mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading anxiety, the following codes and sub-codes were extracted.

1. Mindfulness and reading skills included sub-codes of reducing mind wandering (concentration, present moment attention), boosting reading skills, and enhancing working memory.

The majority of the participants reported that mindfulness practices could reduce the negative effects of distraction and that this activity gave them a feeling of fulfilment. This finding aligns with the quantitative results indicating a significant inverse relationship between mindfulness and reading anxiety, suggesting that mindfulness contributes to reduced distraction and heightened attention, ultimately benefiting reading comprehension. Some participants also mentioned that they were cheered by the teacher's use of this method in the class. They believed a good teacher could boost students' understanding of English learning by using mindfulness practices in class. One participant mentioned that *'whenever I do mindfulness practices, my concentration ability is greatly influenced, and I feel more powerful in thinking deeply. So, my ability to focus on my language practices and skills will increase as well'* (reducing mind wandering-concentration). Another student said: *'For me, doing some kinds of meditation and mindfulness practices may result in my awareness of the situations, and it may lead to a high degree of attention when I do something. Regarding my reading practices, using mindfulness practices, my reading skill enhanced a lot, as earlier I used to have a wandering thought and lack of concentration on reading passage'* (boosting reading skills). The following quote from a participant illustrates the sub-code of enhancing working memory: *'what surprised me the most was actually mindfulness training improves my memory capacity and enhances reading performance while reducing mind wandering'.* This qualitative insight corroborates the quantitative findings that identified mindfulness as a strong predictor of reading comprehension. These qualitative accounts offer a richer understanding of the specific cognitive processes that underlie the observed relationship.

2. Reflective thinking and reading skills included the following sub-codes: problem-solving (conceptualisation, adopting techniques, and monitoring comprehension), meta-cognitive reading (evaluation, monitoring, and planning). The following quotes are from participants who expressed problem-solving and metacognitive reading:

'I feel it helps to understand what the reading questions are'.

'I can use best strategies for answering reading comprehension questions'.

'Whenever I want to do a reading practice, I try to allocate sufficient resources for my reading. For example, before reading, I try to predict, sequence strategies, and allocate enough time and attention to my reading task. I think it can be like the process of organising the activities required to achieve a desirable score in a reading test'.

'Once I start my reading, I try to be aware of text and be engaged in reading task, and monitor myself in different phases of reading'.

'The majority of the participants reported that mindfulness practices could reduce the negative effects of distraction and that this activity gave them a feeling of fulfilment. This finding aligns with the quantitative results indicating a significant inverse relationship between mindfulness and reading anxiety, suggesting that mindfulness contributes to reduced distraction and heightened attention, ultimately benefiting reading comprehension'

Participants' narratives provided context to the quantitative result that indicated an inverse association between reflective thinking and reading comprehension. Their accounts of employing problem-solving techniques and metacognitive strategies during reading underscore the practical implications of this relationship.

3. Reading anxiety and reading skills included the following sub-codes: fear of frustration (corrective feedback, speed reading), fear of reading in public (fear of making mistakes, shyness), and fear of not understanding. Figure 3 depicts the findings. Mindfulness may reduce mind wandering, improve working memory, and raise reading proficiency, according to the participants. Reflective thinking affects problem-solving and metacognitive skills, and reading anxiety causes fear of reading in public, not understanding the text, and irritation. The following excerpts imply that problem-solving was a major sub-code in students' recount of reflective thinking and reading skills:

'What impressed me most in the process of reading a text is the fear of misunderstanding the passage and getting confused by the content. This may lower the chance of getting good results in an English test'.

'What bothers me most is the shyness feeling that I have when I want to read aloud in front of my peers and my teacher as well. I am afraid that I cannot manage that well'.

'I feel that if my teacher asks me to read something in class, maybe others try to make fun of my reading style and they laugh at me, if I commit error'.

5. DISCUSSION

As was mentioned earlier, the current study aimed at investigating the relationship among reading anxiety, mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading comprehension ability in two groups of lower intermediate and advanced Iraqi EFL learners. In addition, the attitudes of leaners toward the relationship of reading comprehension ability with mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading anxiety were explored.

The findings of this study revealed significant positive correlations between mindfulness and EFL learners' reading comprehension. Mindfulness was also significantly and negatively correlated with reading anxiety. This means that learners' performance on reading can be improved with mindfulness and their higher scores on mindfulness indicate their lower reading anxiety. The same was true for reflective thinking. Given the

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'The findings of this study revealed significant positive correlations between mindfulness and EFL learners' reading comprehension. Mindfulness was also significantly and negatively correlated with reading anxiety. This means that learners' performance on reading can be improved with mindfulness and their higher scores on mindfulness indicate their lower reading anxiety. The same was true for reflective thinking'

values of fit indices reported, the model revealed that mindfulness and reflective thinking could predict reading ability of EFL learners. Any pair of factors (mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading comprehension) had positive and significant path coefficients. Further, reading anxiety severely affected pupils' reading comprehension and reading test scores. As for the sixth research question, the researchers observed substantial differences between Iraqi lower intermediate and advanced EFL learners' mindfulness, reflective thinking, reading anxiety, and reading comprehension. The mean of mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading comprehension variables in the advanced group was higher than the lower intermediate group and the mean reading anxiety in the lower intermediate group was higher than the advanced one.

These results are compatible with previous empirical and theoretical studies. This finding was in harmony with the results obtained from the study by Kim (2021), indicating the participants with higher states of mindfulness tended to read English with less anxiety, and consequently performed better on the reading tests. In the same vein, Fallah (2017) reported a direct correlation between practicing mindfulness in young adults with significantly reduced anxiety when having to use EFL in the classroom. This was supported by Charoensukmongkol (2019), who found a strong correlation between practicing mindfulness and reduced language anxiety. According to Namaziandost et al. (2022), anxiety has been shown to significantly influence the global language reading comprehension ability of EFL learners. It can be, therefore, concluded that mindfulness reduces anxiety, and consequently, EFL learners' performance is improved. This can be considered as one possibility for the predictive ability of mindfulness for EFL learners' reading ability.

It was found that reflective thinking can positively affect learners' reading comprehension and act as a strong predictive factor. As Wirth and Aziz (2009) discussed, reflective reading strategies make the learners more attached to the task, to read repeatedly, and to self-evaluate their own performance, which yields better performance in reading comprehension. Nourdad and Asgari (2017) reported the positive effects of reflective reading strategies on reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners, which could support the present findings.

The study's qualitative findings supported the quantitative findings as learners found mindfulness and reflective thinking facilitative factors and reading anxiety a debilitative factor. As

Müller et al. (2021) mentioned, mindful learners can better concentrate on their learning and performance and dwell less on their mistakes. This statement included two sub-codes of the current study, namely concentration and fear of making mistakes. Moreover, reflective learning provides learners with an arranged opportunity to examine their learning (Verpoorten et al., 2011), which was noted by the learners when they mentioned, *'Once I start my reading, I try to be aware of text and be engaged in reading task and monitor myself in different phases of reading'.*

6. CONCLUSION

The findings of the current study offer observations that can inform educational practices and research strategies for both advanced and lower-intermediate EFL learners. The higher mean scores of mindfulness, reflective thinking, and reading comprehension variables among advanced learners suggest an inclination toward employing effective cognitive and metacognitive strategies, ultimately contributing to their increased reading proficiency. To capitalize on these cognitive strengths, educators might contemplate integrating mindfulness and reflective thinking exercises into their instructional approaches, further nurturing the cognitive and metacognitive capacities that appear prominent among advanced learners.

Conversely, the observation of higher mean reading anxiety among lower-intermediate learners implies the need for targeted interventions to alleviate anxiety and cultivate coping mechanisms. The exploration of mindfulness-based techniques as potential anxiety management tools holds promise. Recognising the underlying causes of this elevated anxiety level and customising interventions accordingly could yield more impactful strategies to assist learners at varying proficiency levels. EFL instructors play a crucial role in identifying anxiety-reducing strategies that resonate with learners during reading instruction. Once validated, these strategies can be methodically integrated into the curriculum, ensuring learners' comfort and engagement.

It is worth acknowledging that the absence of written forms in certain Arabic and Iraqi dialects could intensify reading anxiety, potentially hindering learners' exposure to reading strategies. As a response, educators are encouraged to introduce reading strategies through purposeful training and classroom activities. This approach enables learners to grasp reading strategies effectively, furthering their comprehension of reading materials.

In light of the study's limitations, future research endeavours could be broadened by incorporating larger and more diverse participant groups, enhancing the generalisability of results. While this study examined the impact of proficiency levels on the variables under investigation, future investigations might explore other influential factors, including gender, age range, and potential contextual influences. Furthermore, expanding the research scope to encompass various language skills could offer a comprehensive understanding of their interconnectedness within language learning contexts.

Appendix 1

Interview questions

1. How mindfulness can affect an individual's skills?
2. What mediation activities did you find useful for your skill enhancement?
3. Explain some examples of negative experiences that you had in language learning reading skill as a result of high level of anxiety?
4. How did you reacted physically and mentally when you experienced those situations?
5. Does thinking about those experience have any negative influence on you? If yes, what are the negative results?
6. Do you see this concept (anxiety in reading skill) as a sign of your own weakness?
7. What are the benefits of mindfulness on a person as a language learner?
8. How do you feel about reflective thinking in your skill learning (mainly, your reading skill)?
9. What is your impression about reading anxiety and reading comprehension?

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Original Research

(Digital) empathising: (De-)constructing (digital) empathy in foreign language teaching

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Whilst representing a core component of any communicative context, empathy may be even more significant in foreign language teaching than other school subjects. Learners need interlocutors to use and learn a language, which makes the language-learning process even more dependent on relationships. How and where learners and users of foreign languages learn, interact and communicate with each other is increasingly shaped by digital technologies, virtual spaces and artificial intelligence-supported communication tools. This change in contexts and ways of communication also entails a change in where and how empathy is expressed. Consequently, our understanding of empathy needs to be broadened to encompass these developments and help our learners to express empathy in different contexts, media and modes. Therefore, this article will begin by delineating the etymological, empirical and theoretical background of empathy. In a second step, the significance of empathy in digital spaces will be explained, followed by a discussion of existing definitions of digital empathy and a necessary (de-) construction of (digital) empathy. Then, a preliminary model of (digital) empathising in foreign language learning will be suggested, comprising three processes: emotional, cognitive and communicative empathising. I define 'communicative empathising' as the process of communicating one's emotional and/or cognitive empathising for the other to the other – in different contexts and using various ways of communication (medium, mode).

KEYWORDS: *empathy, digital empathy, communicative empathising, digital spaces, empathising, foreign language teaching*

1. INTRODUCTION

Empathy represents a core component of any communicative context and is thus essential in all contexts where people interact and learn from one another (Cooper, 2011). Nevertheless, empathy may be even more significant in foreign language teaching than in other school subjects: learners need interlocutors to use and learn a language, which may make the language learning process even more dependent on relationships compared to other subjects (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020). Mercer (2016, p. 91) stresses this distinctiveness by highlighting *'the centrality of relationships, social interaction, communication and intercultural competence in language learning and use'*. Communicative language teaching, which is still the dominant method in various educational contexts, emphasises interaction and communication as the goal and medium of learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

According to Terry and Cain (2016, p. 3), *'empathy at its core will never change; however, the means by which empathy is expressed is naturally evolving as the world and its forms of communications become increasingly digital'*. This quote about empathy is therefore especially relevant for foreign language learning,

given that where and how foreign language learners interact and communicate – within and beyond the classroom – becomes increasingly shaped by virtual spaces, the ever-growing prevalence of digital technologies and artificial intelligence-supported communication tools. This change in contexts and ways of communication also entails a change in where and how (medium, mode) empathy is expressed. Virtual environments often lack essential non-verbal cues of expressing empathy such as facial expressions, touch or intonation (Bai et al., 2019), which can impact all communication and communication of empathy in particular. Instead, these virtual environments allow learners to resort to alternative (multi-)modal ways of expressing empathy, such as videos, emojis or GIFs. GIFs, defined as 'moving images' (Fan, 2022, p. 46), are multimodal in a double sense: whilst representing 'multimodal entit[ies]' themselves, their use leads to 'multimodal discourses' (Fan, 2022, p. 47). Consequently, language learners need to learn how empathy can (not) be communicated in different contexts.

Following Terry and Cain's (2016) assumption that empathy at its core will never change but yet evolve, any deliberations on digital empathy in language teaching should begin with

the more general term of empathy. Therefore, this article will begin by delineating the etymological, empirical and theoretical background of empathy. This procedure resonates with the following definition of digital empathy, which highlights empathy as its root: *'Digital empathy seeks to expand our thinking about traditional empathy phenomena into the digital arena'* (Friesem, 2016, p. 24). In a second step, the significance of empathy in the digital space will be explained, followed by a discussion of existing definitions of digital empathy. This will lead to the necessary (de-)construction of (digital) empathy in order to develop a preliminary subject-specific (digital) empathy model for contemporary foreign language learning.

2. EMPATHY
2.1. Defining empathy from etymological perspectives

'Disagreement and discrepancy' (Preston & de Waal, 2002, p. 1) are common descriptions for the definitional inconsistency of empathy (Zhou, 2022). Empathy has been examined across diverse disciplines (Duan & Sager, 2018), such as philosophy, psychology, social work, neuroscience and (language) education. Although these sometimes divergent contributions might not have led to conceptual consensus and consistency regarding empathy, they indicate its complexity (Zhou, 2022) and have advanced the knowledge of it. To keep the subsequent deliberations rooted, it is worthwhile to begin with the etymological development of empathy to lay some historical and theoretical foundation for it.

Empathy is the English translation of the German term 'Einfühlung' and was first used by the psychologist Edward Titchener in 1909 (Howe, 2013). It is rooted in the Greek word 'empatheia', meaning *'to enter feelings from the outside'* (Howe, 2013, p. 9). The prefix 'em' denotes this 'entering into' pathos, meaning experience or emotions. More specifically, empathy means 'into feeling' or 'feeling into'. The idea of getting 'into' a feeling is particularly important, especially when we see and feel the world from the other's point of view, attempt to understand it, and seek to convey that understanding as we relate with those around us. (Howe, 2013, p. 9).

Howe's (2013) rich quote deserves to be analysed more closely to extract some key characteristics of empathy. This 'feeling into' implies a *'process, where observers project themselves into the objects they perceive'* (Preston & de Waal, 2002, p. 2). Although 'object' is inappropriate for language learners, the authors raise our awareness that empathy necessitates agency and action; it is anything but a passive act. Here, it seems helpful to refer to etymology once more to differentiate between empathy and sympathy, another term understood and defined differently by scholars. Whereas sympathy essentially implies having *'feelings (pathos) that are the same as (sym) those of the other'*, empathy is about entering *'into (em) the feelings (pathos) of the other'* (Howe, 2013, p. 12). Hence, empathy can be considered 'you oriented', whilst sympathy is instead 'me oriented' (Howe, 2013, p. 12). Furthermore, Howe's (2013) definition alludes to three steps of empathy: an affective component (feel the world

from the other's point of view), a cognitive process (attempt to understand it) and a third endeavour that aims to convey that understanding as we relate with those around us.

Unpacking Howe's (2013) definition demonstrates its relevance and application in everyday foreign language learning. Learning a foreign language is about feeling into the world of our interlocutors, attempting to understand this other world from their perspective and attempting to relate to the other world through language. These three steps clearly relate to intercultural communicative competence, a key aim of foreign language learning, whose key protagonist, the intercultural speaker, is often paraphrased as a mediator between people of different cultures and languages (Byram & Wagner, 2018).

2.2. Exploring empathy from research perspectives

Historically, two dominant research perspectives have been adopted (Aldrup et al., 2022; Gkonou, 2021) which have debated *'whether empathy is an emotional or cognitive process'* (Preston & de Waal, 2002, p. 2; Baron-Cohen & Wheelwright, 2004). The affective (Duan & Sager, 2018) or emotional (Howe, 2013) perspective considers empathy as the emotional response to the other person's affective experience (Aldrup et al., 2022; Baron-Cohen & Wheelwright, 2004; Batson et al., 2009). There is a wide variation within this emotional response, and to be counted as empathy, one's emotions should result from the other person's emotions and be appropriate (Baron-Cohen & Wheelwright, 2004) – admitting that appropriateness is a debatable term. This notion of appropriateness and having a moral component (Löw-Beer, 2004) resonates with how positive psychologists Batson et al. (2009) define empathy. They define it as *'an other-oriented emotional response elicited by and congruent with the perceived welfare of someone else'* (Batson et al., 2009, p. 418). Batson et al. (2009) explain that congruence does not refer to a particular emotion's specific content but rather to the emotion's valence – positive when the other's welfare is considered positive and negative when it is perceived negative. Furthermore, empathy being other-oriented includes *'feeling for the other'* (Batson et al., 2009, p. 419).

From the cognitive perspective, empathy is based on *'seeing, imagining and thinking about the situation from the other person's point of view'* (Howe, 2013, p. 14) to understand the other person. I wish to dwell on this quote for a while, so I have put three words in italics. The notion of seeing is highlighted by the words seeing and point of view. To me, the notion of seeing is reminiscent of Hattie's (2008) seeing through the eyes of students. However, seeing in a literal sense is often impossible – especially in digitally-mediated communication or for visually impaired people – which is where the third word in italics comes into play: imagining. It might be more inclusive to choose the word imagine; we have to use our imagination to envision the situation from the other side. This deliberation resonates with Fuchs (2014), who talks about an 'imaginative operation', which denotes the *'transportation into an 'as if' scenario (i.e., if I were the other)'* (Fuchs, 2014, p. 158). In a similar vein, Maibom (2020)

explains that perspective taking/simulation *denotes 'the action of imagining being in another person's situation'* (Maibom, 2020, p. 10). Baron-Cohen and Wheelwright (2004) also mention 'role taking', 'decentering' and 'responding nonegocentrically' within cognitive empathy. Here, it becomes evident that *'empathy explicitly refers to other people rather than to the self'* (Aldrup et al., 2022, p. 1178) and that empathy may effectively catalyse altruistic behaviour (Batson et al., 2009). These deliberations highlight the relevance of empathy for intercultural communicative competence and positive classroom dynamics in foreign language learning.

2.3. Exploring empathy from theoretical perspectives

The majority of empathy theories can be divided into two groups: The first group of theories views empathy as being either cognitive or emotional, whereas the second group views empathy as a concept embracing both components (Duan & Sager, 2018). One prominent view is that cognitive empathy and affective empathy are significantly correlated (Zhan et al., 2022) and complementary (Aldrup et al., 2022). Friesem (2016, p. 27) puts it succinctly: *'as human beings, we feel while we are thinking'*. This idea is echoed by Oxford (2016, p. 13), stating that *'cognition and emotion are inseparable'*. Contemporary conceptualisations describe empathy as a positive, complex, multidimensional construct (Mercer, 2016; Schutte & Stilinović, 2017). Recently, there seems to be concordance among researchers that empathy consists of 'three main components' (Mercer, 2016, p. 94). Whereas the literature is relatively consistent in terming the first two components affective/emotional empathy and cognitive empathy, the third element is characterised by inconsistent terminology: motivational empathy, empathetic concern, compassion or sympathy (Mercer, 2016; Zaki, 2019). Howe (2013, p. 14) mentions *'communicating the recognition and understanding of the other's emotional experience'* as his third process of empathy. It is precisely this notion of communication, which is ubiquitous in the foreign language classroom (Walsh, 2011). Zhou (2022, p. 2) summarises this last process as a *'display of care, concern or compassion ... associated with a motivation to enhance the welfare'* of the other. How can we communicate this display in the digital space? The importance of expressing and developing empathy in the digital space will therefore be discussed in the following.

3. EMPATHY IN DIGITAL CONTEXTS

Adolescence is a critical period in the development of empathy, as highlighted by educational and developmental psychologists Phillips and Bowles (2020). It should come as no surprise that social connection is necessary in developing empathy. However, this social connection increasingly occurs in the digital space. For instance, the Jim-Studie (MFS, 2021), which surveyed 1,200 adolescents aged between 12 and 19 in Germany, has revealed that almost one-third of the respondents consider digital and face-to-face communication more or less synonymous. In other words, they do not mind if they communicate face-to-face

or digitally with their friends. This shows that the difference between online and offline performance and participation has become increasingly blurred (Bracci et al., 2022).

Media theorist Rushkoff (2013) paints a more negative picture by coining the word 'digiphrenia', a blend between 'digi' for digital and the affix 'phrenia', used to refer to a mental disorder. It denotes how technology enables us to be in more than one place simultaneously and negotiate between several identities, 'real' and digitally narrated. Digiphrenia might also lead to 'phubbing', a blend at the intersection between technology (phone) and social behaviour (snubbing). Phubbing happens face-to-face when you snub someone by looking at your phone instead of paying attention to them. Thus, phubbing can lead to phone-induced social exclusion and portrays the preference for digitally-mediated participation to face-to-face communication and interaction with those in one's physical presence. A certain irony characterises phubbing: while disrupting their interaction with their face-to-face interlocutors, phubbers often connect with other people over a smartphone. Another irony is that smartphones were originally invented to connect and communicate. Phubbing, however, shows how smartphones can lead to feeling lonely while not literally being alone but surrounded by friends – and their friends' 'friends', namely their phones. Phubbing thus underscores our connectivity conundrum, implying that our increased online interconnectedness can potentially lead to a feeling of disconnectedness in the offline world. Hence, it is crucial to foster awareness of the phenomenon of phubbing among phubbers and those being phubbed so that both groups can understand and feel the causes and effects of phubbing (Zhan et al., 2022). Again, the phenomenon of phubbing underscores the claim that online and offline contexts are increasingly interacting in some situations.

Digital communication is confronted with the so-called 'online disinhibition effect', which describes *'several subtle, but powerful underlying factors that contribute to the nature of communication via digital devices'* (Terry & Cain, 2016, p. 2). Terry and Cain (2016) list dissociative anonymity, asynchronous communication and physical invisibility as their three factors that might explain unempathetic behaviour online.

Dissociative anonymity. People adopt a nonidentifying identity such as a pseudonym or avatar, which can lead to two types of dissociation: separating oneself from in-person identity and moral agency or dissociating the interlocutor and subconsciously regarding them as non-person avatars. This loss of perceived moral agency and responsibility might increase unsocial, hostile communication.

Asynchronous communication. Due to the asynchronous nature of some online communication, users might avoid taking responsibility for their offensive remarks and do not have to regulate their immediate responses to online debates.

Physical invisibility. Interlocutors' communication online is often characterised by not seeing the other and their reactions, which makes it hard to spot the nuances of communication that are often conveyed via non-verbal cues.

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Even though Terry and Cain (2016) do not negotiate the immediacy of synchronous digital communication within the context of the online disinhibition effect, it needs to be stressed that instant messaging (in the literal sense) often lacks the empathetic social filter. As Terry and Cain (2016) point out, *'the ability to instantly share thoughts, feelings, and behaviours with the rest of society via digital channels can occur in mere seconds, often without the empathetic social filter that accompanies traditional communications'* (Terry & Cain, 2016, p. 1).

Therefore, adolescents need to develop alternatives to exhibit empathy in digital environments, such as using emojis (Bai et al., 2019; Yang, 2020), so that these psychological factors underlying the online disinhibition effect do not decrease the expression of empathy in digital communication. The rapid adoption of social technologies and the dependency on digital devices as tools and channels for communication are often considered potential contributors to the growing empathy deficit (Friesem, 2016). This dependency on digital devices was drastically reinforced during the Covid-19 pandemic when social distancing took over. Face-to-face teaching was replaced by virtual, distance teaching. Instead of being in the same physical sphere, pupils and teachers were in front of their digital devices and had to find new ways to interact and relate to break down the imposed distance. A study by Baiano et al. (2022) explored the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on different dimensions of empathy (cognitive empathy, affective empathy and empathic social skills such as active listening or collaboration) within a sample of healthy students enrolled at an Italian university. They compared data from before the pandemic outbreak and about one year after the implementing Covid policies to limit the spread of the disease. They concluded that one year after the outbreak of the pandemic, their participants showed 'lower empathic social skills', which they attribute to *'social distancing, isolation, the use of face masks, and possibly extensive use of home-based communication technologies'* (Baiano et al., 2022, p. 5). On a more positive note, the *'tendency to identify with fictional characters'* (Baiano et al., 2022, p. 5) increased. This last aspect resonates with Fuchs (2014), who posits that *'empathy not only connects quite easily with virtual or fictitious persons and situations – it is even stimulated by imagination and fictionality'* (Fuchs, 2014, p. 156). Fuchs' (2014) idea needs to be explored empirically and is especially relevant for the surge in artificial intelligence-mediated communication.

Therefore, teachers need to help their students become digital citizens. According to the Council of Europe (2022, p. 11), a 'digital citizen' is *'someone who, through the development of a broad range of competences, is able to actively, positively and responsibly engage in both on- and offline communities. As digital technologies are disruptive in nature and constantly evolving, competence building is a lifelong process'*.

Contrary to the above-discussed phenomena of digiphrenia and phubbing, this definition of a digital citizen casts a more positive light on the interrelation between technology and interaction. It does not consider on- and offline interaction as rivals. To highlight this positive, complementary approach, I have emphasised that digital citizens can interact positively and communicate both on-and offline. They 'inhabit both virtual and real spaces' (Council of Europe, 2022, p. 13). Nonetheless, the Council of Europe (2022) has warned of educators' lack of awareness of the value of developing pupils' digital citizenship competence for their well-being in today's highly digitised society. Well-being constitutes one of the three areas into which ten digital domains underpinning digital citizenship are grouped. The three areas are being-online, rights online and well-being online. For the purpose of this paper, it seems worthwhile to dwell on the last category for a while. Well-being online consists of the following three domains: ethics and empathy, health and well-being and e-presence and communication. The domain of ethics and empathy is defined as concerning *'online ethical behaviour and interaction with others based on skills such as the ability to recognise and understand the feelings and perspectives of others. Empathy constitutes an essential requirement for positive online interaction and for realising the possibilities that the digital world affords'* (Council of Europe, 2022, p. 13).

Here, the Council of Europe's (2022) report emphasises cognitive ('understanding', 'perspectives') and emotional empathy ('feelings'). At second or third sight, one could argue that they have included a communicative aspect of empathising, too, when they consider cognitive and emotional empathy as a *'requirement for positive online interaction'* (Council of Europe, 2022, p. 13). It is to be noted, however, that they do not consider interaction/communication a component belonging to empathy; instead, they see empathy as a precursor leading to positive interaction.

Let us consider this quote from a different perspective. Empathy is considered a 'requirement for positive online interaction', so a lack of empathy is more likely to lead to negative, harmful online interaction such as cyber-violence (Jiang & Gao, 2020), which can be explained by the online disinhibition effect, for instance. Furthermore, Davis (2004) explains that the cognitive process of perspective-taking serves a de-escalatory function during provocations. It delays the immediacy of the first reaction, which often runs the risk of being destructive, hurtful and accelerating the escalatory cycle. Therefore, Davis (2004) concludes that empathy not only offers a maintenance function in social life, but also a reparative function during more complicated interactions. Foreign language education scholars (Byram,

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2021; Golubeva & Guntersdorfer, 2020; Mercer, 2016) have stressed empathy as an integral part of intercultural communicative competence, which is still a primary goal of many foreign language curricula.

Thus, we have demonstrated that the contexts for social interaction and communication become increasingly digital and blurred, implying that online and offline contexts often interact. Consequently, current understandings of empathy also need to embrace digital and blurred spaces. Therefore, having argued for developing and communicating empathy in digital contexts, this section explores existing definitions of digital empathy and thereby seeks to explain why previous (digital) empathy concepts need to be de-constructed and then re-constructed. This will lead to a subject-specific conceptualisation of (digital) empathy in the context of and with the specific focus on language learning in the twenty-first century.

4. (DE-)CONSTRUCTING (DIGITAL) EMPATHY FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

4.1. Digital empathy and its necessary de-construction

From a healthcare perspective, Terry and Cain (2016) define digital empathy as the *'traditional empathic characteristics expressed through computer-mediated communications'* (Terry and Cain, 2016, p. 1). Given that social connection increasingly occurs in digital spaces, Terry and Cain's expansion of empathy has been necessary. Furthermore, the digital environment is not only a context to learn the foreign language but also a context where learners use the language beyond their studies. Its relevance can also be seen in Fuchs' (2014) claim that *'our affective relationships to others are increasingly based on mediation and virtuality'* (Fuchs, 2014, p. 155).

However, Terry and Cain's (2016) 'computer-mediated communications' do not necessarily include hybrid forms of communication, which – as phenomena like 'phubbing' and 'digiphrenia' have shown – characterise lots of communication and interaction nowadays. Therefore, we must not only seek to expand our understanding of traditional characteristics of empathy to include digital, virtual and artificial-intelligence-mediated forms of communication but also embrace those situations where online and offline interactions intersect. Therefore, does it

even make sense to differentiate between digital and non-digital empathy? On the one hand, I would argue yes, especially when endeavouring to raise awareness of the challenges and chances of communicating empathy in the digital environment. It would also contribute to exploring differences and similarities in how empathy is communicated in these contexts. This relates to Jakobson's (1960) model of communication, which emphasises the importance of context, channel and code. On the other hand, it could be argued that online and offline participation and performance should rather be seen on a continuum (Bracci et al., 2022). So maybe the right approach to this question would be a combination of both approaches?

4.2. Constructing (digital) empathy for foreign language teaching

This need for re-conceptualising digital empathy is also evident in foreign language teaching. Foreign language education scholars Jiang and Gao (2020), inspired by Friesem (2016), define digital empathy as the *'cognitive and emotional ability to be reflective and socially responsible while strategically using digital media'* (Friesem, 2016, p. 72). This definition shows that their view of digital empathy only embraces cognitive and emotional components. In contrast, a third aspect, which Howe (2013, p. 14) described as *'communicating … the recognition and understanding of the other's emotional experience'*, is missing. It is, however, precisely this communicative aspect which I consider particularly crucial for the foreign language classroom. The goal of foreign language learning is to become able to communicate and interact in a foreign language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) – in different contexts and by using different media and modes.

Furthermore, language learning is an ongoing process, not a product. The same applies to empathy: even though empathy is often misconstrued as a *'have-or-have-not personality trait'* (Everhart et al., 2016, p. 3), it is a process (Friesem, 2016), a learnable skill (Everhart et al., 2016, p. 3) that can be learnt and taught. However, this process perspective is rarely mirrored in the terminology of models: scholars talk about components (Aldrup et al., 2022, p. 1179), phenomena (Friesem, 2016, p. 33) or dimensions (Terry & Cain, 2016) of empathy. A (digital) empathy model for language learning needs to reflect this process perspective. Therefore, I decidedly opt for process, which resonates with the active notion of agency instead of empathy being a passive response, denoting a rather behaviourist conditioning perspective. This notion of process needs to be reflected in the terminology, too. Instead of using nouns ('empathy'), I opt for the gerund form ('empathising') as a noun to underline the active process. This echoes the etymological root of empathy, whereby it means 'feeling into', which implies a *'process, where observers project themselves into the objects they perceive'* (Preston & de Waal, 2002, p. 2). Resonating with contemporary conceptualisations of empathy, the following preliminary multi-dimensional model embraces cognitive, emotional and communicative processes. The notion of 'preliminary' emphasises that this model is still in its infancy and likely to be reconceptualised (Figure 1).
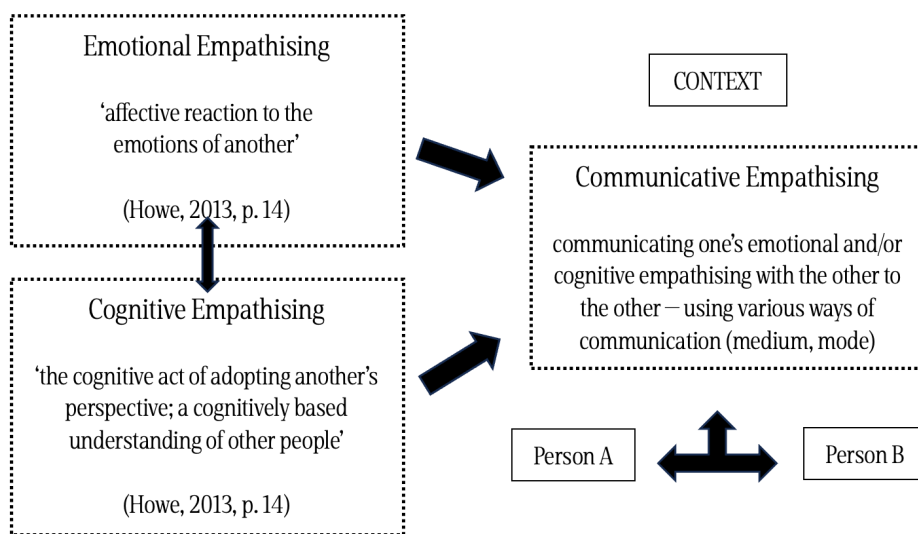
Figure 1. (Digital) empathising in foreign language learning (a preliminary model)

I have used Howe's (2013) emotional and cognitive empathy denotations but replaced 'empathy' with 'empathising'. Whereas emotional and cognitive empathy/empathising have already been explained and echo previous lines of investigation, the third interrelated process – which I call 'communicative empathising' – warrants further explanation. I define 'communicative empathising' as the process of communicating one's emotional and/or cognitive empathising with the other to the other – in different contexts and using various ways of communication (mode, medium). Communicative empathising is the process whereby person A connects and interacts with Person B.

I am well aware that coining new terminology might easily attract criticism, especially when – as in this case – it could be seen as merely replacing an old term, such as 'motivational empathy' or 'empathetic concern' (Zaki, 2019), with a new one ('communicative empathising'). Nevertheless, I consciously take this risk to show that linking empathy to foreign language learning and teaching is crucial, where communication 'underpins everything' (Walsh, 2011, p. 3). This ties in with the socio-cultural approach to language learning, according to which we learn a language by using the language with others. What distinguishes foreign languages from other subjects is that the language is both the medium and the message of learning (Walsh, 2011). Let us focus on the teacher's perspective: teachers convey the content via their teacherese, coined analogously to motherese. Modern, multimodal motherese, also involving non-verbal characteristics such as facial expressions, gestures or touch, not only contributes to babies' language development but also functions as *'emotional regulation of infants'* (Botha, 2016, p. 126). I would claim that motherese – sometimes termed caretaker speech – also conveys empathy: through their motherese, parents communicate to their babies that they see, hear, feel, understand and care for their babies. In analogy, I posit that teachers communicate empathy to their pupils through the medium of multimodal

teacherese. Usually, teachers have a tremendously higher talking time than their students; therefore Hattie (2008, p. 72) posits that *'the proportion of talk to listening needs to change to far less talk and much more listening'*.

Consequently, I believe that teachers should also embrace 'empathetic listening' (Oxford, 2016, p. 207). In sum, teacherese should be considered a multimodal form of empathy.

In addition to avoiding definitional narrowness, this approach seeks to make (digital) empathising subject-specific, i.e., adapt it to the subject of teaching foreign languages. To achieve this, I have complemented previous research by focusing on the communicative process since communication characterises foreign language teaching. Inspired by Jakobson (1960), the influence of context on communicating empathy has been highlighted extensively throughout the study. 'Communicative empathising', occurring in different contexts and drawing on different ways of communication (medium, mode), has been introduced and coined with this particular aim in mind. Besides, by opting for the gerund 'empathising' instead of 'empathy', I have highlighted the process perspective, which characterises both language learning and empathy. Lastly, the approach suggested in this study differs from the previous approach to digital empathy by Terry and Cain (2016), who express a rather negative and one-sided attitude toward technological advances, which is why they extensively focus on the threats of digital communication in expressing empathy. Whereas their approach to digital empathy was sparked by a desire to confront the plethora of challenges pupils encounter in the digital age (Chen, 2018), my approach aims to be more balanced by addressing both chances and challenges. This model has been informed by Howe's (2013) understanding of empathy, Terry and Cain's (2016) definition of digital empathy and Jakobson's (1960) communication model, acknowledging the significance of the 'standing on the shoulders of giants' metaphor.

5. CONCLUSION

Baron-Cohen and Wheelwright (2004, p. 163) put it vividly by stating that empathy is *the 'glue' of the social world, drawing us to help others and stopping us from hurting others'.* This social glue called (digital) empathising is invaluable for the vitality of foreign language teaching. Both empathising and foreign language teaching are relational endeavours. Empathy might be seen as *'the most 'social' of phenomena because it can only arise within some kind of interpersonal context'* (Davis, 2004, p. 20). The foreign language classroom is an interpersonal context abundant with and intrinsically dependent on interaction and communication.

Empathising should be considered the backbone of online, offline and hybrid participation and performance in the foreign language classroom. Misleadingly and erroneously, however, empathy is often viewed as a personality trait (Batson et al., 2009), which 'misconstrues and undervalues' (Everhart et al.,

2016, p. 3) this complex concept. Consequently, it is of paramount importance to reconceive (digital) empathising as a learnable skill, a *'set of abilities that can be developed, taught'* (Everhart et al., 2016, p. 3). As the study has argued, such a change of conceptual perception is crucial if teachers want to explain to peers, pupils or parents why they incorporate (digital) empathising in their foreign language curricula.

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Original Research

English for Specific Purposes: Tailoring English language instruction for history majors

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While English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has demonstrated efficacy in multiple professional and academic fields, its application in humanities, particularly history, remains underexplored. This study addresses this gap by examining the effectiveness of a tailored ESP approach in enhancing English language proficiency among history students. The overriding aim of this research is to evaluate the potential benefits of integrating an ESP approach within history education, focusing on the specific linguistic needs and characteristics inherent in historical discourse, archaic language, and academic writing. The study poses a research question of whether a tailored ESP approach, designed around the linguistic demands of historical discourse, archaic language, and academic writing skills, can result in a significant improvement in these skills among history students. This quasi-experimental study involved two groups: a control group receiving a traditional English language course and an experimental group receiving an ESP-oriented course focusing on historical discourse, archaic language, and academic writing. Participants were subjected to pre- and post-intervention tests to measure the efficacy of the ESP approach. The experimental group demonstrated statistically significant improvements in all three areas compared to the control group. The observed benefits were not only statistically significant but also educationally meaningful. The findings point to the efficacy of the ESP approach in history education, suggesting a potential avenue for innovation in English language instruction. They also expose the need to align language instruction with the specific linguistic characteristics of the learners' field of study, offering supporting observations for further advancements in ESP pedagogy. Future research should explore the long-term effects of the ESP-oriented approach on history students' language proficiency and academic performance, ideally through a longitudinal study. Investigating the adaptability of tailored ESP programmes in other humanities disciplines beyond history could also yield data regarding their efficiency in diverse academic contexts.

KEYWORDS: *English for Specific Purposes, history education, historical discourse, archaic language, academic writing, language proficiency*

1. INTRODUCTION

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has gained significant recognition in the pedagogical realm, particularly in the context of higher education where learners are expected to master the academic language pertaining to their respective fields of study. This pedagogical approach is predicated on the principle of tailoring language instruction to meet the specific requirements of learners, encompassing the vocabulary, structures, and discourses intrinsic to their chosen disciplines. While numerous studies have investigated the implementation of ESP in diverse fields such as business (Bhatia, 2008; Chi, 2023; Yeh, 2023), engineering (Mudraya, 2006), and healthcare (Katsaounis & Steinmüller, 2021), there is a noticeable lacuna in the literature concerning its application in history instruction. This research intends to fill this gap by investigating the feasibility and efficacy of tailoring English language instruction for history students.

The relevance of this topic arises from the realisation that history students, like their counterparts in other disciplines, often grapple with the complexities of discipline-specific English. This includes comprehending archaic language, interpreting historical texts and narratives, and producing written research that conform to specific academic conventions. Moreover, as globalisation progresses, English continues to be the lingua franca of academia, necessitating the mastery of this language to facilitate international dialogue and collaboration among historians.

Therefore, this research raises the question of how English language instruction can be effectively tailored for history students to enhance their academic and future occupational proficiency. This tailored approach has the potential to significantly scale up the academic performance of history students, stimulate profound engagement with the discipline, and expedite their integration into the global academic and professional community.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

The theoretical framework of this study rests on the premise of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), its principles, pedagogical approaches, and its implications in the humanities sector, particularly history education. The integration of ESP principles in history instruction necessitates an understanding of historical discourse, archaic language, and academic writing skills. This section presents an overview of ESP, explores the linguistic features of historical discourse and archaic language, and addresses the importance of academic writing in history education.

Since its inception in the 1960s, ESP has gained global recognition for addressing the unique linguistic needs of learners in specific domains (Belcher, 2006). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define ESP as an approach to language teaching in which all decisions about content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), ESP aims to teach English not as an isolated academic subject but as a vehicle for real-world communication in specific fields, which among other things is evidenced in the aims and scope of research journals covering this domain of scholarly inquiry (Malyuga & Grishechko, 2021).

Studies have consistently shown the effectiveness of ESP in various fields such as business (Malyuga, 2023; Zhang, 2007), medicine (Basturkmen, 2019), and economics (Malyuga & Orlova, 2016), among others. However, its application in the humanities, especially history, remains underexplored, thus forming the crux of this study.

Another key aspect of the theory of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is the notion of needs analysis. ESP pedagogy emphasises the importance of conducting thorough needs analysis to identify the precise language requirements of learners within their specific professional or academic contexts (Flowerdew, 2012). This analysis involves assessing learners' language proficiency, their communicative tasks and goals, as well as the linguistic features characteristic of their field of study or profession. By conducting needs analysis, ESP practitioners can identify the language skills and competencies that learners need to develop, allowing them to design targeted and efficient language instruction. This approach ensures that language teaching is directly relevant to the learners' real-world needs and challenges, enhancing the practicality and effectiveness of the instruction. In the context of history education, such an analysis would involve identifying the specific language demands associated with historical research, academic writing in history, and the interpretation of historical documents, ensuring that the ESP approach is finely tuned to the students' linguistic requirements.

2.2. Historical discourse

Historical discourse is characterised by specific vocabulary, syntactic structures, and text types unique to different historical periods (Brinton, 2015). This discourse involves the interpretation and construction of past events, debates, and narratives, and its understanding is essential for history students (Coffin, 2009).

The pedagogical approach to teaching historical discourse involves equipping learners with skills to analyse and contextualise texts from various historical periods. This includes understanding specialised vocabulary associated with particular eras and geographic contexts (Paltridge & Starfield, 2013). For instance, an analysis of Roman Empire era texts might involve an understanding of terms related to governance, law, and philosophy, whereas texts from the Industrial Revolution might necessitate familiarity with vocabulary related to industry, technology, and social change.

The significance of historical discourse is multifaceted, encompassing the preservation of cultural heritage, the cultivation of analytical acumen, and the facilitation of contextual comprehension. Students' exposure to historical discourse not only stimulates multidisciplinary erudition but also finesses communicative aptitude. Furthermore, according to Counsell (2009), it engenders empathy through the exposure of students to a spectrum of heterogeneous historical perspectives. Additionally, as postulated by Nokes (2022), learning historical discourse augments research abilities, cultivates a proclivity for lifelong learning, and furnishes cognitive instruments to engage thoughtfully with history's complexities. Ultimately, teaching historical discourse in ESP not only amplifies linguistic proficiency, but also nurtures critical thinking, empathy, and an enduring passion for the pursuit of historical inquiry.

2.3. Archaic language

Archaic language, a prominent feature in historical texts, is characterised by outdated or old-fashioned words, phrases, and sentence constructions (Turner, 2015). A robust understanding of archaic language is key to appreciating and interpreting a broad spectrum of historical texts. For instance, works such as Beowulf, Chaucer's Canterbury Tales, and Shakespeare's plays are rich in archaic vocabulary and structures that expose the linguistic characteristics of their respective periods.

Pedagogically, teaching archaic language involves immersing students in historical language use, thereby enabling them to comprehend and contextualise archaic terms within the broader text (Bergström et al., 2021). This can involve, for example, learning to interpret 'thou art' as 'you are' or understanding that 'ere' means 'before'. This proficiency facilitates an authentic encounter with primary sources, enabling students to unearth concealed layers of meaning and cultural nuance. Such competency not only fosters precision in historical interpretation but also cultivates temporal empathy by unveiling history through its authentic linguistic prism. Thus, it can be argued that teaching archaic language augments historical acumen, refines analytical skills, and unlocks a profound connection to the linguistic tapestry of the past.

2.4. Academic writing skills in History

Academic writing in history involves constructing a clear, evidence-based argument that demonstrates a deep understanding of historical phenomena (Page & Maxson, 2023). Effective

'The pedagogical approach to teaching historical discourse involves equipping learners with skills to analyse and contextualise texts from various historical periods. This includes understanding specialised vocabulary associated with particular eras and geographic contexts. For instance, an analysis of Roman Empire era texts might involve an understanding of terms related to governance, law, and philosophy, whereas texts from the Industrial Revolution might necessitate familiarity with vocabulary related to industry, technology, and social change'

academic writing in history is characterised by a clear thesis statement, logically structured paragraphs, and the apt use of referencing according to historical writing conventions (Giltrow et al., 2021). Furthermore, the ability to engage critically with primary and secondary sources, integrating them into one's argument, is a hallmark of proficient academic writing in history.

Lavelle (2007) argues that academic writing skills can be honed by dissecting and analysing well-structured historical essays and research papers. Through this process, students gain a practical understanding of how arguments are structured, how evidence is presented and interpreted, and how sources are cited in academic history writing. Moreover, providing students with frequent opportunities to write and receive feedback is crucial for refining their writing skills (Day, 2023).

The ramifications of effective academic writing proficiency are manyfold. It not only refines communication skills but also empowers students to articulate intricate historical insights cogently (MacDonald, 2010) and promotes analytical rigour, facilitating the interpretation of complex historical narratives and the cogent evaluation of disparate viewpoints (Xie, 2020). Such skills are transferable, fortifying students for future scholarly endeavours and equipping them to contribute effectively to academic discourse within and beyond the realm of history.

Taking the above into account, this study argues that ESP in history education entails a thorough understanding of historical discourse, archaic language, and academic writing skills as the three key learning domains for future specialists. This study thus aims to investigate the effectiveness of an ESP approach designed around these three linguistic areas in improving English proficiency among history students.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

To address the research question, this study employs quantitative research methods. This methodology offers the distinct advantage of a holistic perspective, leveraging numerical data to derive generalised conclusions.

The study's sample comprises undergraduate history students from two universities, selected via stratified random sampling. The sample size constitutes 30 students, 15 per university, ensuring a representative spectrum of English proficiency levels across diverse geographical and institutional contexts. A control group of 30 students was also established, not exposed to the tailored English language instruction, to serve as a comparative reference. Additionally, the selection of students from different universities adds ecological validity to the study, allowing for a broader understanding of the potential applicability of the tailored English language instruction in varied educational settings.

The data acquisition process incorporates pre-intervention and post-intervention assessments to gauge students' English proficiency levels prior to and following the instruction. These tests specifically target historical discourse understanding, use of archaic language, and academic writing skills.

The intervention involves an eight-week English language course designed explicitly for history students. This course integrates key aspects of historical discourse, including specialised vocabulary, comprehension of archaic and historical texts, and specific writing skills required for history assignments.

Quantitative data from test scores will be analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics to determine the effectiveness of the tailored instruction.

This research's methodological approach ensures comprehensive data collection and analysis, enhancing the understanding of ESP's potential application in history education. The results may illuminate effective strategies for improving English language instruction across different disciplines, thus making a significant contribution to ESP pedagogy.

4. STUDY RESULTS
4.1. Course overview

The eight-week English language course designed specifically for History students was structured in a manner to progressively build students' competencies in historical discourse understanding, use of archaic language, and academic writing skills. The course was divided into three core modules, each focusing on a distinct area of historical English proficiency (Table 1).

Table 1
Course outline

WEEKS	MODULE	TOPICS
1-3	Historical Discourse	Historical texts, narratives, and debates
4-5	Archaic Language	Archaic vocabulary, sentence structures, and idioms
6-8	Academic Writing Skills	Essay structure, argumentation, and referencing

This thorough and sequential approach to the course ensured that students could build a robust understanding of English specific to their field, supporting their overall academic performance and future professional endeavours. The integration of various activities and practical assignments provided an interactive and dynamic learning experience, facilitating the practical application of the course's content. The course aimed to bridge theory and practice by encouraging students to actively apply their language proficiency in historical research and writing, fostering deeper engagement with historical materials. Overall, this pedagogical approach aimed to equip history students not only with language skills but also with the confidence and competence to excel in their academic pursuits and future careers.

4.1.1. Historical discourse

The first three weeks of the course covered the module on historical discourse. This module aimed to equip History majors with the necessary skills to competently interpret and engage with historical texts, narratives, and debates. Students were introduced to the specific vocabularies used in different historical periods and geographic contexts. For instance, the students analysed texts from the Roman Empire era, which often employed vocabulary related to governance, law, and philosophy, and compared these with texts from the Industrial Revolution, which incorporated terms associated with industry, technology, and social change. Table 2 illustrates some example vocabularies from different historical eras.

Table 2

Course examples of vocabulary in historical contexts

HISTORICAL PERIOD	RELEVANT VOCABULARY
Ancient Egypt	pharaoh, pyramid, hieroglyphics, obelisk, sphinx, mummification, ankh, papyrus
Roman Empire	senate, consul, plebeian, aqueduct, gladiator, patrician, praetor, legion, centurion, tribune
Middle Ages	feudalism, knight, serf, vassal, chivalry, manor, fief, guild, crusade, schism
Renaissance	humanism, perspective, Reformation, patron, vernacular, fresco, sonnet, secular, chiaroscuro, heliocentrism
Enlightenment	empiricism, rationalism, scepticism, deism, absolutism, salons, philosophes, social contract, constitutional monarchy
Industrial Revolution	mechanization, proletariat, bourgeoisie, urbanization, mass production, factory system, textile, labour union, steam engine, assembly line
World War I	trench warfare, armistice, militarism, alliance system, total war, propaganda, reparations, U-boat, draft, League of Nations
World War II	blitzkrieg, Holocaust, fascism, Axis Powers, Allied Powers, D-Day, Manhattan Project, rationing, kamikaze, UN
Cold War Era	containment, Iron Curtain, arms race, space race, domino theory, deterrence, proxy war, glasnost, perestroika, NATO

The historical discourse module, spread over three weeks, adopted a multi-pronged pedagogical approach to facilitate students' mastery of historical language, narratives, and debates. This comprehensive approach involved several distinct, but interrelated steps, ranging from vocabulary introduction to text analysis, comparative studies, group work, and presentations. Below is a detailed breakdown of the teaching methodology used in this module.

1. Direct Instruction. This involved teaching specific historical vocabulary pertinent to different periods. The words were not merely introduced, but their historical context, implications, and usage were explored in detail. The teachers provided real historical texts to demonstrate how these words were used. Table 2 above exemplifies the range of vocabulary taught, contextualised within different historical periods.

2. Historical Text Analysis. Students were given excerpts of historical documents from different periods (Ancient Egypt, Roman Empire, Middle Ages, Renaissance, Enlightenment, In-

dustrial Revolution, and the World Wars). These texts offered real-world examples of the vocabulary and discourse styles typical of these eras. Analysing these texts fostered students' nuanced understanding of the discourse structures and language features, including sentence construction, rhetoric, and argumentation styles.

3. Comparative Studies. Students were tasked to compare texts from different eras to discern shifts in language usage, style, and rhetoric over time. This comparative study method gave students an opportunity to understand how language evolves and is affected by historical context. It also enabled them to distinguish between language used in different historical periods, thereby developing a comprehensive understanding of historical discourse and its key features.

4. Group Work. Collaborative activities were a significant part of the module. Course participants were divided into groups, each focusing on a particular historical era, and given tasks like creating a glossary of key vocabulary, summarising

main arguments, identifying rhetorical devices, and presenting their findings. This approach facilitated active learning, peer learning, and enhanced students' interpretive and communication skills.

5. Presentations. Each group presented their findings to the class, fostering understanding of historical discourse and honing presentation and public speaking skills. These presentations served as a platform for peer feedback and discussion, creating a lively, interactive learning environment that encouraged critical thinking and in-depth understanding of historical discourse.

6. Continuous Assessment. Students were assessed throughout the course through quizzes, short writing assignments, and presentations to ensure they were actively learning and comprehending the material. Feedback was provided in real-time to address any misunderstandings or gaps in knowledge. This approach was crucial for tracking student progress and adjusting teaching strategies as necessary.

In summary, the historical discourse module's pedagogical approach was holistic, not just promoting understanding of historical vocabulary and discourse but also refining skills such as analysis, comparison, collaboration, and presentation, thereby enriching the overall learning experience.

4.1.2. Archaic Language

The next module within the course's intended structure focused on the use of archaic language, spanning two weeks. This module involved a deep dive into the linguistic characteristics of different historical periods, with students learning to comprehend and use archaic vocabulary, sentence structures, and idioms. Through analysing texts such as *Beowulf* and the works of Chaucer and Shakespeare, students were immersed in historical language use, learning how to contextualise archaic terms within the broader text. See Table 3 below for examples of archaic vocabulary and structures.

Table 3

Course examples of archaic language

ARCHAIC TERM	MODERN EQUIVALENT	ARCHAIC EXPRESSION	MODERN EQUIVALENT	ARCHAIC SENTENCE	MODERN ENGLISH EQUIVALENT
Anon	Soon, shortly	Methinks	I think	I know not	I don't know
Art	Are	Aforementioned	Previously mentioned	I have not the time	I don't have time
Betwixt	Between	Art thou	Are you	'Twas	It was
Ere	Before	Pray tell	Please tell me	Doth/dost	Does/do
Fain	Gladly, willingly	Godspeed	Good luck	Thou art	You are
Hence	From here	'Tis	It is	Hath	Has
Hither	Here	An thou wilt	If you will	Mayst	May
Marry	Indeed	Hark!	Listen!	Hither come	Come here
Nigh	Near	Well met	Nice to meet you	Thee I love	I love you
Prithee	Please	Wouldst thou	Would you		
Soot	Sweet	Wilt thou	Will you		
Thee, thou	You				
Thine	Yours				
Verily	Truly				
Whence	From where				
Wherefore	Why				
Withal	In addition				
Yonder	Over there				
Forsooth	Indeed				

'The historical discourse module, spread over three weeks, adopted a multi-pronged pedagogical approach to facilitate students' mastery of historical language, narratives, and debates. This comprehensive approach involved several distinct, but interrelated steps, ranging from vocabulary introduction to text analysis, comparative studies, group work, and presentations. Below is a detailed breakdown of the teaching methodology used in this module'

The module on archaic language, extending over two weeks, was structured to ramp up students' understanding of old English language forms and their transformation over time. The methodology followed during this course module combined traditional teaching methods with interactive activities and immersive learning experiences. The following outline presents the step-by-step approach used to teach this module.

1. Direct Instruction. The first step was to introduce the students to the archaic language forms. A variety of resources was used, including Table 3 above, which listed examples of archaic vocabulary, expressions, and sentence constructions with their modern English equivalents. Each term was explored in depth, discussing its origin, usage, and how it transitioned to modern form.

2. Text Analysis. The course integrated the study of notable works from historical periods that prominently used archaic language. Texts like *Beowulf*, Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*, and Shakespeare's plays offered an authentic context for learning. Students analysed these texts, identifying archaic terms, understanding their use in context, and comparing them to their modern English counterparts.

3. Contextual Learning. The students learned to apply the archaic language in its historical context. The emphasis was on comprehending the underlying narrative or message within the text, considering the historical and linguistic background.

4. Translation Exercises. Students were given exercises to translate passages written in archaic English to modern English and vice versa. This translation work aimed to deepen their understanding of archaic language structures and improve their ability to understand and use these forms.

5. Interactive Activities. The module incorporated interactive activities, such as role-play and dramatic reading of historical plays. These activities were designed to immerse students in the era of the archaic language, improving their comprehension and pronunciation of archaic terms.

6. Group Work. Collaborative activities were also a part of the module. For instance, students were assigned group tasks like creating a play or a dialogue using archaic language. This not only reinforced their learning but also encouraged teamwork and creative expression.

7. Assessment and Feedback. The students' learning was continually assessed through quizzes, translation exercises, and presentations. The teachers provided constructive feedback, helping course participants correct their misunderstandings or misconceptions about archaic language use if any arouse during any stage of module progression.

The pedagogical approach for the archaic language module was immersive, engaging, and comprehensive. It not only taught students the linguistic characteristics of archaic English but also honed their analytical skills and fostered a deeper appreciation for the evolution of the English language.

4.1.3. Academic writing skills

The module on academic writing skills, spread across three weeks, was designed to enhance the students' ability to write coherent, structured, and well-argued historical essays. The pedagogical approach was a balanced mix of theoretical understanding and practical application, ensuring students could grasp the principles of academic writing and put them into practice effectively. The following stages describe the methodology used.

1. Direct Instruction. Initially, the instructor explained the fundamentals of academic writing, laying the groundwork for more advanced concepts. The class was introduced to the structure of an academic essay comprising an introduction with a clear thesis statement, body paragraphs presenting evidence-based arguments, and a succinct conclusion. The importance of a coherent argument, logical flow, and clear, concise language was stressed.

2. Study of Examples. Students studied an array of historical essays and research papers. These samples were carefully chosen to represent a variety of subjects, argument styles, and writing techniques. While examining these essays, students were encouraged to dissect the structure, understand the writer's argumentation strategy, appreciate the use of evidence, and recognise the rhetorical techniques employed.

3. Practical Workshops. Following the theoretical lessons, practical workshops were organised, where students were given the opportunity to write academic essays under guided supervision. They were provided with a set of essay questions and a pool of sources from which to draw evidence. In these workshops, students practiced crafting clear thesis statements, building evidence-backed arguments, and ensuring the overall coherence of their essays.

4. Peer Review and Feedback. The course incorporated a peer review process where students exchanged and critiqued each other's essays. This fostered a collaborative learning environment and allowed students to learn from each other's strengths and weaknesses. In addition to peer review, personalised feedback was given by the instructor, identifying areas of improvement and offering constructive advice to enhance writing skills.

5. Referencing and Citation. A significant portion of the module was devoted to teaching students the correct usage of citations and references, critical to academic integrity. The students were introduced to the referencing styles commonly used in historical writing and were taught how to cite sources correctly both within the text and in the bibliography.

6. Revision and Editing. The last week concentrated on revision and editing techniques. Students were taught how to proofread their essays, correct grammatical errors, refine their arguments, and improve the clarity and flow of their writing.

6. Assessment. The module concluded with a final assessment, where students were required to write a complete academic essay on a given historical topic, demonstrating their understanding of the essay structure, argumentation techniques, and referencing.

The academic writing skills module, with its multi-faceted pedagogical approach, was designed to effectively fuel students' capabilities to craft high-quality, well-researched, and compelling historical essays and research. It was also intended as an instrument to build their confidence and equip them with the necessary skills to excel in their academic writing tasks.

4.2. Pre-intervention results

Before the intervention, both the control and experimental groups were subjected to a pre-test to measure their baseline proficiency in historical discourse understanding, comprehension and use of archaic language, and academic writing skills. The test comprised a series of written and verbal assessments, each designed to evaluate a specific component of English language proficiency within a historical context.

The scores obtained by the students in these tests ranged from 0 to 100, with 100 indicating complete proficiency in the tested skill. The results from the pre-tests are summarised as follows.

1. Historical Discourse Understanding. The average score for the experimental group was 58.3, with a standard deviation of 10.2, indicating a moderate understanding of historical discourse. The control group scored an average of 59.1 with a standard deviation of 10.5. This slight difference is statistically insignificant, confirming the comparable proficiency levels of the two groups in understanding historical discourse before the intervention.

2. Archaic Language Comprehension and Use. The experimental group scored an average of 53.7 with a standard deviation of 11.3, whereas the control group obtained an average of 54.2 with a standard deviation of 11.7. This suggests a moderate level of competency in the understanding and usage of archaic language within historical texts. The difference between the two groups at this point is statistically negligible.

3. Academic Writing Skills. For this component, the experimental group scored an average of 57.9 with a standard deviation of 12.1. The control group, on the other hand, recorded an average of 58.4 with a standard deviation of 12.4. The similarity in scores suggests that both groups had a similar proficiency level in academic writing skills before the course.

The pre-test results demonstrate that both the control and experimental groups started from a similar proficiency level. This parity between the groups affirms the validity of using the control group as a benchmark to measure the effectiveness of the tailored English language instruction for history students.

The baseline results also indicate that there is room for improvement in all tested skills among both groups of students, affirming the need for an intervention such as the tailored English language course. In the following sections of the study, we present the results from the post-test to ascertain whether the course has led to significant improvements in the students' proficiency levels upon course completion.

4.3. Post-intervention results

Upon the completion of the eight-week course, the same tests administered during the pre-intervention phase were re-administered to both the experimental and control groups. This was done to measure any changes in the students' proficiency in historical discourse understanding, use of archaic language, and academic writing skills. The post-intervention test results are summarised as follows.

1. Historical Discourse Understanding. The average score for the experimental group rose to 78.5, with a standard deviation of 9.5, indicating a significant improvement in understanding historical discourse. In contrast, the control group demonstrated only a marginal increase, with an average score of 60.2 and a standard deviation of 10.7.

2. Archaic Language Comprehension and Use. The experimental group showed a marked improvement, with an average score of 74.6 and a standard deviation of 10.1. The control group's scores remained statistically unchanged, with an average of 55.4 and a standard deviation of 11.8.

3. Academic Writing Skills. The experimental group scored an average of 76.7, with a standard deviation of 11.3. In comparison, the control group had an average score of 59.7, with a standard deviation of 12.5.

In terms of statistical significance, a paired-sample t-test was conducted, revealing that the gains in scores of the experimental group in all three categories were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). In contrast, the changes in the control group's scores were not statistically significant.

These results indicate that the experimental group, which underwent the tailored English language instruction, showed substantial improvement in their understanding of historical discourse, comprehension and use of archaic language, and academic writing skills. This can be attributed to the course's comprehensive approach, incorporating historical discourse, archaic language, and academic writing modules, effectively catering to the specific needs of history students.

In contrast, the control group, which did not receive the specialised instruction, did not demonstrate a significant improvement in these areas, highlighting the effectiveness and necessity of tailored English language instruction in improving English proficiency for History students.

These findings provide evidence to suggest that tailoring English language instruction to meet the specific needs of history students enhances their academic and future occupational proficiency. Table 4 below summarises the pre-test and post-test results for both groups.

Table 4

Pre-test and post-test results for both groups

	PRE-TEST		POST-TEST	
Group	Control	Experimental	Control	Experimental
Historical Discourse Understanding	59.1 ± 10.5	58.3 ± 10.2	60.2 ± 10.7	78.5 ± 9.5
Archaic Language Comprehension and Use	54.2 ± 11.7	53.7 ± 11.3	55.4 ± 11.8	74.6 ± 10.1
Academic Writing Skills	58.4 ± 12.4	57.9 ± 12.1	59.7 ± 12.5	76.7 ± 11.3

Note: all values are mean ± standard deviation. The post-intervention scores for the experimental group in all areas were significantly higher than the pre-intervention scores ($p < 0.05$). In contrast, the control group did not show any significant improvement from the pre-test to the post-test.

5. DISCUSSION

This study's findings are a significant addition to the ongoing dialogue on English for Specific Purposes (ESP), reinforcing the value of tailoring English language instruction to meet the specific needs of learners within a variety of academic disciplines. The data offers compelling evidence of the efficacy of such a pedagogical approach in the realm of history education, a field often overlooked in ESP research.

Comparative analysis of pre- and post-intervention test scores demonstrates a significant improvement in the experimental group's abilities across all targeted aspects – understanding historical discourse, using archaic language, and academic writing. These improvements contrast with the control group's results, where no such significant changes were observed, thereby strengthening the argument for the effectiveness of the tailored ESP approach.

The experimental group's advancements in comprehending and engaging with historical discourse align well with prior research that highlights the importance of context in vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 2007). By embedding vocabulary teaching within specific historical contexts, students could better associate new words with their usage, thus enhancing retention and application. This approach could also cultivate students' ability to understand the nuances of language as used in various historical eras, contributing to a more nuanced appreciation of historical narratives.

The participants' marked improvement in deciphering and employing archaic language could transform the way history students interact with primary source materials. Traditional texts, often written in an older form of English, present a unique challenge to contemporary students. This study's findings suggest that targeted language instruction could bridge this gap, allowing students to fully engage with these texts, hence laying the foundation for a more in-depth understanding of historical phenomena.

Furthermore, the experimental group's significant progress in academic writing skills bears evidence to the effectiveness of explicit teaching of genre-specific writing conventions, a claim supported by Teng et al. (2022). Students not only learned about the structure of academic essays but also the disciplinary conventions of historical writing, including appropriate citation styles and argumentation techniques. This skill set is vital for their future academic work, such as producing research papers, theses, or dissertations, and could be beneficial in their professional careers.

The study's results further indicate that a tailored ESP approach could facilitate greater engagement with the discipline. As students gain confidence in their language skills, their ability to interpret historical events, engage in academic discourse, and produce quality academic work could be enhanced. Consequently, their overall academic performance may improve, as could their satisfaction with the learning experience.

However, the implications of these findings extend beyond the academic realm. English, being the lingua franca of international scholarly discourse, is essential for historians aiming to collaborate with international peers or aiming to disseminate their research globally. Thus, an improvement in English language proficiency could greatly expand students' future career prospects, facilitating their integration into the global community of historians.

This study fills a significant gap in the ESP literature by presenting a successful case of applying a tailored ESP approach in history education. Nevertheless, additional research should investigate this approach's long-term impacts on students' academic performance and career trajectories. It would also be worthwhile to adapt and apply this methodology across various cultural and institutional contexts, and to other fields in the humanities, thus broadening the applicability of ESP.

6. CONCLUSION

This study set out to investigate the efficacy of a tailored English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach in enhancing English language proficiency among history students. The research question focused on whether a pedagogical approach designed around the specific linguistic needs and characteristics of historical discourse, archaic language, and academic writing would result in a statistically significant improvement in these skills.

The methodology incorporated a quasi-experimental design involving a control group and an experimental group, both subjected to pre- and post-intervention testing. The intervention

comprised an eight-week course focusing on three core components: historical discourse, archaic language, and academic writing skills, each vital for success in history studies.

The results of the study provided robust evidence in support of the research question. There was a statistically significant improvement in the experimental group's scores in understanding historical discourse, use of archaic language, and academic writing skills in the post-intervention test. The control group, in contrast, did not exhibit a similar improvement. This improvement was not only statistically significant but also educationally meaningful, demonstrating the practical benefits of a tailored ESP approach in history education. The study's results contribute valuable data in the field of ESP, particularly its application in the humanities, an area often overlooked in the literature. By demonstrating the tangible benefits of such an approach in history education, the study extends the scope of ESP, arguing for its broader applicability across various academic disciplines.

The findings also carry implications for the wider field of English language teaching and learning, as they expose the value of context-specific language instruction, emphasising the need for curricula to align closely with the linguistic characteristics of the learners' field of study. The substantial improvements observed among the experimental group members involved in the current eight-week practical study attest to the benefits of such alignment, suggesting potential avenues for further innovation in language education.

In conclusion, this study unequivocally affirms the efficacy of a tailored ESP approach in history education, paving the way for further exploration and development of ESP methodologies in this and other academic fields. It provides a foundation for future research to build upon, whether in evaluating long-term outcomes, adapting the approach to other cultural or institutional contexts, or applying it to other disciplines within the humanities and beyond.

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Original Research

English dog expressions: Categorisation, structure, attitude, semantic molecules, and translatability into Arabic

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The present study aims to examine dog expressions in English in terms of categorisation, structure, attitude, semantic molecules, and translatability. This paper shows that the richness of English dog expressions qualifies the conceptual metaphor HUMANS are DOGS at a status comparable to that of the universal conceptual metaphor HUMANS are ANIMALS. The data in this study consists of 110 English dog expressions, a large sample that may not exhaust the entire corpus. This data is mainly collected from internet sources, dictionaries, linguistic textbooks, and native speakers of English. Based on the analysis of these expressions, the results show that 91.25% map negative dog attributes and habits onto people despite the highly-esteemed position the dog now occupies in Anglo-American cultures. Idiomatic expressions are found to be dominant in the data (72.72%), followed equally by idiomatic comparisons (13.64%) and proverbs (13.64%). While idiomatic comparisons and proverbs are structurally realised uniformly in similes and sentences respectively, idiomatic expressions are varied in structure, which is mostly realised in noun phrases (50%) and verb phrases (43.75%). In terms of semantic molecules, dog expressions are shown to reflect a rich spectrum of source domains. Regarding translatability, only some dog expressions translate formally, while most call for either functional equivalence or paraphrase. To conclude, this paper fills in a gap by systematically investigating English dog expressions from several perspectives. Besides, it is particularly valuable for both non-native English speakers who may not be familiar with many of the dog expressions in the corpus and native English speakers whose lexical competence may fall short of accounting for all the expressions in the data.

KEYWORDS: *dog expressions, attitude, semantic molecule, translation, conceptual metaphor, idiom*

1. INTRODUCTION

Making meaning in human language ranges between the literal and the figurative. While the literal mainly implements the open principle by preserving the dictionary meaning of lexical items in a proposition, the figurative mainly follows the idiom principle where lexical items lose their dictionary meaning to varying degrees in favour of a unitary meaning (Sinclair, 1991). Idiomatic expressions, in which English abounds, are a typical category where there is a huge loss of dictionary meaning in favour of figurative meaning. Thus, one entity (e.g., dog) is interpreted in terms of another entity (e.g., human). Such expressions must have started out as creative metaphors but have become fossilised expressions that have largely lost their creative aspect over time. Figurative meaning usually exploits comparisons drawn between two entities or concepts in an unusual

way to attract the reader's attention and conceptualise ideas vividly. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) view figures of speech in human language as conceptual metaphors that underlie the entire human conceptual system. In this vein, Schäffner (2004) considers conceptual metaphors as basic resources for thought processes in human society rather than only decorative elements.

The general conceptual metaphor HUMANS are ANIMALS seems to be a universal molecule in the human conceptual system (see Fraser, 1981; Newmark, 1988; Davies & Bentahila, 1989; Nadim, 2000; Faghih, 2001; Hsieh, 2006; Estaji & Nakhavali, 2011a, 2011b; Miri & Soori, 2015; Anjomshoa & Sadighi, 2015; Pourhossein, 2016; Farghal, 2019, 2021). This encompassing conceptual metaphor which maps a plethora of animal attributes as source domains onto human nature and behaviour as target domains overwhelmingly takes the negative

rather than the positive side. For example, Newmark (1988) states that animal metaphors are usually employed to portray inferior or undesirable human habits and attributes. Therefore, negative attributes like deception, laziness, stupidity, stubbornness, worthlessness, dirtiness, incompetence, aggressiveness, etc. find a haven in the animal kingdom for analogues that reflect the way human beings behave and think.

The present study aims to examine dog expressions in English in terms of categorisation, structure, attitude, semantic molecules, and translatability. To start with, one is amazed by the large number of English dog expressions which draw analogues practically pertaining to all walks of life. This amazement is heightened when it comes to English non-native speakers who need to comprehend and sometimes produce dog expressions in their day-to-day communication. Some dog expressions may even astound them on first encounter, e.g. *It's raining cats and dogs* (raining very heavily) or *My dogs are barking* (my feet are aching due to much standing). The large number of English dog expressions may even lead one to assume that the conceptual metaphor HUMANS are DOGS is comparable in its salience to the universal conceptual metaphor HUMANS are ANIMALS.

Despite the existence of several dictionaries and internet resources that list and explain English dog expressions, there are no systematic research studies that examine the linguistic nature of such expressions. This quantitative and qualitative study is intended to fill in this gap. There will be an attempt to answer the following research questions:

1. What categories are featured in dog expressions and their frequency?

2. What structural features are found in dog expressions and their frequency?

3. What attitudes (positive/negative) are expressed in dog expressions and their frequency?

4. What are the most salient semantic molecules in dog expressions?

5. How translatable are dog expressions into Arabic?

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Figurative language is used frequently in everyday speech and writing and includes idiomatic phrases, proverbs, and conceptual metaphors. They can be utilised to explain complicated ideas succinctly and memorably (Colston & Gibbs, 2021). Idiomatic expressions are words or phrases with a metaphorical meaning that is not immediately apparent from their literal meaning (Glucksberg & McGlone, 2001). For instance, *It's raining cats and dogs* does not refer to actual cats and dogs really dropping from the sky. It indicates heavy rain instead. Proverbs are short, pithy sayings that impart knowledge or wisdom. Proverbs can be used to instruct or inspire people because they frequently have a moral or lesson in them (Farghal, 2019). To grasp one notion in terms of another, one can employ conceptual metaphors (Abu Rumman et al., 2023). Using the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MONEY as an illustration, we might consider time to be a valuable resource that can be used, conserved, or

wasted. Proverbs, idioms, and conceptual metaphors are all closely related to one another. Proverbs are frequently found in idiomatic language, and they can be thought of as more explicit mental analogies or conceptual metaphors (Farghal & Saeed, 2022).

Idiomatic expressions and proverbs are not just random word combinations. They instead have a structured underpinning that is founded on conceptual metaphors. English has many different and rich terms for dogs. They can be used to characterise dogs, their actions, and their interactions with people. Dog expressions can convey a variety of attitudes, from affection to rage. There are many different ways that dog expressions can be put together and structured. 'Dog' and 'bark' are two examples of phrases that are merely nouns or verbs. Other dog phrases are more sophisticated and may include metaphorical language. For instance, the expression *Dog eat dog world* alludes to a hostile and competitive workplace. Using metaphor effectively might help people create vivid and unforgettable visuals. As an illustration, the expression *He's a real dog* might be used to characterise someone who is unreliable or violent.

The context in which a dog expression is used, the tone of the speaker's voice, and the relationship between the speaker and the listener are just a few of the variables that might affect the attitude that it conveys. For instance, when praising a dog for good behaviour, the phrase *Good boy* may be used in a humorous or friendly manner or in a more serious manner. Semantic molecules are small units of meaning that can be combined to form new phrases. For instance, the expression *Dog eat dog world* can be made using the semantic molecules 'dog', 'eat', and 'world'. Dog utterances often contain semantic molecules. They enable speakers to produce new expressions quickly and effortlessly, and they can be employed to convey a variety of meanings. Concerning translatability, it can be challenging to translate dog expressions into Arabic. While some dog idioms are straightforward to translate, some are more difficult (Farghal & Al-Hamly, 2015). The meaning of the expression, its structure, and the cultural context in which it is used can all affect how difficult it is to translate.

Animal expressions are sometimes used to describe human behaviours and feelings. Additionally, they can be employed to convey metaphors, make comparisons, and convey attitudes. In recent years, there has been a growing amount of studies of animal expressions. Belkhir (2019) examines the use of animal-related concepts in English, French, Arabic, and Kabyle proverbs, making the case that these proverbs provide interesting instances of how culture can affect conceptual metaphor and how it manifests in language. The researcher made an effort to demonstrate that different notions within the same animal species can be ranked. The results showed the impact of cultural contexts and cultural models on the primary meaning foci defining the concepts of DOG, LION, ASS, HORSE, CAMEL, and OX, leading to not only a classification of these animals in a hierarchical manner but also a classification of animals within one animal species as a result of the influences of cultural contexts and cul-

tural models. According to the study's findings, sociocultural circumstances influence the primary meaning foci defining the animal source domain concepts used in the HUMAN IS ANIMAL metaphor, resulting in animal-animal ranks within the same species and across species.

Al-Harahsheh (2020) examines the metaphorical and vocative uses of animal names in Jordanian Spoken Arabic (JSA) to address people, either abusively or warmly, in order to convey the attitudes and feelings of the speakers toward their addressees. The study's findings are based on a survey that was given to 100 undergraduate students at Yarmouk University in Jordan (50 men and 50 women) and comprised 44 animal names. The study comes to the conclusion that human invectives frequently use animal vocative patterns. The findings show that Jordanians refer to people as animals based on their appearance, behaviour, intelligence, and character, and recommends that while performing pragmatic studies about speech exchanges in JSA, linguists should take these factors into account.

According to Yakub (2020), metaphors, in general, have been observed to be crucial to the interpretation and comprehension of human language. Animal metaphors, particularly in proverbs, have frequently been employed to describe specific human behavioural patterns. By examining how specific animals are used in Nzema (a Kwa language of Ghana) proverbs to depict various human experiences, behaviours, and attributions based on the socio-traditional values, beliefs, and overall worldview of the people of Nzema, the researcher conducted a cognitive-conceptual metaphorical analysis of animal proverbs in Nzema. Adopting the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), the researcher argued that the animals serve as the source domain and other human experiences serve as the target domain. The findings showed that both domestic and nondomestic animals are used in Nzema proverbs to caution people against undesirable attitudes like recalcitrance, procrastination, greed, and all kinds of social vices. Nondomestic animals include birds, flies, insects, and reptiles. Proverbs also make use of these creatures to guide humans toward virtues like kindness, patience, cooperation, obedience, tolerance, forgiveness, faithfulness, and hard work, among others.

Altarbaq (2020) examines some popular animal idioms in English and their Arabic equivalents in two different idiom dictionaries, namely, *Al-Mawrid: A Dictionary of Idiomatic Expressions* and *A Dictionary of Common English Proverbs*. He attempts to provide a clearer understanding of the literal and free translation methods utilised in idiom dictionaries. The study adopts Nida's (1964) theories of idiom translation as well as Baker's (2018) strategies. This study's methodology is a qualitative approach based on corpus linguistics and critical analysis. *The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs, McGraw-Hill's American Idioms Dictionary,* and an online English dictionary called *The Free Dictionary* were all utilised to clarify each idiom's meaning in English. To make the analysis process easier, the data were then split into three idiom categories: identical idioms, semi-identical idioms, and culturally distinctive idioms. The findings show that

the chosen dictionaries contain certain English and Arabic animal idioms that are similar to one another and that are different from each other. Some idioms utilise animals in exactly the same way in both English and Arabic, while others use animals differently yet have a comparable meaning. Others might convey the same concept using different imagery, and the author might explain how idioms function in translation in a way that makes sense in the target language.

Al-Qahtani and Qahtani (2021) examine the issues translators encountered when translating animal idioms from English into Arabic. Based on Nida's (1964) methodologies for translating idioms, the study addresses the challenges and solutions of interpreting animal idioms. To acquire a thorough grasp of the translational issues and procedures used by Saudi translators in the transference of animal idioms from English into Arabic, the researchers designed an empirical study using a blended method of qualitative and quantitative approaches. According to the study's findings, even when an equivalent idiom can be found in Arabic, the majority of translator respondents chose to translate an idiom into a non-idiom. Both Arabic and English have many idioms referring to animals. Animal idioms, however, have the potential to widen the cultural divide that prevents mutual understanding between Arab and Western civilisations because of the historical, cultural, geographical, and philosophical disparities between them.

Khelf (2021) emphasises the semantic meaning and pragmatic function of animal names in Arabic and English proverbs and highlights the significance of the differences and similarities between Arabic and English proverbs. Although there are many different animal proverbs in Arabic and English, certain animals have universal cognition, while others have different cognition in the two languages. Animal proverbs in Arabic and English both use the same conceptual metaphor. The researcher comes to the conclusion that the semantic nature of proverbial expressions presents a significant challenge for linguists who are interested in analysing the functions of proverbs across languages, keeping in mind the cultural differences that exist between them and the role that these differences play in the semantic interpretation of these expressions.

Bachrun (2023) investigates the metaphors of dogs in English and Indonesian proverbial expressions and examines the shared target domains that are present in both languages. The findings showed that there are twenty concepts that were found to be the target domains of the lexicon 'dog' inside the proverbs being analysed in this research. These include a terrible person; a fortunate talent; a spiteful person; a hungry soul; significant problems; a cornered person; an offender; a close friend; a fool; a threat; a lucky talent; an unappreciative person; a powerful person; insincerity; courageous nature; humble upbringing; decisions significance; perceived aspects; grateful someone; and a coward. The study concludes that the way that the English and Indonesian speech communities perceive the term dog symbolically differs. However, both speech groups' preserved the lexicon 'dogs' and still used common ideas as their target domains.

'Idiomatic expressions and proverbs are not just random word combinations. They instead have a structured underpinning that is founded on conceptual metaphors. English has many different and rich terms for dogs. They can be used to characterise dogs, their actions, and their interactions with people. Dog expressions can convey a variety of attitudes, from affection to rage. There are many different ways that dog expressions can be put together and structured. 'Dog' and 'bark' are two examples of phrases that are merely nouns or verbs. Other dog phrases are more sophisticated and may include metaphorical language'

Madani et al. (2023) examine the connotative implications of animal-related proverbs used to describe male and female conduct in Algerian and Jordanian communities. To do this, 30 native Arabic speakers enrolled at the University of Jordan received questionnaires, including 46 Algerian and 45 Jordanian proverbs about animals. The findings revealed that animal-related proverbs from Algeria and Jordan had various connotative interpretations. In both cultures, women were primarily connected with negative connotations that portrayed traits like frailty, stupidity, inferiority, cunningness, and deception. Men were described with similar traits, though women in Arab societies were continuously portrayed as inferior and despised. Men, on the other hand, were portrayed as having power, dominance, superiority, and authority over women. Additionally, to emphasise the attractiveness of women, positive representations included animals like gazelles, peacocks, partridges, cats, and horses. Horses, camels, and lions were associated with men's superior qualities, such as strength, bravery, and dominance. The study emphasised how often men and women in Algerian and Jordanian communities are referred to as animals in proverbs.

Hamdan et al. (2023) explored how Jordanian Arabic speakers understood the meanings of the ten animal metaphors that were most frequently used in Jordanian contexts. The findings suggest that the ten most prevalent animal metaphors in the Jordanian context are (1) X IS A MONKEY, (2) X IS A DONKEY, (3) X IS A COW, (4) X IS A SNAKE, (5) X IS A DOG, (6) X IS A PIG, (7) X IS A BEAR, (8) X IS A DUCK, (9) X IS AN OWL, and (10) X IS A DEER. They have 39 distinct implications altogether. There are five meanings associated with the phrase X IS A MONKEY, with hyperactivity being the most prevalent. Regarding X IS A DONKEY, it has four meanings, with ignorance being the most prevalent one. X IS A COW has six meanings and is frequently used to refer to obesity, particularly in females. X IS A SNAKE implies that one is poisonous and dishonest. When it comes to X IS A DOG, bad manners are primarily associated with it. There are three meanings associated with the phrase X IS A PIG, and lying is one of them. Regarding X IS A BEAR, it has four meanings, with overweight being the most common. There are three meanings to the phrase X IS a DUCK, but the main one is being attractive and having a good

figure. There are three meanings associated with X IS AN OWL, with pessimism being the main one. Finally, X IS A DEER has three meanings, with beauty being the most prevalent. The study's findings suggest that animal metaphors are culturally loaded and that our environment has an impact on how we perceive and use animals metaphorically.

Al-Hamzi et al. (2023) investigate the socio-pragmatics of English translations of Yemeni Arabic (YA) names for animals and other mythical creatures. By sending a questionnaire to 43 native English speakers (NESs), focusing on target language metaphors and similes (TL), the study seeks to find out the most effective English translations of these metaphors. The results show that YA dialects prefer to employ precise similes that combine feature and element, whereas NESs preferred to utilise the names of animals and mystical entities to convey meanings, feelings, and intent. The majority of NESs rejected the metaphor because it lacks simile, in contrast to YA, which accepts all three types of metaphor and simile to refer to humans by the names of animals and fantastical creatures. These results point to probable cultural translation disparities between the two languages and cultures for names of animals and supernatural creatures. In general, this research advances our knowledge of the socio-pragmatics of language use in many cultures and how it affects intercultural communication. The results point to the need for additional study into how the names of animals and supernatural beings translate across languages and cultures.

The current study will look more closely at English dog expressions. It will concentrate on classifying, structuring, attitude, semantic molecules, and the capacity to translate these expressions into Arabic. Our comprehension of animal expressions, in general, and dog expressions, in particular, will be improved by the study's findings. They will also expose the difficulties involved in translating these idioms from English into Arabic. It closes a gap by providing a methodical analysis of English dog expressions from several angles. Additionally, it is extremely helpful for both non-native English speakers who might not be familiar with many of the dog idioms in the corpus and native English speakers whose lexical proficiency may fall short of accounting for all the expressions in the data.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS
3.1. Data collection
The data in this study consists of 110 English dog expressions, a large sample which may not exhaust the entire corpus. This data is mainly collected from dictionaries, linguistic textbooks, native speakers of English, and online dictionaries.

A two-fold strategy was used to guarantee a thorough and reliable dataset as well as diverse coverage of dog expressions. The first step was to conduct a thorough search in academic databases, particularly linguistics and language-related archives. Furthermore, to extract dog-related terms, relevant corpus studies, authoritative dictionaries, recognised language textbooks and corpus studies were reviewed. In order to reduce selection bias and provide a solid dataset, this multi-source strategy was used.

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3.2. Data pre-processing

To guarantee accuracy and consistency, the collected expressions underwent stringent and rigorous preprocessing procedures. This involved ensuring accuracy, getting rid of duplication, fixing typos, and uniformly normalising expressions. A clean dataset for analysis was produced as a result. One hundred and ten dog idioms were included in the dataset, which was compiled from a variety of language sources. To guarantee tracability, replicability and reproducibility, each expression was documented, along with its source.

3.3. Annotation

A thorough annotation strategy was developed to attain neutrality when assessing attitudes in dog expressions. The process of attitude annotation was carried out by a group of expert linguists who are knowledgeable about the intricacies of the English language. In order to foster a comprehensive knowledge of the attitude expressed, annotators were given access to the expression and its context. The annotation guidelines were used to classify each expression as either good, negative, or neutral. A subset of phrases was arbitrarily chosen, and each annotator worked independently to produce their own annotations in order to ensure reliability.

3.4. Quantitative analysis

Quantitative analysis was performed on the annotated dataset. The frequency of each attitude category (positive, negative, and neutral) within the dog expressions was calculated. These frequencies were crucial in identifying dominant attitudes and their distribution in the dataset.

4. STUDY RESULTS
4.1. Categorisation of dog expressions

Based on the study's corpus and the analysis of 110 examples, we hypothesise that English dog expressions fall into three main categories: idiomatic expressions, idiomatic comparisons, and proverbs. Idiomatic expressions are the most common category, accounting for 72.72% (80/110) in the data (see Appendix 1). An idiomatic expression is generally viewed as an expression whose meaning cannot be worked out based on the dictionary meaning of the words composing it (Wood, 2019). That is, it communicates a unitary meaning that drastically sails away from what it literally means. For example, the idiomatic expressions *puppy love* (young adolescent love) and *a dog in the manger* (a person who prevents or hinders others from having something that may benefit them, even though they do not want or need it) do not communicate messages about dogs but about humans. As

can be noticed, the degree of opaqueness in idiomatic expressions is so high to the point that it may hinder communication if either the addressor or the addressee is not aware of its figurative import.

Idiomatic comparisons are similes which are formally marked by '(as) adj as', e.g., *as sick as a dog* (very sick) or 'like NP', e.g., *like a whipped dog* (a person having an unhappy or embarrassed expression). Despite their being idiomatic, they usually show a lesser degree of opaqueness. For example, it is easier to figure out what the idiomatic comparisons *as mean as a junkyard dog* and *work like a dog* mean than the idiomatic expressions *barking up the wrong tree* (following an incorrect course of action or making the wrong choice) and *doggy bag* (a bag for taking home the remains of your meal at a restaurant). Some dog comparisons, however, can be as challenging as dog idiomatic expressions in terms of interpretation, e.g., *like a dog with a bone* (a person fixating on a topic) or *as crooked as a dog's hind leg* (a deceptive person). Idiomatic comparisons account for 13.64% (15/110) in the data (see Appendix 2).

Like other idiomatic expressions in English, dog idiomatic expressions and dog idiomatic comparisons are employed to communicate a high degree of emotiveness which is missing in their literal counterparts. For example, describing someone as *a dirty dog* and *an attack dog* is much more negatively emotive than describing them as *a deceptive person* and *a person used to hurt others on behalf of someone*, respectively. That is why idiomatic expressions are frequently used in expressive and argumentative discourse in order to both impress and persuade.

Finally, we have the category of dog proverbs in the data (see Appendix 3), which ties in with idiomatic comparisons in percentage – 13.64% (15/110). In addition to emotiveness, which is the main function of idiomatic expressions in discourse, proverbs transmit collective human wisdom and experience. For example, the idiomatic expressions *dog days* (bad days) and *in a dog's age* (in a very long period of time) merely refer to two things emotively by using figurative language. By contrast, the proverbs *a living dog is better than a dead lion* and *love me, love my dog*, besides expressing two propositions both metaphorically and emotively, communicate human wisdom and experience. The former advises us to gauge entities according to existing conditions rather than an absolute value, hence a living coward is better than a dead hero, despite the fact that, other things being equal, being a hero is better than being a coward. The latter expression, *love me, love my dog,* advises us to accept people as they are rather than as what we want them to be, in order to make friends and maintain friendships. Therefore, the virtual dividing line between an idiomatic expression/comparison and a proverb has to do with the function it performs in the course of human communication.

Table 1 below displays the distribution of dog expressions categories in the data. The frequency column indicates how frequently each value appears in the dataset. The percentage each value reflects is indicated in the percentage column. The data in this study consists of 110 English dog expressions.

Table 1

Distribution of dog expressions across categories

NAME OF CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Dog idiomatic expressions	80	72.72
Dog idiomatic comparisons	15	13.64
Dog proverbs	15	13.64
Total	110	100

4.2. Structure of dog expressions

Dog idiomatic comparisons uniformly take the simile form 'be (as) adj as' or 'V like NP', which functionally appear as subject complements, e.g., *(as) lazy as a dog, sleep like a dog* and *be like a dog with a bone*. Dog proverbs also behave uniformly by being realised in complete sentences/utterances, e.g., *a barking dog never bites* and *a scalded dog dreads cold water*. By contrast, dog idiomatic expressions display a rich variety of structures, including noun phrases, being part (noun or verb) of verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, complete sentences, and exclamatory phrases. The occurrence of the word 'dog' idiomatically in noun phrases accounts for half the data – 50% (40/80). The majority of them has the word 'dog' as part of modifying the head noun in the noun phrase – 62.5% (25/40). As can be observed in Table 2, the word 'dog' in (1)-(4) is part of a pre-modifying phrase that describes a head noun, i.e., 'story', 'chance', 'whistle', and 'leg', respectively. In the rest of noun phrases – 37.5% (15/4) – the word 'dog' is used as a head noun (Table 3). As can be seen in Table 3, in (5)-(8) the head noun 'dog' is pre-modified, while it is post-modified in (9). The second frequent

occurrence of the word 'dog' appears in verb phrases – 43.75% (35/80). The majority of these cases feature the word 'dog' as an object (of a preposition) in a verb phrase – 68.59% (24/35) – which is headed idiomatically by a lexical verb (Table 4).

In the rest of cases – 31.41% (11/35) – the word 'dog' is employed as a verb, either separately or as part of a compound verb (Table 5). In the remaining five cases (6.25%) of dog idiomatic expressions in the data, the word 'dog' appears in a mixed bag: once in an adjective phrase, once in a complete sentence and once as an exclamatory utterance; and twice in an adverbial phrase (Table 6).

For their turn, idiomatic comparisons occur uniformly in two simile forms: '(as) adj as' (33.33%) or 'like NP' (66.66%) (Table 7). Similarly, proverbs take the sentence/utterance which expresses an independent proposition as a uniform structure (100%). Thus, dog proverbs represent complete propositions unlike most idiomatic expressions and idiomatic comparisons which occur as parts of propositions (Table 8). The frequency and percentages of types of structures across categories are presented in Tables 9 and 10 below.

Table 2

The occurrence of the word 'dog' idiomatically in noun phrases

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
1	a shaggy-dog story	a story that ends ridiculously
2	a dog's chance	a very slim chance
3	a dog whistle	an indirect signal to some party
4	a dogleg	a sharp curve in a road

Table 3

The occurrence of the word 'dog' idiomatically in noun phrases

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
5	the top dog	the privileged
6	a sea dog	an experienced sailor
7	something that shouldn't happen to a dog	something terrible

8	the tail wagging the dog	a small part controlling the whole
9	a dog in the manger	a person who prevents or hinders others from having something that may benefit them, even though they do not want or need it

Table 4
The occurrence of the word 'dog' as an object (of a preposition) in a verb phrase

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
10	to beat a dead dog	to do something useless/to no avail
11	to call off one's dogs	to stop criticising someone
12	to look for a dog to kick	to seek out someone to blame
13	to put on the dog	to behave lavishly/self-importantly

Table 5
The occurrence of the word 'dog' as a verb

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
14	to dog it	to idle/loaf
15	to dog out	to mistreat
16	to dog food	(in business) to use one's own products
17	to bird-dog	to pay unwelcome attention to someone/to steal one's girlfriend

Table 6
The occurrence of the word 'dog' as a mixed bag

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
18	dog-tired	very tired
19	my dogs are barking	my feet are aching due to much standing
20	Hot dog!	expression of excitement on observing or receiving a pleasant thing
21	between dog and wolf	between dusk and daylight
22	until the last dog is hung	until the very end

Table 7
The occurrence of the word 'dog' in two simile forms '(as) adj as' and 'like NP'

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
23	(as) lazy as a dog	very lazy
24	(as) sick as a dog	very sick
25	like a dog's breakfast/dinner	messy, disorganised
26	like a dog in heat	sexually aroused

Table 8
The occurrence of the word 'dog' as an independent proposition

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
27	It's the hit dog that howls	If someone complains about something they were probably affected by it
28	Let sleeping dogs lie	Ignore the problem, otherwise it might be worse
29	You can't teach an old dog new tricks	You cannot replace people's set habits with new ones

Table 9
Type of structure across categories

NAME OF CATEGORY	TYPE OF STRUCTURE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Idiomatic expressions	Phrases (see Table 3)	80	72.72
Idiomatic Comparisons	Similes (as) adj as like NP	15 (33.33%) (66.66%)	13.64
Proverbs	Sentences	15	13.64
Total		110	100

Table 10
Distribution of type of structure in dog idiomatic expressions

TYPE OF STRUCTURE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
NOUN PHRASE 'dog' as modifier 'dog' as head noun	40 (25) (15)	50 (62.5) (37.5)
VERB PHRASE 'dog' as object 'dog' as verb	35 (24) (11)	43.75 (68.59) (31.41)
MIXED BAG	5	6.25
Total	80	100

4.3. Attitude in dog expressions

Despite the important emotional and social role that pet dogs play in the Anglo-American cultures, only 9/110 (8.18%) out of the 110 English dog expressions in this study show positive attitudes towards dogs, which means 101/110 (91.82%) of them express negative attitudes towards dogs. This finding is surprising given the fact that pet dogs enjoy a high degree of care and love by their owners in these cultures. In fact, you can hardly find an English or American family who do not keep a pet dog at home. One may even go as far as saying that pet dogs in such cultures are receiving better care and providence than millions of people in developing countries.

Some people would argue that there is a contrast between the affectionate treatment of pets in Anglo-American societies and the largely unfavourable opinions shown by English dog expressions. This difference is probably caused by the fact that idiomatic expressions and proverbs frequently come from historical contexts, where the characteristics and social functions of dogs may have been very different from what they are today. It is crucial to make an explicit distinction between dogs as domesticated pets and the broader idea of 'dogs' as a species or archetypal representation. Such a distinction is crucial, and it is probable that some of the unfavourable attitudes implied by English dog representations stem from historical views of dogs as strays or wild creatures.

Within dog idiomatic expressions, negative attitudes towards dogs show in 73 (91.25%) cases covering a wide range of topics (see section 6 for more details). Table 11 shows some illustrative examples, where one can readily see the negative attitudes expressed towards dogs in (30)-(33). To explain, in (30)

and (31), dogs are portrayed as representing problems/trouble. In (32) and (33), they stand for small, unimportant entities. Similarly, in (34) and (35), dogs stand for negative acts, i.e., deteriorating and spying, respectively. Only in 7 (8.75%) instances of the idiomatic expressions in the data are dogs viewed positively. The examples in Table 12 are illustrative. As for idiomatic comparisons, 13 out of 15 instances (86.66%) show negative atti-

tudes towards dogs, as can be witnessed in the examples in Table 13. Only in two idiomatic comparisons in the data (13.34%) are dogs viewed positively, as can be observed in Table 14. Finally, we have the category of proverbs in which all of them (15 proverbs) depict dogs negatively (Table 15). Table 16 displays the frequency and percentage of negative attitudes towards dogs in idiomatic expressions, idiomatic comparisons, and proverbs.

Table 11
Distribution of type of structure in dog idiomatic expressions

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
30	not my dog	not my problem
31	be/get in the doghouse	to be in trouble or not in favour
32	dogsbody	one who does all the work for a powerful or important person
33	a yellow dog	a despicable person/thing
34	go to the dogs	to deteriorate
35	dog around	to follow or pursue someone closely

Table 12
Positive attitudes towards 'dogs' in idiomatic expressions

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
36	a hair of the dog	an alcoholic drink that helps one get rid of a hangover
37	eat (one's) dog food	(in business) to use one's own products
38	my dog	my close friend
39	top dog	a person, group, or a nation that has acquired a position of highest authority
40	Hot dog!	an expression of positive excitement

Table 13
Negative attitudes towards 'dogs' in idiomatic expressions

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
41	as sick as a dog	very ill
42	as mean as a junkyard dog	very mean
43	like a dog in heat	aroused sexually
44	like a blind dog in a meat market	reckless; out of control
45	die like a dog	to die in an unpleasant and demeaning manner

Table 14
Positive attitudes towards 'dogs'

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
46	like a dog with two tails	very happy
47	(as) fit as a butcher's dog	in excellent physical health

Table 15
Negative attitudes towards 'dogs' in proverbs

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
48	A barking dog never bites	people who make angry/threatening statements rarely act upon them
49	If you lie with dogs, you (will) get up with fleas	one is influenced by bad people's company
50	Love me, love my dog	one should accept friends along with their faults
51	Let sleeping dogs lie	one should not start trouble
52	Every dog will have its/his day	even the least fortunate person will have success at some point

Table 16
Positive and negative across categories

CATEGORY	ATTITUDE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Idiomatic expressions	Negative	73/80	91.25
	Positive	7	8.75
Idiomatic comparisons	Negative	13/15	86.66
	Positive	2	13.34
Proverbs	Negative	15	100
Total	Negative	101/110	91.82
	Positive	9	8.18

4.4. Semantic molecules

The universal, general conceptual metaphor HUMANS are ANIMALS is narrowed down in dog expressions to HUMANS are DOGS. The pervasiveness of this English conceptual metaphor, especially in its negative parameter, wins it a status comparable to that of its mother metaphor. This is evident in the wide range of semantic molecules the dog metaphor subsumes. The aim of this section is not to list all the semantic molecules featured in dog expressions and the English conceptual metaphors they generate. Rather, it aims to present an adequate sample of these molecules as source domains and the way they are mapped onto people as target domains in the varied structural realisations of dog expressions.

4.4.1. Semantic molecules in noun phrases

Semantic molecules that are realised in modifying the head noun 'dog' by an adjective in a semantically transparent or opaque way are metaphorically mapped onto people in a straightforward manner. Thus, many semantic molecules that constitute source domains such as LAZY are DOGS, SICK are DOGS, CUNNING are DOGS, DECEPTIVE are DOGS, and DISPICABLE are DOGS are generated. These semantic molecules are subsequently mapped onto people, and sometimes onto things, to produce conceptual metaphors, as can be observed in the following examples, respectively (Table 17). As can be seen, (53)-(55) are semantically transparent, while (56) and (57) are semantically opaque. In this way, the adjectives in the former maintain their dictionary meaning, whereas they do not in the latter. For example, the literal and the metaphorical meaning converge in (53) when mapped onto people, but they do not in (57), in which the receiver may wonder what 'yellow' metaphorically refers to. Alternatively, the head noun 'dog' may be modified by a noun rather than an adjective, in which case the molecule is usually semantically opaque rather than trans-

parent such as DOGS have AUTHORITY, MERCENARIES are DOGS, PUPPETS are DOGS, EXPERIENCED are DOGS, as can be witnessed in the following examples respectively (Table 18). In several cases, dog noun phrases feature the word 'dog' as a modifier of a head noun, which usually involves opaque rather than transparent semantic molecules such as MISERABLE is A DOG'S LIFE, SLIM is A DOG'S CHANCE, LONG is A DOG'S AGE, BENDING is A DOG'S LEG, DISORDERLY are DOGS, VALUELESS is DOG'S FOOD, as can be witnessed respectively in the conceptual metaphors (Table 19).

Table 17
Semantic molecules realised in modifying the head noun 'dog' by an adjective

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
53	a lazy dog	a very lazy person
54	a lucky dog	a lucky person
55	a sly dog	a cunning person
56	a dirty dog	a deceptive/dishonest person
57	a yellow dog	a cowardly person

Table 18
Semantic molecules realised in modifying the head noun 'dog' by a noun

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
58	top dog	a party viewed as having high authority
59	attack dog	a person who physically attacks others on behalf of someone
60	lap dog	a puppet person who submissively does work for someone
61	sea dog	an experienced sailor

Table 19
The word 'dog' as a modifier of a head noun

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
62	dog days	bad days/times
63	a dog's chance	a slim chance
64	a dog's age	a long period of time
65	a dogleg	a curve in a road
66	a dog-eat-dog world	an inpleasantly competitive situation
67	dog meat	(a threat) food for dogs

4.4.2. Semantic molecules in verb phrases

Verb phrases that are headed by lexical verbs and that often feature the word 'dog' as an object (of preposition) involve semantic molecules such as AGGRESSIVE are DOGS, LAVISH are DOGS, SECRETIVE are DOGS, ANNOYING are DOGS, VICTIMS are DOGS, SLAVES are DOGS. Note that these semantic molecules drive from actions acted upon dogs and produce semantically opaque conceptual metaphors whose use pre-

supposes the receiver's familiarity with their communicative import. Table 20 lists metaphorical dog expressions representing the semantic molecules above. Even more challenging and metaphorical are verb phrases whose headword is 'dog' employed as a lexical verb, either separately or in a compound verb.

From this verbalisation of the word 'dog', several semantic molecules that underlie some conceptual metaphors may be derived, such as DETECTIVES are DOGS, IDLE are DOGS, THIEVES are DOGS, INSULTING are DOGS, and DEFENSIVE are DOGS, as can be illustrated in the following dog expressions in Table 21.

Table 20
Metaphorical dog expressions representing semantic molecules

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
68	to call off the dogs	to stop criticising others
69	to put on the dog	to behave lavishly
70	to go see a man about a dog	to not tell someone where you are going or what you are going to do
71	to let the dog see the rabbit	to let someone finish their work uninterrupted
72	to look for a dog to kick	to seek out someone to blame
73	to not keep a dog and bark oneself	not to do something one hired another person to do

Table 21
Metaphorical dog expressions representing semantic molecules underling conceptual metaphors

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
74	to dog someone	to follow or pursue someone wherever they go
75	to dog it	to loaf
76	to bird-dog someone	to steal someone's girlfriend
77	to dog someone out	to mistreat them
78	to hit-dog	to react defensively

4.4.3. Semantic molecules in idiomatic comparisons

Idiomatic comparisons express both transparent and opaque conceptual similes in which literal and metaphorical semantic molecules may be found. Similes in the form '(as) ADJ as' usually include literal molecules that map metaphorically on people such as SICK are DOGS, MEAN are JUNKYARD DOGS, and FIT are BUTCHER'S DOGS, while those in the form 'like NP' usually feature metaphorically-interpreted molecules mapped onto people such as EMBARRASSED are DOGS, HORNEY are DOGS, and MESSY is DOG FOOD. As can be observed in Table 22, the conceptual similes in (79)-(81) are interpreted straightforwardly in terms of their semantic molecules, whereas the ones in (82)-(84) are opaque and require metaphorical unpacking before comprehension can take place.

Table 22
Transparent and opaque conceptual similes with the word 'dog'

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
79	(as) sick as a dog	very ill
80	(as) mean as a junkyard dog	very aggressive or nasty
81	(as) fit as a butcher's dog	very healthy

82	like a whipped dog	feeling ashamed or embarrassed
83	like a dog in heat	very excited or enthusiastic, sexually aroused
84	like a dog's dinner	very messy or disorganised

4.4.4. Semantic molecules in proverbs

Semantic molecules in dog proverbs range between relatively transparent and highly opaque. In both cases, they offer advice and wisdom in a propositionally multi-layered conceptual metaphors unlike dog idiomatic and comparative expressions which usually include only one metaphorical layer. To explain, let us consider the following examples in Table 23.

While the idiomatic expression and the idiomatic comparison in (85) and (86) include one-layer metaphorical mappings which respectively refer to chaos and physical fitness, the proverb in (87) involves more metaphorical complexity. To get the metaphorical piece of wisdom, the receiver must first retrieve the semantic molecule LIVING LION better than LIVING DOG. Second, this semantic molecule must be mapped onto human circumstances by extracting another semantic molecule GOODNESS depends on CIRCUMSTANCE. Finally, the target

semantic molecule LIVING COWARD better than DEAD HERO is reached. This metaphorical complexity is found even in proverbs that may otherwise look straightforward. Observe the two proverbs in Table 24 below. One may mistakenly get the wrong message from (88) that people should keep off dogs because they are dirty. However, the target message is more metaphorically interwoven to communicate the import that people should avoid involving themselves in dangerous things. In this way, the receiver must first derive the semantic molecule DOGS collect FLEAS. Second, they must extract the semantic molecule DANGEROUS are FLEAS. Finally, the target semantic molecule PEOPLE should avoid DANGEROUS THINGS must be unravelled. A similar complex process needs to be followed in (85) in order to get to the metaphorical import represented by the target semantic molecule ACCEPT FRIENDS along with THEIR FAULTS.

Table 23
Semantic molecules in dog proverbs

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
85	a dog-eat-dog meeting	a meeting where people are very competitive and aggressive towards each other
86	as fit as a butcher's dog	very healthy and strong
87	a living dog is better than a dead lion	it is better to be alive and humble than to be dead and powerful

Table 24
Metaphorical complexity in 'dog' proverbs

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
88	If you lie down with dogs, you (will) get up with fleas	if you associate with bad people, you will eventually become like them
89	Love me, love my dog	if you love someone, you should also love their pets

4.5. Translatability of dog expressions into Arabic

Idiomatic expressions have been a familiar subject in translation studies since the contrastive publication between French and English by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), in which equivalence (finding a functional equivalent apart from literalness) was best suggested as a translation procedure for them. Although this procedure may suffer a deficit in the transfer of source language (SL) cultural features, it gains tremendously in terms of fluency and acceptability in the target language (TL). More recently, translation theorists (see Newmark, 1988; Baker, 2018) suggest

many procedures ranging between literal translation and omission for translating idiomatic expressions. Looking more closely at various classifications, one can generally talk about three main procedures: formal equivalence (literal translation), paraphrase (ideational equivalence), and functional equivalence (see Nida, 1964; Catford, 1965; Newmark, 1988; Farghal, 1994, 2012 for general literature on types of equivalence). These procedures may vary in their implementation according to the type of text and purpose of translation. Dog expressions, like other idiomatic expressions, are subject to similar translation procedures. How-

ever, given the large number of idiomatic dog expressions in English compared to no more than a dozen or so of such expressions in Arabic opens the door wide open for renderings that embrace functional equivalence and paraphrase. Such renderings avoid literalness in which the referent 'dog' is employed in

favour of calling up an idiomatic equivalent that performs the same function or just capturing the communicative import of the dog expression. Let us first consider some examples in an area, probably the only one, where we find correspondence in dog expressions between English and Arabic (Table 25).

Table 25

Correspondence in dog expressions between English and Arabic

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING	ARABIC IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
90	to die like a dog	to die in a painful or humiliating way	يموت ميتة الكلاب.	to die like a dog
91	to lead a dog's life	to live a life of hardship and misery	يعيش عيشة الكلاب.	to lead a dog's life
92	to treat someone like a dog	to treat someone cruelly or with contempt	يعامل شخصا معاملة الكلاب	to treat someone like a dog
93	to throw it to the dogs	to abandon or discard something as worthless	يرمى شخصا للكلاب.	to throw to the dogs

In all these expressions as can be seen, the dog is viewed negatively in terms of the kind of life it leads and the kind of treatment it receives. These negative things are mapped onto humans in both English and Arabic. However, there are some

English dog expressions that look like Arabic dog expressions, but they differ in their communicative import, a fact that deserves utmost attention from translators. Table 26 shows some illustrative examples.

Table 26

English and Arabic dog expressions that differ in their communicative import

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING	ARABIC IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
94	Call off the dogs	stop being aggressive or threatening	كف كلابك عني.	call off the dogs
95	A living dog is better than a dead lion	it is better to be alive and humble than to be dead and powerful	كلب حايم ولا سبع نايم.	a living dog is better than a dead lion
96	Like a dog with a bone	very possessive or determined about something	مثل كلب ماسك عظمة	like a dog with a bone

At first sight, one may think that these dog expressions in English and Arabic communicate the same import but, in fact, they do not. In (94), the addressor in English calls upon the addressee to stop criticising him/her, while the addressor in Arabic calls upon the addressee to stop people acting on their behalf from annoying him/her. To capture the meaning of the English expression, the translator needs to call up a functional equivalent (lit. 'stop your tongue from criticising me'). Similarly, the English proverb in (95) communicates the message that a living coward is better than a dead hero, while the Arabic dog proverb has to do with being practical by getting benefit from something, e.g., 'an awake dog is more beneficial than a sleeping lion'. That is why the translator should look for an Arabic proverb here that performs the same function (lit. 'a hundred times coward rather than saying 'May God take mercy on him', i.e. 'better call someone a coward a hundred times than have him die'). For its turn, the English expression in (96) describes someone who is fixated on a certain point/topic, while the Arabic expression – lit. 'like a

dog holding a bone' – refers to someone acting very aggressively. The majority of English dog expressions calls for Arabic idiomatic expressions which do not feature the word 'dog', but they perform the same function. Below are some illustrative examples (Table 27). As can be witnessed in this small sample, it is impossible for the translator to maintain the reference to 'dogs' in their translation. Therefore, the best option is to call up an Arabic idiomatic expression that performs the same function but by lexicalising the expression differently as is done in (97)-(102). The Arabic expressions above respectively translate literally into 'not to have a she-camel nor a he-camel in something', 'flying with happiness', 'look for a scapegoat', 'to blow into a vessel with a hole in it', 'like a beggar's food', and 'a flying signal'.

Finally, there are some English dog expressions whose meaning must be unpacked in Arabic for lack of such use. We have already observed in this paper how the word 'dog' is verbalised in several English expressions, something which is large-

ly alien to Arabic. The only way to verbalise the word 'dog' in Arabic is in the vernacular verb 'to turn into a dog in terms of bad behaviour'. Below are some English dog verbs that must be communicatively unpacked in Arabic translation (Table 28). As can be observed, the productive verbalisation of the word 'dog' in English is missing in Arabic; hence, the communicative import of the English dog expressions in (103)-(107) has been unpacked in Arabic translation.

Table 27

English dog expressions with Arabic equivalents that do not include the word 'dog'

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING	ARABIC IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
97	I don't have a dog in this fight	I am not taking sides in this argument or conflict	لا ناقة لي ولا جمل في هذا الأمر.	I have neither a camel nor a hump in this matter
98	John is like a dog with two tails	John is very excited or enthusiastic	جون طاير من الفرح.	John is flying from joy
99	The manager is looking for a dog to kick	The manager is looking for someone to blame or punish	يبحث المدير عن كبش فداء لتلقي اللوم.	The manager is looking for a scapegoat to blame
100	Mary is beating a dead dog in this matter	Mary is wasting her time trying to resolve an issue that is already over	تنفخ ماري في قربة مخزوقة في هذه المسألة.	Mary is blowing into a punctured waterskin in this matter
101	Peter's research paper is like a dog's breakfast/dinner	Peter's research paper is messy, disorganised, or poorly written	يبدو بحث بيتر كطبيخ الشحادين.	Peter's research looks like a beggar's stew
102	John gave me a dog whistle during the meeting, but I didn't get it	John made a subtle or indirect remark that was intended to be offensive or inflammatory, but I didn't understand it	أعطاني جون إشارة على الطاير ولكني لم أفهمها.	John gave me a signal on the fly, but I didn't understand it

Table 28

English dog verbs that must be communicatively unpacked in Arabic translation

NO.	IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING	ARABIC IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION	MEANING
103	Sarah has been dogging it for three hours	Sarah has been slacking off or not working hard for three hours	لا تزال سارة تتسكع منذ ثلاث ساعات.	Sarah has been hanging out for three hours
104	One should dog-ear the page in a book to remember where they have reached	One should fold the corner of a page in a book to mark the place where they have stopped reading	ينبغي على المرء طيّ رأس الصفحة في الكتاب كي يتذكر أين وصل.	One should fold the corner of the page in the book to remember where they left off
105	A woman dogged me around for no obvious reason yesterday	A woman followed me around yesterday for no obvious reason	تابعتني امراة لسبب غير واضح أمس.	A woman followed me for no apparent reason yesterday
106	I didn't imagine John would ever think of bird-dogging me	I didn't think John would ever try to sabotage me	لم أتصور أن يفكر جون بسرقة صديقتي قطّ.	I never thought John would think about stealing my friend's cat
107	Everyone knows that the new teacher dogs out her pupils	Everyone knows that the new teacher is very critical of her students	الكل يعرف أن المعلمة الجديدة تسيء معاملة تلاميذها.	Everyone knows that the new teacher is mistreating her students

5. CONCLUSION

The richness of English dog expressions renders the conceptual metaphor HUMANS are DOGS comparable in its scope to the universal HUMANS are ANIMALS. Expressions in this study, which fall into three categories – idiomatic expressions (72%), idiomatic comparisons (13%), and proverbs (13%) – cover a plethora of source domains that are mapped onto humans as target domains. The bulk of conceptual dog metaphors (91%) include negative attributes such as DECEPTIVE are DOGS, VICTIMS are DOGS and SECRETIVE are DOGS. The few positive attributes (9%) feature semantic molecules such as DOGS have AUTHORITY and EXPERIENCED are DOGS. While English idiomatic expressions and comparisons mostly express single semantic molecules that are either transparently or opaquely mapped onto humans, dog proverbs usually include a series of semantic molecules culminating in a target molecule.

In terms of structure, idiomatic dog expressions are so varied and are mainly split between noun phrases (50%), in which the word 'dog' functions as modifier (62.50% or a head noun (37.50%), and verb phrases (43.75%), in which the word 'dog' mainly occurs as object (68.59) or as verb (31.41%). The remaining mixed bag (6.25%) includes an adjective phrase, an exclamatory phrase, a sentence, and two adverbial phrases. Idiomatic comparisons, by contrast, are more uniform taking the simile forms '(as) adj as' (33.33%) or 'like NP' (66.66%). As for dog proverbs, they uniformly take the sentence/utterance as their host structure.

In terms of translatability, the bulk of English dog expressions subscribes to the search for functional equivalents that lack the employment of the word 'dog' in them, given their large number in English compared to that in Arabic. In this regard, translators need to pay their utmost attention to the dofference between dog expressions in English and Arabic that may only have an apparent formal similarity, but deliver different semantic molecules, i.e., they perform different functions. In addition, special care needs to be taken when encountering English idiomatic 'dog verbs' because they are alien to Arabic, thus calling for the procedure of paraphrase when rendering them.

To conclude, this paper fills in a gap by offering a systematic investigation of English dog expressions from several perspectives: categorisation, structure, attitude, semantic molecules, and translatability into Arabic. Besides, it is particularly valuable for both non-native English speakers who may not be familiar with many of the dog expressions in the corpus and native English speakers whose lexical competence may fall short of accounting for all the expressions in the data.

Appendix 1: Dog idiomatic expressions

1. (one's) dogs are barking
2. a dog and pony show
3. a dog in the manger
4. a dog-eat-dog world
5. a doggone shame
6. a dog's age
7. a dog's breakfast/dinner
8. a dog's chance
9. a dog's life
10. a hair of the dog
11. a shaggy-dog story
12. a sly dog
13. attack dog
14. be going to the dogs
15. beat a dead dog
16. between dog and wolf
17. bird-dog (verb)
18. bite the dog that bit you
19. blow this hot dog stand
20. bring a dog to heel
21. call off one's dogs
22. cat-and-dog life
23. cats and dogs
24. couldn't be elected dogcatcher
25. dirty dog
26. dog (one's) footsteps/dog around
27. dog ate my homework
28. dog collar
29. dog day afternoon
30. dog days
31. dog fashion
32. dog it (verb)
33. dog meat
34. dog out (verb)
35. dog style
36. dog tired
37. dog whistle
38. dog-ear (verb)
39. dogfood (verb)
40. dogleg
41. dog's mother
42. dogsbody
43. don't keep a dog and bark yourself
44. eat (one's) own dog food
45. everybody and their dog
46. get in the doghouse
47. give a dog a bad name (and hang him)
48. go see a man about a dog
49. hangdog expression/look
50. have a dog in the fight/hunt
51. have a dog's chance
52. hit dog (verb)
53. Hong Kong dog
54. Hot dog!
55. It's not my dog
56. It's raining cats and dogs
57. lap dog
58. lazy dog
59. let the dog see the rabbit
60. look for a dog to kick
61. lucky dog
62. make puppy dog eyes
63. my dog
64. play hide the hot dog
65. put (one) off the scent
66. put on the dog
67. run with the big dogs
68. sea/salty dog
69. shaggy-dog story
70. shouldn't happen to a dog

71. tail wagging the dog
72. the black dog
73. the dog that caught the car
74. the top dog
75. the underdog

76. three-dog night
77. throw to the dogs
78. until the last dog is hung
79. wag the dog
80. yellow dog

Appendix 2: Dog idiomatic comparisons

1. (as) black as a dog's guts
2. (as) crooked as a dog's hind leg
3. (as) fit as a butcher's dog
4. (as) lazy as a dog
5. (as) mean as a junkyard dog
6. (as) sick as a dog
7. die like a dog
8. like a blind dog in a meat market

9. like a dog in heat
10. like a dog with a bone
11. like a dog with two tails
12. like a dog's breakfast/dinner
13. like a whipped dog
14. like showing a card trick to a dog
15. sleep like a dog

Appendix 3: Dog proverbs

1. a barking dog never/seldom bites
2. a dog that'll bring a bone will carry a bone
3. a hit dog will holler
4. a live/living dog is better than a dead lion
5. a scalded dog dreads cold water
6. as a dog returns to his vomit, so a fool repeats his folly
7. better be the head of a dog than the tail of a lion
8. dog does not eat dog

9. every dog will have his/its day
10. if you lie down with dogs, you (will) get up with fleas
11. it's the hit dog that howls
12. let sleeping dogs lie
13. love me, love my dog
14. while two dogs are fighting for a bone, a third one runs away with it
15. you can't teach an old dog new tricks

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Original Research

Colombian national anthem as the dialogicity continuum

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National anthems play a crucial role in expressing cultural identity and collective memory. Despite their significance, the study of anthems remains underexplored from cognitive, linguacultural, and discursive perspectives, particularly in the Latin American context. This study seeks to bridge this gap by undertaking a multi-modal interpretation of the Colombian national anthem, exploring its lexical and discursive elements while investigating how precedent phenomena reflect Colombian collective memory and its evolution. The study's research questions are centred around exploring how lexical and grammatical resources, precedent phenomena, rhetorical devices, and dominant discursive elements interact within the Colombian national anthem to convey its thematic messages and reflect the evolution of Colombian collective memory. The research employs a comprehensive approach encompassing discourse analysis, stylistic analysis, linguistic-semiotic analysis, and linguacultural exploration. The method of linguacultural analysis, in particular, provides the foundation for understanding native speakers' cognitive processes. Study results have revealed that the anthem's discourse is characterised by contextual oppositions, metaphors, and allusions. Central concepts such as liberty, honour, devotion to the motherland, and independence form its core, while eloquent lexical choices enrich its persuasion. The results have also demonstrated that precedent phenomena of the Colombian national anthem are complex in their construction from a lexical, semantic, grammatical, rhetoric perspective and capitalise on different geographical, historical, national, regional, metaphorical, onomastic, and cultural symbols. The findings underscore the vital role of precedent phenomena in the Colombian national anthem's composition, potentially extending to other national anthems. Integrating anthems into language courses can enhance linguistic and cultural competencies, while exploring precedent phenomena in teaching bolsters understanding of culture-specific discursive practices.

KEYWORDS: *anthem, precedent phenomena, pluricentric language, linguaculture, cognitive linguistics, identity, collective memory, Colombia*

1. INTRODUCTION

The complex Latin American cultural landscape, shaped by borderline civilisations, has given rise to a rich array of symbols that are closely tied to the Latin American identity. Among these, national anthems stand as quintessential expressions of unity, patriotic devotion, and collective memory, emblematic of national pride. However, the study of national anthems remains an area that is yet to be extensively explored from cognitive, linguacultural, and discursive perspectives (Bushuev, 2019; Chesnokova & Kotenyatkina, 2022; Hromenkov, 2015; Vorkachev, 2020).

The linguistic culture of Colombia represents a distinctive amalgamation of European, indigenous, and African elements. Contemporary Colombians embody a Colombian variant of the Spanish language that incorporates traces of traditional European (primarily Spanish), indigenous, and African influences (Chesnokova, 2021). Consequently, the texts of national an-

thems from different Spanish-speaking countries can be regarded and examined as indicators of their respective national identities (refer to the linguacultural interpretation of the Mexican national anthem by Chesnokova & Kotenyatkina, 2022). In this context, the analysis of rhetorical and lexical-grammatical resources, as well as precedent phenomena found in national anthems holds immense value in facilitating a profound understanding of culture-specific discursive practices, particularly relevant for teaching pluricentric languages.

This article aims to undertake a multi-modal interpretation of the national anthem of Colombia, the second-largest Spanish-speaking country after Mexico (Fernández Vítores, 2020, p. 19), and the only South American nation with both Atlantic and Pacific coastlines. To that end, the study will scrutinise the linguistic, cognitive, linguacultural, and symbolic attributes embedded within the Colombian national anthem, ultimately addressing the following key research questions.

'Scholars like Bakhtin (2002) point out that any utterance, be it spoken or written, is imbued with the echoes of prior expressions, while also anticipating responses and existing within an evolving context of discourse. Applied to the study of the Colombian national anthem, this continuum provides a lens to scrutinise how the anthem embodies an ongoing conversation with historical events, cultural symbols, and linguistic nuances'

1. What lexical and grammatical resources are employed in the Colombian national anthem?

2. How do precedent phenomena found in the anthem reflect Colombian collective memory and its evolution?

3. What rhetorical devices are employed in the anthem's narrative composition?

4. What are the dominant discursive elements present in the text of the anthem?

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

This research uses the text of the Colombian national anthem as its primary material. The anthem's lyrics were authored in 1850 by Rafael Wenceslao Núñez Moledo, who held the presidency of Colombia in 1880 and 1884. The musical composition of the anthem was crafted by Oreste Sindici. Comprising a chorus and eleven stanzas, the Colombian anthem is customarily performed by singing the chorus followed by the first stanza, and then concluding with the chorus.

The study was carried out by consulting various resources including Latin American, Spanish, and Colombian Spanish dictionaries, a diverse array of texts, discourse samples, and online sources, employing the 'slow reading' technique advocated by Novikov (1988), who described philology as the science of slow reading. Employing methodologies such as discourse analysis, the linguacultural approach, stylistic analysis, insights from native speakers, and linguistic-semiotic analyses, this research offers a three-dimensional interpretation encompassing semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic facets.

The linguacultural method, which involves an exploration of the cognitive processes within native speakers' minds (Kovshova, 2022), serves as the foundation for the approach adopted in this article. Additionally, special emphasis is placed on understanding the dynamics of Colombian national memory in the context of modern memory studies (Wertsch & Roediger, 2008), as well as the intricacies of national idiosyncrasies.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Culture stands as an inherent facet of the distinctive national characteristics in countries with pluricentric languages. A pluricentric language is generally described as a type of language that has multiple standard varieties or 'centres' that are considered equally valid for speakers in different regions or countries (Norrby et al., 2020). In other words, a pluricentric language has more than one recognised standard version, each with its own distinct grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and sometimes even spelling conventions. The concept of pluricentricity stands in contrast to monocentric languages, which have a single, dominant standard variety that is typically associated with the country of origin or a specific region.

The differences between pluricentric standard varieties of a language are often not drastic enough to hinder mutual intelligibility among speakers of different varieties. However, there might be differences in vocabulary, spelling, grammar, and even cultural references that distinguish the various centres. Pluricentric languages are thus a reflection of linguistic diversity, and the way languages evolve and adapt in different cultural and geographical contexts. They acknowledge the fact that languages are not static entities and can take on different forms while maintaining their core identity. These pluricentric languages are closely linked to national identity and self-awareness, a subject currently under rigorous scholarly exploration (Muhr et al. 2022; Shaibakova, 2019).

Spanish, inherently pluricentric (Fernández Vítores, 2020), displays diverse geographical variations. These nuances in pluricentric Spanish have been a consistent focus in contemporary Romance philology, which views Spanish as a complex interplay of divergence and convergence parameters (Alba, 1992; Aleza, 2010; Firsova, 2007; Chesnokova, 2021; Rayevskaya, 2021). These parameters can be unearthed in the investigation of the Colombian national anthem as a dialogicity continuum, whereby a confluence of interconnected theoretical constructs converges to facilitate a comprehensive understanding of the anthem's multifaceted linguistic, cultural, and discursive dimensions.

At its core, the concept of the dialogicity continuum draws inspiration from the pioneering works of Bakhtin (2002). This conceptual framework elucidates communication as an ongoing, dynamic dialogue, extending from authoritative monologues to the interplay of voices in polyphony. Scholars like Bakhtin (2002) point out that any utterance, be it spoken or written, is imbued with the echoes of prior expressions, while also anticipating responses and existing within an evolving context of discourse. Applied to the study of the Colombian national anthem, this continuum provides a lens to scrutinise how the anthem embodies an ongoing conversation with historical events, cultural symbols, and linguistic nuances.

Furthermore, embedded within the anthem's text, the concept of precedent phenomena significantly deepens its layers of meaning. These phenomena encompass references to historical occurrences, shared cultural symbols, and collective memories of significance. As elucidated by previous studies (Bushuev, 2019; Hromenkov, 2015; Malyuga & Akopova, 2021), precedent phenomena act as touchpoints linking the anthem to pivotal moments in Colombian history and reflecting the cultural fabric. Notably, the Mexican national anthem's linguacultural interpretation by Chesnokova & Kotenyatkina (2022) exemplifies the role of precedent phenomena in illuminating national identities through linguistic expressions.

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Intertextuality, a cardinal concept expounded upon by literary theorists like Kristeva (1980) and Barthes (1975), emerges as another pivotal element in comprehending the anthem's complexity. This concept exposes how texts are interwoven within a vast network of references, allusions, and shared cultural knowledge. Through this lens, the anthem emerges as not merely a discrete entity but rather an integral node within a broader dialogue. It draws on Colombia's rich literary and cultural heritage, establishing connections with other texts and narratives that contribute to the ongoing discourse of Latin American identity (Chesnokova & Kotenyatkina, 2022; Vorkachev, 2020).

By amalgamating the dialogicity continuum, precedent phenomena, and intertextuality, the study endeavours to unearth layers of meaning that extend beyond the anthem's linguistic composition. This approach resonates with the broader scholarly conversation on the study of national anthems (Chesnokova & Kotenyatkina, 2022; Hromenkov, 2015), contributing to an enriched comprehension of the anthem's role in capturing the linguistic, cultural, and discursive essence of Colombia.

4. STUDY RESULTS

4.1. Lexical and grammatical resources

Throughout the entire text of the Colombian anthem, one can observe the use of elevated nouns, adjectives, and numerous modifiers that are otherwise rarely employed. The Chorus, in particular, employs lexemes with sublime connotations, such as the verb *germinar* ('germinate'), along with eloquent word combinations like *gloria inmarcesible* ('unwithering glory') and *júbilo inmortal* ('immortal jubilance'). These linguistic choices contribute to an appealing depiction of the enduring values of the 1808-1826 War of Independence, which is verbally, lexically, and semantically associated with joy and untarnished glory. In the first Stanza, the phrase *la Libertad sublime* ('sublime liberty') employs the adjective 'sublime' to amplify the meaning of the anthem's key concept, freedom, imparting a solemn tone.

The text abounds with colourful adjectives in phrases such as *glorioso orgullo* ('glorious pride') and *alba tez* ('fair skin') in Stanza 8, and *mortal el viento hallando* ('finding the wind mortal') in Stanza 9, which collectively enhance the expressive aesthetics of the anthem. Personification is also widespread throughout the text. For example, in the Chorus, pain, glory, and jubilance are personified and linked to wrinkles. Latin America itself is personified and metaphorically referred to as the 'land of Columbus' in Stanza 2, while all Latin Americans are encompassed in the hyperbole 'American world'.

Geographical objects like the Orinoco River in Stanza 3, the city of Cartagena de Indias in Stanza 4, and abstract concepts like liberty, as in *la libertad se estrena* ('liberty is first felt') in Stanza 7, are also endowed with personification. Synecdoches, such as *almas* ('souls') and *ojos* ('eyes') in Stanza 2, recur throughout the anthem's text.

Among the notable grammatical devices, inversions of the hyperbaton type are prominent, exemplified by phrases like *invencible luz* ('invincible light') and *entre cadenas gime* ('that groans within chains') in Stanza 1, *Se baña en sangre de héroes la tierra de Colón* ('the land of Columbus is bathed in heroes' blood') in Stanza 2, *de sangre y llanto un río* ('of blood and tears a river') and *admiración o espanto sentir* ('admiration to feel or fear') in Stanza 3, *hambriento un pueblo lucha* ('a famished people fight')*, horrores prefiriendo* ('preferring horror') and *de Cartagena la abnegación* ('hardship from Cartagena) in Stanza 4, *su varonil aliento de escudo les sirvió* ('their virile breath as shield served') in Stanza 5, *de la epopeya el fin* ('of the epic's end') in Stanza 6, *del cielo americano formando un pabellón* ('from the American sky forming a pavilion') in Stanza 7, *mortal el viento hallando* ('finding the wind mortal') in Stanza 9, *el gran clamor no acalla* ('the great clamour doesn't silence') in Stanza 10, and *Del hombre los derechos Nariño predicando* ('Of men the rights Nariño's preaching) in Stanza 11. The noun *un pabellón* ('a pavilion') in Stanza 7 acts as an allusion to the short-lived state Republic of Colombia (1819-1831), which included today's territories of Colombia, Venezuela, Ecuador, and Panama.

Furthermore, lexical, and semantic resources are enriched by terms referring to symbols from Greek mythology. In Stanza 6 the soldiers of the Independence Army are termed 'centaurs', an allusion to ancient Greek mythology, conjuring an unbeatable image of these soldiers as creatures part horse and part man.

Equally impactful, metaphors, like the *constelación de cíclopes* ('constellation of cyclopes') in Stanza 9, and *con llamas escribió* ('with flames he wrote') in Stanza 11, further contribute to the anthem's tone. The latter metaphor imbues the account of the independence fighter Antonio Ricaurte's death in 1814 with solemnity and pathos, highlighting his devotion to his homeland.

All the aforementioned lexical, semantic, and grammatical features, particularly inversions, intricately interrelate and form the bedrock of the text's rhetorical and discursive domains.

4.2. Precedent phenomena

Precedent phenomena within the Colombian anthem encompass, primarily, references to significant historical events and notable public figures, along with allusions to the broader War of Independence shared by Latin American nations. Consequently, the Colombian national anthem becomes intertwined with the pan-Latin American patriotic ethos and contributes to the ongoing continuum of Latin American precedent phenomena. For example, Stanza 2 reads:

| *'¡Independencia!', grita el mundo americano. Se baña en sangre de héroes la tierra de Colón.* | *'Independence!' shouts the American world; The land of Columbus Is bathed in heroes' blood.* |
| *Pero este gran principio; 'El rey no es soberano' resuena, y los que sufren bendicen su pasión.* | *But this great doctrine; 'The king is not sovereign', resounds, and those who suffer bless their passion.* |

The concept of personified precedent geographical names emerges notably in Stanza 3 of the Colombian anthem, specifically with the mention of the Orinoco River and Barbula. The reference to the Battle of Barbula holds immense historical and cultural significance, deeply rooted in the axiological values of Colombians. This reference forms an integral part of Colombia's historical toponyms, representing a significant episode within the broader narrative of the Independence struggle. It is enshrined in the collective memory and national consciousness of Colombia. The Battle of Barbula, occurring in 1813 near the Barbula hacienda, stands as a pivotal event in this context, marking the heroic sacrifice of Atanasio Girardot, a revered Colombian national hero, whose demise in the battle holds profound meaning in the nation's cultural landscape.

This representation serves as a testament to the enduring legacy of Girardot's sacrifice and finds resonance within the national and Latin American self-consciousness and identity. The anthem encapsulates the moral dilemma between admiration and fear, culminating in the profound decision to give one's life for the homeland. This collective national value and legacy are conveyed through the anthem, enriching the cultural fabric, and resonating as a cherished national ethos.

| *Del Orinoco el cauce se colma de despojos, de sangre y llanto un río se mira allí correr.* | *The bed of the Orinoco Is heaped with plunder, Of blood and tears a river is seen to flow there.* |
| *En Bárbula no saben las almas ni los ojos, si admiración o espanto sentir o padecer.* | *In Bárbula know neither souls nor eyes, whether admiration to feel or fear to suffer.* |

Stanza 4 makes mention of the geographical placement of one of Colombia's most exquisite colonial cities, Cartagena (officially known as Cartagena de Indias), situated along the Caribbean coast. It metaphorically alludes to the siege known as the Sitio de Cartagena de Indias, which took place from August to December 1815. This historical event involved a 106-day battle, ultimately compelling the Colombian defenders to surrender. This siege stands as another poignant illustration of a precedent event within Colombia's cultural landscape, vividly reflected in the anthem's text.

| *A orillas del Caribe, hambriento un pueblo lucha, horrores prefiriendo a pérfida salud.* | *On the shores of the Caribbean a famished people fight, preferring horror to fickle health.* |
| *¡Oh, sí!, de Cartagena la abnegación es mucha, y escombros de la muerte desprecia su virtud.* | *O, aye! From Cartagena heavy is the hardship, and death's rubble disdains her virtue.* |

In the collective consciousness of Colombians, Cartagena de Indias remains steadfastly associated with heroism and unwavering resistance, a sentiment reflected in numerous contemporary texts and discourses (Saba et al., 2023; Segovia, 2013). The cultural and historical significance of the Battle of Boyacá is underscored through the annual observance of Bogota's foundation on August 6, a mere day preceding the commemoration of the battle. Each year, on August 7, Colombians invariably mark the anniversary of the Battle of Boyacá – an observance that not only integrates their patriotic values and collective memory but also encapsulates an essential precedent event. The term 'Boyacá' is indelibly etched in the nomenclature of Colombia, evident in the designation of the nation's highest honour, the Order of Boyacá. This prestigious award was initially established to recognise those who displayed exceptional military valour during the Battle of Boyacá in 1819.

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Of immense significance to all Latin Americans is the distinguished name of Simón Bolívar, who is succinctly referred to in the anthem's text as 'Bolivar'. Thus, Stanza 6 opens by alluding to this eminent statesman, periphrastically acknowledged as the 'Liberator' and 'The Father of the Motherland' (Chesnokova et al., 2020, p. 92-93) – attributes that firmly root him within the original culture. Numerous anthems of Latin American nations incorporate references to their national heroes. For instance, in the Peruvian anthem, the name of José San Martín, an Argentine politician and one of the most prominent figures of the War of

Independence alongside Bolívar, is featured: *Por doquier San Martín inflamado, Libertad, Libertad, pronunció, y meciendo su base los Andes, la anunciaron también a una voz* ('Everywhere San Martín inflamed, Libertad, Libertad, pronounced, and the Andes rocking their base, also announced it with one voice').

Stanza 6 gathers symbols and metaphors that allude to a pivotal episode within the Independence movement – namely, the Cruce or Paso de los Andes in June 1819. During this event, the army fighting for independence, led by Simón Bolívar and Francisco de Paula Santander, embarked on a journey up the Andes to liberate it from Spanish rule, despite facing resistance from some officers. Furthermore, within this sixth stanza, a vivid description of the Andes landscape comes to life, along with a notable mention of a significant part of North and South America's terrain – the *llanos*, commonly referred to as 'the plains'. The stanza also pays homage to the value-laden precedent placename *Junin*, which holds significance due to the Battle of Junin fought on August 6, 1824.

Bolívar cruza el Ande *que riegan dos océanos,* *espadas cual centellas* *fulguran en Junín.*	*Bolivar crosses the Andes* *bathed by two oceans,* *swords as though sparks* *flash in Junín.*
Centauros indomables *descienden a los llanos,* *y empieza a presentirse,* *de la epopeya el fin.*	*Indomitable centaurs* *descend to the plains,* *and a premonition begins to be felt,* *of the epic's end.*

Stanza 7 stands as a tribute to the renowned Battle of Ayacucho, a significant engagement that unfolded on December 9, 1824. Within this historical context, noteworthy figures such as Antonio José de Sucre, José Maria Cordova from Gran Colombia, and José de la Mar and Agustin Gamarra from Peru, emerged as prominent figures in the history of Colombia. Their names have etched themselves as integral components in the collective memory of not only Colombians but also South Americans and Latin

Americans in general, forming a crucial link in the broader continuum of Latin America's precedent phenomena. While these distinguished personalities are not explicitly mentioned within this stanza, their names carry profound weight in the collective memory of Colombians. Their contributions and legacies resonate across the landscape of South American and Latin American history, enriching the shared identity and historical consciousness of the people.

La trompa victoriosa *en Ayacucho truena,* *que en cada triunfo crece* *su formidable son.*	*The victorious trumpet* *in Ayacucho loudly thunders,* *as in every triumph grows* *its formidable sound.*
En su expansivo empuje *la libertad se estrena,* *del cielo americano* *formando un pabellón.*	*In its expansive thrust* *Liberty is first felt,* *from the American sky* *forming a pavilion.*

Further on, Stanza 8 ingeniously combines mythological and biblical allusions. Both Greek mythology and the Bible serve as steadfast and universally applicable precedent phenomena, offering fertile ground for diverse interpretations prompted subtly by the anthem's text.

What sets Stanza 8 apart is its distinctive portrayal of the Virgin, whose interpretation extends to encompass any woman who has suffered the loss of a loved one in the throes of war.

This portrayal features a poignant depiction of the Virgin tearing out her hair – a profoundly natural gesture born of despair. The image of the Virgin, as she tearfully tugs at her hair, can also be seen as an embodiment of the religious worldview shared among Spanish-speaking nations. It's a juncture where the realms of the divine and the earthly meld, resulting in Jesus, the Virgin Mary, and Joseph taking on tangible, relatable traits that can be directly observed. This phenomenon finds expression

across various genres of Spanish verbal art, such as the Holy Week saeta and folk religious songs called 'villancico' (Chesnokova & Bayo Julve, 2019).

Cypress, in Greek mythology, symbolises sorrow (Bremmer, 2014). In the Bible, cypress is among the trees that flourish in the Garden of Eden. In this way, this stanza seamlessly blends

allusions from both mythological and biblical realms. The interpretation of the Virgin extends beyond her own persona to resonate with any woman who has suffered the irreplaceable loss of a cherished individual in the context of war. Both Greek mythology and the Bible stand as steadfast and universal precedent phenomena, ripe for a multitude of interpretations.

La virgen sus cabellos *arranca en agonía* *y de su amor viuda* *los cuelga del ciprés.*	*In agony, the Virgin* *Tears out her hair,* *and bereft of her love,* *leaves it to hang on a cypress.*
Lamenta su esperanza *que cubre loza fría,* *pero glorioso orgullo* *circunda su alba tez.*	*Regretting her hope* *covered by a cold headstone,* *but glorious pride* *hallows her fair skin.*

Stanza 9 brings forth an allusion to the battle of Paya, often likened to the Termópilas de Paya, which historically marked the inaugural clash of the Liberation Campaign of New Granada on June 27, 1819. This particular allusion finds its backdrop in the culturally significant precedent phenomenon of the anthem

− the Battle of Thermopylae in 480 BC. The soldiers engaged in the Paya battle are evocatively labelled as 'cyclops', giving yet another nod to the realm of Greek mythology. The substantial number of soldiers involved is vividly depicted through the metaphor of a 'constellation'.

La patria así se forma, *termópilas brotando;* *constelación de cíclopes* *su noche iluminó.*	*Thus the motherland is formed* *Thermopylaes bursting forth;* *a constellation of cyclops* *the night did brighten.*
La flor estremecida *mortal el viento hallando,* *debajo los laureles* *seguridad buscó.*	*The trembling flower* *finding the wind mortal,* *underneath the laurels* *safety sought.*

Stanza 11 introduces Antonio Nariño, a close ally of Simon Bolivar and a highly significant figure in Colombian history. Nariño was not only a renowned Colombian politician but also one of the most celebrated intellectuals of his era − a true harbinger of the independence movement. During his youth, he actively engaged in covert gatherings dedicated to discussing ideas of independence. In 1794, Nariño translated the 'Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen' from French to Spanish, circulating copies among his acquaintances (Chesnokova et al., 2020, p. 98-99). The anthem's reference to Nariño, particularly in connection with the Declaration holds semiotic significance.

In the collective memory and commemorative traditions of Colombians, Antonio Nariño holds an esteemed position. His name graces one of the country's departments, and the Presidential palace in Colombia is known as Casa Nariño, or the 'House of Nariño'.

Another notable persona highlighted in Stanza 11 is Antonio Clemente José María Bernabé Ricaurte Lozano, acknowledged within the anthem as Ricaurte. The final lines of this stanza metaphorically recount the heroic demise of Antonio Ricaurte during the Battle of San Mateo on March 25, 1814. Upon sighting royalist troops, Ricaurte ignited the gunpowder, sacrificing himself in the ensuing explosion. The metaphor *escribir con llamas* ('to write with flames') evokes a solemn tone, encapsulating Ricaurte's selfless death and unwavering dedication to his homeland.

The words Ricaurte utters in his final moments, 'duty before life', draw upon the precedent phenomenon of Immanuel Kant's ethical concept concerning duty and morality. This rich interplay of historical allusions and philosophical underpinnings enriches the stanza's depth and resonates within the collective consciousness.

Del hombre los derechos *Nariño predicando,* *el alma de la lucha* *profético enseñó.*	*Of men the rights* *Nariño's preaching,* *the soul of struggle* *was prophetically taught.*

Ricaurte en San Mateo,	*Ricaurte in San Mateo,*
en átomos volando,	*in atoms flying,*
'Deber antes que vida,'	*'Duty before life',*
con llamas escribió.	*with flames he wrote.*

4.3. Rhetorical means

The entirety of the Colombian anthem is marked by contextual oppositions that contribute to its overarching rhetoric. Within the Chorus, the juxtaposition of pain and goodness is notably uncommon and profoundly expressive, magnified by the plural form of the abstract noun *dolor* ('pain'), rendering it *dolores*. Stanza 1 highlights significant contrasts between light and shadow, night, and sunshine. Stanza 2 introduces an opposition between lexemes denoting admiration and fear. Stanza 3 presents the contrast of suffering and blessing. Stanza 4 encapsulates the opposing forces of horror and health. Stanza 5 brings to light the dichotomy between the absence of armour and the presence of victory. Stanza 6 and Stanza 8 delve into the duality of agony and pride. Stanza 9 highlights the intricacies of life and death. Stanza 10 contrasts glory with silence, while the final Stanza 11 explores the interplay between duty and life.

Remarkably, the anthem does not explicitly direct its address, yet its rhetoric is inherently intended for all Colombians, creating a distinctive form of dialogicity. For instance, the exclamations personifying glory and jubilance within the Chorus are directed towards both individuals and the collective populace, culminating in an assertion of the potency of goodness:

¡O, gloria inmarcesible!	*Oh, unwithering glory!*
¡O, júbilo inmortal!	*Oh, immortal jubilance!*
En surcos de dolores,	*In furrows of pain,*
el bien germina ya.	*goodness now germinates.*

Periphrasis and allusions also serve as rhetoric means. Jesus Christ is referred to in a periphrastic way as 'He who died on the cross':

¡Cesó la horrible noche!	*The horrible night has ceased.*
La libertad sublime	*Sublime Liberty*
Derrama las auroras	*spills the auroras*
De su invencible luz.	*of her invincible light.*
La humanidad entera,	*The entirety of humanity*
Que entre cadenas gime,	*that groans within chains,*
Comprende las palabras	*comprehend the words*
Del que murió en la cruz.	*of He who died on the cross.*

The spirit of the independence movement and the struggle it entailed finds embodiment in Stanza 2 through the potent slogan 'the king is not sovereign'. This phrase serves as both a symbol of protest and an invocation to embrace the ideals of the emerging democracy. Lexemes that depict the suffering fighters and their fervent passions blend seamlessly, forging an intertwined ideological and aesthetic message. A recurrent rhetorical device, observable throughout the entire text, is the inversion of hyperbaton type, as discussed in section 4.2. This stylistic recourse holds notable significance, actively contributing to the creation and amplification of the anthem's solemn and sacred tonality.

4.4. Discursive domains

In the Colombian anthem, references to notable battles of the War if Independence – conveyed through metaphors, allusions, and both explicit and implicit mentions – form consistent threads of discourse. These references predominantly spotlight distinguished politicians and military leaders, thereby establishing the anthem's pivotal discursive themes: fostering unity, evoking collective memory, and rousing a sense of purpose. The anthem's unique discursive identity is further shaped by its recourse to biblical and mythological rhetoric.

An eloquent allusion in Stanza 1 invokes the biblical narrative of Jesus addressing a fellow condemned man in Luke 23:42: *'truly I tell you, today you will be with me in paradise'*. In the anthem's text, this allusion bridges one individual's experience to encompass all of humanity: *la humanidad entera... comprende las palabras del que murió en la cruz* ('the entirety of humanity comprehends the words of He who died on the cross'). Here, collective values overshadow individual ones, and the stanza's lyrical hero emerges as a representative figure – oppressed, groaning, and resolutely struggling for mankind.

The spirit of the independence movement and its enduring struggle is encapsulated in the resounding slogan of Stanza 2: 'the king is not sovereign'. This phrase reverberates as both a symbol

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of protest and a call to embrace the ideals of nascent democracy. The moral crossroads between admiration and fear culminates in the anthem's acknowledgment of the choice to lay down one's life for the motherland, underscoring this decision as a shared national value and legacy (Stanza 3).

The anthem's discourse escalates into an exhortation to persevere, culminating notably in Stanza 10. Within this evolving narrative, poetic imagery draws evocative comparisons between the sun and justice, while the synecdoche 'arm' poignantly encapsulates the role of a soldier. The anthem further equates liberty with justice, illustrating their intrinsic connection. In this complex interplay, the anthem's dialogic nature springs from its rhetoric, which is intertwined with its themes and vice versa. The anthem thus thrives as a dynamic discourse that not only echoes historical and cultural echoes but also resonates with the aspirations and collective identity of the Colombian people.

5. DISCUSSION
This study's exploration of the lexical, grammatical, linguacultural, and symbolic dimensions of the Colombian national anthem has revealed a multitude of precedent phenomena that are seamlessly woven into its complex backdrop. The anthem illuminates Colombia through its multifaceted relationship with its landscape, historical evolution, and notable figures. Drawing from Bakhtin's (2002) concept of chronotype – a framework encompassing the temporal and spatial configurations in language and discourse – the anthem's chronotype unmistakably centres around Colombia and the broader South American geographical expanse. In this framework, the anthem casts a spotlight on the period of the War of Independence, intertwining significant battle names and the personas of remarkable leaders. In doing so, it both constructs and transfers Colombians' collective memory through a tapestry of precedent phenomena.

Among the array of precedent phenomena intrinsic to the Colombian anthem, this study has identified certain universal elements and symbols with connections to Greek mythology, such as the mentions of centaurs, cyclops, and the symbolic cypress.

Additionally, the anthem features a plethora of allusions to the Bible, some of which can be reconstructed through direct quotations. Furthermore, the analysis has discerned a subtle yet playful reinterpretation of religious allusions, which seems to resonate with the underlying ontology of Hispanic religious consciousness. This interpretation finds alignment with other instances of creative expression within the Spanish language, underscoring a broader pattern of verbal ingenuity.

A concept gaining prominence in contemporary cognitive linguistics is the notion of a 'concept sphere', understood as an *'ordered set of concepts, serving as the informational foundation of thought'* (Radbil, 2018, p. 36). Viewed from this perspective, the precedent phenomena found in the Colombian national anthem, which pertain not only to Colombia and South America but also reach back into the broader history of Latin America, can be said to embody the Colombian, South American, and Latin American concept spheres.

The anthem's discursive and functional utilisation of place names – such as the Orinoco River, the Andes, the Caribbean coast, Cartagena de Indias, Boyacá, Barbula, and San Mateo – lends support to Sternin's (2008) contention that a toponym, in itself, encapsulates a concept within the national toponymic concept sphere. Such toponyms actualise a select few semantic attributes while concurrently conveying a wealth of conceptual information regarding the sign's referent (Sternin, 2008, p. 28).

Allusions to Colombian prominent figures, both overt and veiled, manifest as a distinctive form of personal reverence within the anthem's discourse. These allusions harmoniously integrate Colombian axiological values, forming a socially validated facet of collective memory that bridges the gap between distinctly Colombian and broader Latin American values.

The text is significantly shaped by contextual oppositions, metaphors, and allusions, which establish the core discursive elements. Central concepts such as liberty, honour, devotion to the motherland, and independence serve as organisational pillars across the entire discourse. In the text, diverse persuasive lexical and semantic features emerge, particularly the use of eloquent and uncommon nouns, adjectives, and modifiers, spanning the entire composition. Notably, the anthem includes commentaries aimed at enhancing contemporary readers' and listeners' comprehension of its symbolism.

The rhetoric of the anthem serves to highlight the ideas of solidarity and fosters social and interactive connections between the speakers – namely, the anthem itself – and its listeners. The tone predominantly exudes positivity, optimism, and celebration. However, it's worth acknowledging that the anthem's benevolent qualities do not preclude instances of its desacralisation within certain discursive practices. A central grammatical feature employed throughout the anthem is inversion, specifically hyperbaton, which amplifies its impact and contributes to the distinct tonality of the text.

The anthem's addresses and exclamations are directed both individually and collectively, creating a unique form of dialogic interaction. This interaction bridges the gap between the text,

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which alludes to the chronotype of the War of Independence, and contemporary audiences. Through a diverse array of explicit and implicit precedent phenomena embedded in the national anthem, the anthem acts as a conduit for transmitting themes of civility and solidarity to present-day speakers. This dynamic interplay engages both historical and modern contexts, fostering a dialogue that resonates across time.

Drawing on contemporary theories on intertextuality, which advocate for an active approach to the text by revealing coexisting layers of interpretation within a single work (Piégay-Gros, 2008, p. 132), the ramifications of precedent phenomena extend to various types of texts and art forms, notably painting and cinema. For example, the acclaimed film *Colombian Dream* (2006) by Colombian director Felipe Aljurre offers a satirical and grotesque reinterpretation of the Colombian national anthem. Through artistic irony, this film explores themes related to the axiological values of modern Colombian society.

Thus, the study's findings strongly support the hypothesis that precedent phenomena are intricately incorporated into the fabric of the Colombian national anthem – an observation that could potentially extend to other national anthems as well. Integrating national anthems into theoretical courses on lexicology, linguistic culture, and translation offers a valuable avenue for enhancing students' linguistic, professional, and broader humanitarian competencies. This approach serves as a catalyst, inspiring students to look deeper into the linguistic realm of the studied language.

The use of the national anthem in foreign language teaching holds immense promise. Tasks that warrant particular attention include providing explanations and exploring the far-reaching implications of precedent phenomena that constitute its backdrop. Leveraging dictionaries and digital resources available in the public sphere, these tasks encompass a wide range of communication patterns – both positive and negative. This multifaceted approach enriches students' expertise not only in cultural nuances but also in the linguistic variations inherent in pluricentric languages. The benefits extend beyond the immediate context, offering insights applicable to foreign language education as a whole.

6. CONCLUSION

The findings presented in this paper provide compelling evidence for interpreting the Colombian national anthem through the lens of precedent philology and linguistic culturology. The anthem's chronotype encompasses the Colombian and Southern American geographical space, spanning the entire period of the War of Independence. Through the integration of lexical and semantic meanings, nuanced connotations, precedent phenomena, and various morphological and syntactic elements, the anthem weaves together an ideological message brimming with themes of hope, solidarity, pride, and civility. This firmly situates it within the Colombian and Southern American concept sphere, establishing a dialogicity continuum with the values inherent to the national liberation movement – a dominant force shaping Colombian national identity and heritage.

The Colombian national anthem embodies a distinct form of dialogue that seamlessly connects the past, present, and future, while effectively conveying civic ideas and ideals. Its expressions encompass solidarity, community, social justice, and social activism. Referencing the Independence War of Latin American nations within the Colombian national anthem extends beyond national borders, contributing to the broader Latin American axiological values and precedent phenomena continuum. This collective memory-building process is a collaborative effort, shaping both Colombian and Latin American identities.

The contexts in which the national anthem thrives significantly amplify its intertextual potential. Our belief is that empirical and theoretical explorations of anthems from other Latin American countries can yield valuable outcomes, enriching foreign language education by delving into the intricacies of pluricentric linguistic variants and cultural nuances. Employing anthems and actively interpreting them in intercultural communication fulfils the cumulative function of language. This process, in turn, boosts dialogue with Latin American partners, fostering trust and emotional resonance within business communication.

The pedagogical implications of anthems merit continued attention. Incorporating national anthems into theoretical courses on lexicology, linguistic culture, and translation offers a valuable means of enhancing students' linguistic, professional, and broader humanitarian competencies. This approach will stimulate students' curiosity to explore the complex nature of the language they are studying. Within foreign language teaching, the anthem's utilisation presents opportunities for engaging tasks, such as providing commentaries and unravelling the ramifications of precedent phenomena that form its contextual foundation. This exploration, rooted in dictionaries and digital resources, can encompass both positive and negative communication patterns. Collectively, these efforts enrich professional competence in the diverse cultural and linguistic variants of pluricentric languages – an enrichment that can be seamlessly extrapolated to foreign language teaching more broadly. Considering the pedagogical implications of anthems, particularly their harmonious blend of culture and iconic texts emblematic of national idiosyncrasies, remains a worthy endeavour deserving of future attention.

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Original Research

Headline complexes in business articles as a means of opinion manipulation

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The article considers the multidimensional phenomenon of speech manipulation and the role of mass media in forming public opinion. Linguistic studies show that speech manipulation also includes social, political, and psychological components. Mass media plays a significant part in creating a culture of relationships, influencing the behaviour and intelligence of any society. This explains why it eventually shapes public opinion by manipulating the consciousness of the audience using an extensive arsenal of linguistic means, which may express both verbal aggression and verbal collaboration. The paper considers the reasons why this phenomenon emerges in the language of mass media, its interpretations, and forms of expression, including its method, intensity, and purposefulness. The use of the discrediting strategy, which appears to be the most common for speech manipulation in modern mass media, is analysed. The strategy can be formed explicitly or implicitly, starting with title and subheading (the headline complex), and using different language means. The study identifies linguistic indicators of speech manipulation within the discrediting strategy which represent different tactics of direct and indirect accusation, opposition, solidarity, and rejection. They key functions of headline complexes are hence considered. Linguistic and functional analysis has revealed main indicators of speech manipulation while quantitative analysis has identified the most frequent linguistic means that indicate speech manipulation in the articles focused on economic and political issues.

KEYWORDS: *speech manipulation, headline complex, business mass media, discredit strategy, verbal aggression, verbal collaboration*

1. INTRODUCTION

Newspaper headlines are of importance in mass media discourse. Titles and subheadings in mass media, as an opening section to their relevant main text, have had different functions ascribed to them. Discussing the news schema, Van Dijk (1988) has referred to headlines and leads of newspaper articles as categories forming 'the summary' of the news reports. Although in most cases headlines do bear such functions in mass media, some newspapers headlines present their readers with complex riddles which neither summarise nor present the detail of the main mass media text. In other words, newspaper headlines not only have the function of indicating the topic and summarising the main content of the news text, but they also try to help the reader grasp the meaning of the text, thus, in some way, manipulating readers' opinions. Manipulation is a linguistic term with great creative potential that is first and foremost topical in the framework of the theory of speech manipulation. The wide and somewhat blurred semantic field of the term includes such key elements as the 'negative' intention of the speaker, and the covert (not evident for the reader) character of influence. Manipulative functions of any discourse create an overt, masked layer of linguistic data that is not easily separated from purely informational content. Depending on the character of the message (its orientation towards past or future), more importance is attached to either confirmation of objective reality (if the topic of interaction touches upon something that has already happened) or to the pragmatic factor (frankness of the author whose message is associated with the future).

This study aims to reveal linguistic means that indicate cases of speech manipulation in mass media and how they contribute to manipulating the reader's opinion. Awareness of what predetermines the perception of mass media information and forms a certain opinion in advance will be instrumental in perceiving and analysing this information more effectively.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The study used a purposeful sampling for material collection since it aimed only at focusing on headlines of articles on economic and political issues. By adopting a non-random purposeful sampling, we have selected material from mass media focused on economic and political issues, such as The Economist (40 articles), Financial Times (40 articles), Bloomberg (40 articles), and The Guardian (40 articles). We have analysed headline complexes in recent issues (Spring to Summer of 2023) to reveal if there are any cases of speech manipulation or attempts to manipulate reader's opinion via special linguistic means chosen.

In the course of the study, linguistic and functional analysis of headline complexes for 160 articles was conducted coupled with the quantitative analysis to identify the linguistic means in most frequent use. The present article will present analysis of some of the most representative examples.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

3.1. The concept of speech manipulation

The concept of speech manipulation has been developed by many scholars. Most recent investigations emphasise the social nature of manipulation which rather often violates social norms. According to Raz (1986), *'manipulation, unlike coercion, does not interfere with a person's alternatives; instead, it perverts how a person makes judgments, establishes preferences, or sets goals'* (Raz, 1986, p. 377). Barnhill (2014), as well as Sunstein (2015), believe that manipulation consciously influences someone's beliefs, desires, or feelings, so that it falls short of ideals for belief, desire, or emotion in ways that are generally not in their self-interest or are likely not in their self-interest in the present context.

Generally, speech manipulation is understood as a multifaceted phenomenon, which includes various components: political, psychological, and social. One of the forms of speech manipulation is verbal aggression. According to recent studies, a person tends to 'absorb' and copy forms of behaviour from the screen (Zayyrbekova, 2020). The incoming information can be framed to exert direct imposition on someone's opinion. It exerts linguistic influence on the listener/viewer with the desire to change their mindset, often unreasoned or insufficiently reasoned, open, or disguised, and latent with the intent to offend, or have a negative impact that has the potential to cause further harm to a person.

Hamilton (2012) states that the selfish emotions of the individualistic affective system can drive verbal aggression and even physical assault. In contrast, the prosocial emotions of the cooperative affective system drive verbal collaboration and is most comforting. As for modern mass media, being a type of verbal communication, it may possess both verbal aggression and verbal collaboration.

The forms of verbal aggression and verbal collaboration encompass a diverse range of linguistic mechanisms. In the context of verbal aggression, these mechanisms include using obscure language deliberately to hinder comprehension, incorporating borrowed vocabulary and inflating jargon, even to the extent of incriminating others. Additionally, we can include linguistic demagogy and excessive use of metaphors, as well as relying on fixed expressions, proverbs, and sayings, and introducing new words associated with negatively evaluated situations or proper names connected to specific negatively assessed phenomena to express verbal aggression.

Philologists studying manipulation naturally rely on the research of psychologists and following them they name these signs of manipulative influence, which should be considered in the aggregate (David, 2014; Grishechko, 2023; Malyuga & Akopova, 2023):

– the covert nature of influence (intentional concealment of the true goal);

– the conscious nature of the impact;

– the inducement of addressees to carry out actions pleasing to the manipulating agency, or the introduction into their consciousness of desires and attitudes alien to them, but necessary for the sender of the message;

– the manipulated person does not see themselves as an object of control, believing that it was their own decision related to the implementation of certain actions, and that they themselves made a choice.

According to Akopova (2013), manipulation can be categorised along several dimensions. First, it can be classified based on the *awareness of linguistic actions*. This results in two primary categories: intentional and non-intentional manipulation. In cases of intentional linguistic manipulation, the manipulator has a specific objective, aiming for a particular response from the target audience. On the other hand, non-intentional manipulation occurs unintentionally, with no deliberate intent to influence the recipient's response.

Secondly, manipulation can be examined through the lens of *the type of linguistic action* involved. This categorisation identifies three main forms, which are social, volitional, and informational and estimative manipulation. Social manipulation involves non-informational speech acts utilising clichés, such as greetings, oaths, and prayers. Volitional manipulation encompasses speech acts where the author's intentions guide the recipient's actions, including issuing orders, making requests, refusals, providing advice, and more. Informational and estimative manipulation comprises speech acts that shape public moral, legal, and interpersonal emotional relations. Examples include expressions of reprobation, praise, accusation, insult, and threats.

Furthermore, manipulation can be assessed *based on the addressee's reaction*, a criterion known as the perlocutionary criterion. This categorisation yields three primary forms of manipulation – evaluative, emotional, and rational. Evaluative manipulation entails altering the subject-object relationship and changing the connotative meaning of an object for the subject. Emotional manipulation focuses on establishing a particular emotional atmosphere or mood. Rational manipulation involves

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restructuring the categorical framework of an individual's conscience and introducing new categories to ultimately influence perception.

Lastly, as posited by Akopova (2013), manipulation can be categorised by its *orientation towards the interlocutor*. It can either be person-oriented, directed at influencing an individual, or society-oriented, with the aim of shaping perceptions and responses within a broader societal context.

We can also distinguish types of speech manipulation by the methods of expression, which are *explicit manipulation* (a pronounced effect on consciousness with the purpose of imposing their ideas and points of view), and *implicit manipulation* (implicit impact on the consciousness of the audience to impose the speaker's or writer's opinion).

Among the linguistic indicators of manipulativeness, the following groups were originally identified.

1. Triggers, which can be explicit or open (words and phrases reflecting socially significant objects, phenomena, etc.; precedent names), and 'hidden' (visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic predicates).

2. Indicators that involve some national context.

3. Evaluation indicators:

− words with an average and low index of negative evaluation;

− set expressions, metaphors, clichés with a negative connotation;

− words with a high index of negative evaluation;

− words with a negative connotation in the article's title;

− words with a negative tone in the text of the article;

− set expressions, clichés with a negative tone, characterising the country, state, government, social significant objects, phenomena, etc.;

− words with a medium or low index of negative connotation in the text of the article, characterising the country, state, government, socially significant objects, phenomena, etc.;

− words with a high index of negative sentiment in the text of the article, characterising the country, state, government, socially significant objects, phenomena, etc.

4. Formal manipulation markers: repetition of words with a negative tone, rhetorical questions, impersonal constructions, generalisation.

Importantly, language mechanisms operating the processes of speech manipulation have appeared spontaneously since language itself to some extent may facilitate a kind of distortion of objective reality offering not only specific designations but also imprecise, blurred, ambiguous denominations. Any discourse, intended to manipulate, takes a position between two extreme points – the legitimate (true and complete) information and a lie. Some scholars consider a lie and manipulation to be different types of truth, whereby a lie stands up against 'semantic truth', while manipulation opposes 'pragmatic truth'. Manipulation can be only realised when the recipient cannot see the speaker's covered-up intentions behind what is being verbally communicated. As one of the key parameters of a manipulative message is specific intentionality, to recognise manipulation, one must analyse such parameters as the aim of the verbal communication, its communicative intention, reason, and motive.

The use of certain grammatical forms and syntactic constructions in a discourse characterised as manipulative does not mean specific 'manipulative grammar', as the same linguistic means are used to fulfil many other functions. At the same time, it is crucial to consider any linguistic means typical of a manipulative message as it helps to identify the very fact of manipulation. A discourse becomes manipulative not due to the usage of specific lexical or grammatical units, but first and foremost, through association with the speaker's intentions, the unclear influential character of the utterance and the conditions of communication (social context). Thus, language offers to speakers a whole arsenal of means to realise manipulative aims.

3.2. The role of mass media

Mass media plays an important role in the life of any modern person. It forms a culture of relationships and influences the behaviour and intelligence of a whole society, communicating to a large group of people the agenda of what they will think at any time. Appropriately, through mass media, the variety and quality of information available to people has increased immensely, which has resulted in the need to protect their human rights if there is any violation. According to Paul and Rai (2021, p. 8), *'mass media has massively impacted the people by acting as an agent of change, replicator, and strengthening guiding principles, and law protecting their rights'*. Mass media also shapes public opinion by manipulating their readership's consciousness using a whole arsenal, including a variety of speech means. As Robinson (2017, p. 523) notes, *'the media is an essential institution of democracy, which plays a vital role in shaping public opinion and holding those in power accountable for their actions'*.

Another significant function of the mass media is education. The media provides educational content on a wide range of topics, such as science, history, and politics, through documen-

'The media can act as a valuable source of information for individuals who may not have access to traditional educational institutions, such as schools and universities. However, the media's role in society is not without controversy. Some critics argue that the media can promote false or misleading information, which can lead to harmful consequences. For example, the media can perpetuate harmful stereotypes and biases, leading to discrimination and social inequality. Additionally, some media outlets prioritise profit over public service, which can lead to sensationalism and biased reporting'

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3.3. Headline complex functions

A headline complex (HC) is a structural-semantic association of text elements, not only previewing it, but organically connected, meaningfully and conceptually, with the text. The elements of the HC are traditionally considered to be a title, a rubric, a subheading, and internal headings.

Serdali et al. (2016) distinguish three main functions of the HC: nominative (names the text), informative (briefly describes the content of the article), and pragmatic. The latter function implies that the HC attracts the reader's attention, forms their perception of the text, and, with its internal and external form, causes curiosity, bewilderment, surprise, indignation, confusion, or disappointment. To Mirabela and Ariana (2010) the pragmatic function is achieved through the linguistic features of the headline, whereby the author shows their application of the reader's capability to understand and notice linguistic features by using different linguistic methods to enhance the effect of the headline. Therefore, one may conclude that headlines do not necessarily give a summary of the story or article since sometimes an author tries to arouse the readers' curiosity through different techniques, thus manipulating the reader's view of the issue raised in the article.

Considering the importance of mass media in forming public opinion, the pragmatic function of HCs in the overall perception of mass media messages, as well as the results of studies that prove the rise in frequency of manipulation in mass media, this study intends to reveal the most effective forms of manipulation in mass media HCs and their function.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS
4.1. Evaluation indicators

Back in 1955, Bird and Merwin (1955) stated that headline writers choose the most effective and emphatic words and avoid any words that might weaken the effect of the headline on their readers. More recently, Bucaria (2004) has pointed out that one of the most important features of headlines is the use of 'loaded' words and expressions which carry strong connotation and hence attract attention. Concerning lexicon, headlines are notably characterised as 'rich', retaining lexical units imbued with semantic significance while often discarding grammatical components due to their semantically vacuous nature. This choice of vocabulary creates evaluation indicators in a headline. The most notable examples below are subjected to analytical analysis in accordance with the stipulated research objectives.

An article published by Bloomberg, bearing the title *Germany's Economic Malaise Evokes 'Sick Man of Europe' Era* (Wind, 2023) seeks to address the economic landscape of Germany. Evident from the outset is the conspicuous overture of metaphorical language encapsulated in the title itself, notably the phrases 'economic malaise' and 'sick man of Europe era', which predispose readers to embrace adverse information and foster a negative perspective concerning the state of Germany's economy. Through the use of terms such as 'malaise' and 'sick', defined respectively as *'an indefinite feeling of debility or lack of health often indicative of or accompanying the onset of an illness'* (The Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2023b) and *'affected with disease or ill health'* (The Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2023c), the author orchestrates an intended pragmatic outcome. Subsequent subheadings, such as *Second-Quarter Data Showed No Growth After a Recession* and *Enduring Industrial Weakness Is Overshadowing Outlook*, serve to further reinforce this effect. While the imposition of a specific standpoint is not explicitly articulated, the deliberate selection of metaphors and connotatively charged vocabulary engenders an impact on readers, shaping a bleak portrayal of Germany's economic panorama. Consequently, the title efficaciously serves its pragmatic purpose, concurrently discrediting the contemporaneous state of the German economy while fulfilling both its informative and nominative functions.

Two additional instances drawn from The Economist provide opinions on people who rule corporate business or occupy prominent roles in government bodies.

The article entitled *What to Read About Villains in Business* (The Economist, 2023f) presents a list of books and TV shows about business leaders. The deliberate adoption of the term 'villain', which carries a negative connotation and an element of accusation – being defined as *'a deliberate scoundrel or criminal'* (The Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2023d) – overtly manifests the author's disposition toward contemporary business leadership. This stance is further underscored by the subheading *Four Books and a TV Show on Corporate Crooks*, where the word 'crook', meaning a dishonest person, is also a direct accusation. Furthermore, being informal and idiomatic in

its linguistic characterisation, it assumes an unequivocally forceful connotation. Evidently, readers are systematically primed for an accusatorial stance, with the title competently discharging its defamatory role.

The other article under the title *Nepo Babies are Taking Over the Workplace* (The Economist, 2023d) dwells on the predicament of nepotism, wherein familial ties often dictate professional placements. The subheading *One in Three Americans Has Worked for Mum or Dad* supplements this with empirical evidence. The term 'nepo baby' inherently imparts a pejorative undertone, encapsulating the concept of according unjust advantages to kinfolk due to positions of authority, so that from the start readers are presented with an unequivocal perspective of the author's stance on the matter and on those who procure occupational positions solely by virtue of influential familial associations.

The aforementioned examples collectively underscore how authors, through the meticulous curation of vocabulary and expressions resonating with adverse connotations, systematically ready readers to internalise their viewpoints on specific issues, pre-empting conclusions prior to engaging with the textual content and the information therein elucidated.

A parallel trajectory can be observed in instances drawn from the corpus of the Financial Times. The article entitled *Mitch McConnell's 'Sandbag' Moment Stokes Anxiety Over US Gerontocracy* (Fedor, 2023) reveals the concerns harboured by certain people regarding the occupancy of influential positions by individuals of advanced age. The deliberate integration of the slang term 'sandbag' in a metaphorical capacity, along with the lexical inclusion of 'gerontocracy', denoting *'a form of social organisation in which a group of old men or a council of elders dominates or exercises control'* (The Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2023a), collectively imbue the titular composition with an overtly negative connotation. The photo under the title and commentary to it, *'The US Senate's top Republican, Mitch McConnell, centre, is helped by other senators after the 81-year-old GOP leader froze at the microphones at a press conference'*, being a part of a HC, further support the author's attitude to the topic.

Another article under the title *An Inquiry into Macron Derangement Syndrome* (Ganesh, 2023) deals with the policy initiatives undertaken by the French leader. Evident once more is the deliberate selection of lexicographic elements brimming with unfavourable implications, encapsulated in the phrase 'derangement syndrome'. The nomenclature in question leaves scant room for ambiguity regarding the author's distinctly negative appraisal of the aforementioned policy paradigm, with the chosen term signifying a state characterised by an inability to comport oneself and reason coherently, particularly stemming from an affliction of mental well-being. Furthermore, this selection arguably carries a veiled insinuation of Macron's purported inadequacy in effectively regulating the socio-political situation in France. The subsequent subheading, employed in immediate succession, affirms this sentiment unequivocally: *'Dislike of the French president reveals how shallow and tribal politics now is'*. Within this framework, a conspicuous application of discrediting strategy is perceptible, a strategic intent rendered manifest through the culling of lexemes of marked potency.

4.2. Triggers

Morphologists partition language into two distinct categories: realised words and potential words. The lexicon of a language remains fluid, as speakers and writers possess the capacity to forge novel lexical entities, while recipients, listeners, or readers, evince the capability to comprehend an unbounded expanse of novel vocabulary (Haspelmath, 2002, p. 39). Neologisms, a frequent occurrence within mass media, assume a role of a catalyst, warranting examination. This study further looks into examples, elucidating their utilisation of linguistic constructs as strategic triggers in the framework of the discrediting strategy.

The article bearing the headline *'Greedflation' Is a Nonsense Idea* (The Economist, 2023c) deliberates upon the causative factors behind inflation. It is discernible that the author's perspective is entrenched within a negative valence, an attribute perceptible from the outset. The neologism 'greedflation', a fusion of the lexemes 'greed' and 'inflation', thereby bestows a derogatory hue attributed to the component 'greed' – *'a selfish desire to have more of something (especially money)'* (The Britannica Dictionary, 2023). This association with an unfavourable human trait lends itself to a negative disposition. This sentiment is buttressed by the subheading *Inflation Is the Result of Economic Policy Mistakes and War, Not Corporate Avarice*, conclusively attributing causality. Although an overt indictment or denigration remains veiled, readers are primed to assimilate an adverse perspective concerning the existing economic policy and its ramifications. The title, accompanied by the subheading, consequently, serves as an instrument of discrediting strategy.

The following example pertains to the article *Erdoganomics Is Spreading Across the World* (The Economist, 2023b), elucidating the economic policy propagated by the Turkish leader, which has affected various burgeoning economies across Asia and Africa. The neologism 'Erdoganomics', synthesising the name of the Turkish leader with 'economics', is laden with unfavourable connotations, closely associated with the extensively criticised Turkish statesman in Western media and political circles. The subheading immediately following the title fortifies this notion: *'It has been embraced in emerging-market finance ministries, threatening trouble'*. Ergo, readers are instantly predisposed to imbibe a pessimistic assessment of Erdogan's economic strategy and its implications for emerging economies, rather than embarking on an independent analysis of facts and figures. Consequently, this title also attains significance in the context of a discrediting strategy.

Moving further, the article titled *Bidenomics Is a Battle Between Efficiency and Resilience* (Sahm, 2023), furnishes an analytical evaluation of the economic policies pursued by the United States President. Analogous to the previous example, the

'Back in 1955, Bird and Merwin (1955) stated that headline writers choose the most effective and emphatic words and avoid any words that might weaken the effect of the headline on their readers. More recently, Bucaria (2004) has pointed out that one of the most important features of headlines is the use of 'loaded' words and expressions which carry strong connotation and hence attract attention. Concerning lexicon, headlines are notably characterised as 'rich', retaining lexical units imbued with semantic significance while often discarding grammatical components due to their semantically vacuous nature. This choice of vocabulary creates evaluation indicators in a headline'

employment of the neologism 'Bidenomics', a portmanteau of 'Biden' and 'economics', is prominent, adding a particular leader's nomenclature to the economic doctrine being scrutinised. The inclusion of robust terms within the title, such as 'battle', 'efficiency', and 'resilience', engenders a favourable connotation encapsulating the overall title and potentially evoking the readers' constructive appraisal of the extant economic policy. This sentiment is reinforced by the ensuing subheading, *'The White House's economic policies are designed to help the economy weather rough patches down the road rather than produce an immediate payoff'*, which clarifies the intent behind the economic strategies employed. This instance deviates from the prior examples, adopting a strategy rooted in cooperative discourse rather than overt aggression.

The subsequent trio of illuminating examples points to the preference for idiomatic constructs, brimming with negative implications as immediate triggers for fashioning a negative feeling among readers.

In the Financial Times' publication titled *Worldcoin Foundation Swims Against the Crypto Tide* (Aldridge, 2023), the author engages with the analysis of a company's performance within the cryptocurrency market. The idiomatic usage of 'swim against the tide', signifying opposition to prevailing attitudes or viewpoints, carries an overtly negative insinuation. In its employment within the headline, it serves to underscore the author's disapproval of the company's strategic course, arguably inferring its counterproductive nature.

A publication by The Guardian features the headline *From Thatcher to Sunak – Toxic Divide and Rule Has Always Been the Tory Weapon of Choice* (Jones, 2023a) dealing with the current policy of the British Prime Minister. The selection of the term 'toxic', carrying the connotation of being poisonous, coupled with the idiomatic phrase 'divide and rule', signifying the tactic of keeping control by fostering discord among opposing groups, effectively communicates the author's unequivocally negative stance toward the policy pursued by the leader. The subsequent subheading, *'Consider the aliens bill of 1904 and then Theresa May's claims about a migrant's cat, and you see a long, ignoble*

tradition', consolidates this perspective. The explicit mention of Theresa May, who is associated with negatively-received policies, and the use of ignoble tradition, with an unmistakable negative hue, corroborate the endeavour to cultivate a predetermined standpoint among readers. Thus, both the headline and subheading function as triggers to inculcate a specific stance within a discrediting strategy.

Bloomberg contributes to this discourse with the article *Actually, Americans Can Handle a Rainy Day* (Karl, 2023), expounding on the financial stability of American households. Here, the title extrapolates the idiomatic expression 'to keep/save for a rainy day', denoting saving for unforeseen contingencies, into an assertive declaration affirming Americans' capability to surmount difficult circumstances. In contrast to the earlier instances, this example employs an idiomatic construct to accentuate the author's viewpoint, arising from personal analysis of the situation. The subsequent subheading, *'You know that statistic about how most people say they don't have enough cash to pay for an emergency $400 expense? It's mostly bogus'*, serves to negate the veracity of the stated statistic through the use of the potent term 'bogus'. Thus, through verbal collaboration rather than aggression, this headline and subheading collectively substantiate their role as strategic devices.

The amalgamation of the above suggested examples collectively elucidates the manipulation of neologisms, idioms, and linguistically robust terms to forge a specific attitude within a discrediting strategy.

4.3. Indicators that involve some national context

The national context of any society comprises its distinct national cultures and social institutions. These components collectively contribute to shaping fundamental norms, values, and beliefs. As an integral part of the institutional framework intertwined with this process, mass media invariably engages with the national context, with the following select examples illustrating this argument.

In its publication, The Economist presents an article headlined *Niger Spoils Macron's Plan for an African Reset* (The Economist, 2023e), delving into the nuances of French political and economic influence within the African region. The readers are promptly immersed in the national context, signified by explicit indicators such as 'Niger' (a proper name denoting West Africa's largest country), 'Macron' (a proper name denoting the French president), and 'African' (pertaining to Africa and its populace). The subheading *The Coup Is Another Blow to French Influence in Africa*, advances this initial sense of national context established by the headline. This effect is further amplified by the use of potent terms like 'coup', referring to an unlawful and often violent governmental upheaval, and 'blow', connoting an unforeseen occurrence with detrimental consequences. Consequently, both the headline and the subheading serve to orient readers towards the inference that recent events in Africa have adversely impacted France's influence in the African sphere, thereby discrediting French policy in the region.

'One of the discernible markers of manipulation involves employing parallelism or repetition to underscore analogous concepts within a sentence. This technique enhances sentence clarity, conciseness, and readability, proving particularly crucial in items listed sequentially, paired items, and in constructing outlines or lists. Within the realm of mass media, this strategy is deftly wielded by authors to influence reader opinions'

Another case, drawn from Bloomberg, presents an article titled *UK Lawmakers Criticise HSBC After Executive's China Remarks* (Wickham, 2023), conducting an analysis of the British bank's stance towards its Chinese counterparts. The national context is established through the use of proper names such as 'UK' (a country abbreviation), 'HSBC' (the name of the renowned British bank), and 'China' (a proper name denoting a country). The ensuing subheading, *'HSBC's Cowper-Coles said 'weak' UK follows US on China policy. Ex-Tory leader Duncan Smith says HSBC has 'lot to answer for',* bolsters this national context by incorporating names of individuals espousing contrasting viewpoints on the matter. As a consequence, readers are aptly primed to assess the issue from different perspectives, thereby enabling them to engage with and support one of the divergent viewpoints.

Both instances highlight the presence of national context within articles centred around economic and political subject matter. Such contextual elements prominently emerge in scenarios that intersect with pertinent national interests, serving to contextualise and, at times, accentuate the discourse.

4.4 Formal manipulation markers

One of the discernible markers of manipulation involves employing parallelism or repetition to underscore analogous concepts within a sentence. This technique enhances sentence clarity, conciseness, and readability, proving particularly crucial in items listed sequentially, paired items, and in constructing outlines or lists. Within the realm of mass media, this strategy is deftly wielded by authors to influence reader opinions. The following cases exemplify such instances.

The Economist, in its published piece *Americans Love American Stocks. They Should Look Overseas* (The Economist, 2023a), investigates the stock market scenario and endeavours to uncover the underlying causes of the American predilection for domestic stocks, coupled with their tepid interest in overseas equivalents. Notably, the theme is reinforced through the deliberate repetition of the term 'American' within the same sentence, signifying both the investors and the stocks' origin. This effect is amplified by the inclusion of the emphatic word 'love', which conveys an extreme degree of preference. Consequently, readers swiftly grasp the author's unwavering conviction in the stance conveyed by the headline. This sentiment is reinforced by the subsequent subheading *'Even if*

shifting to foreign shares after such a long winning streak feels risky', underscoring the author's recommendation to break with convention and embrace overseas stocks.

Similarly, Bloomberg presents an article titled *Wall Street Squirms While Main Street Gets Relief* (Sen, 2022), offering a comparative analysis between two distinct markets: the stock market and the consumer market. The principle of contrast or juxtaposition is effectively accomplished through the repetition of the term 'street' in the dual word compositions: Wall Street, representing the financial hub of the US, and Main Street, embodying the primary commercial district in a town. Additionally, the parallel grammatical structure 'subject plus predicate' further accentuates this concept. The ensuing subheading, *'Investors may have lots to worry about, but consumers are feeling more confident as gas prices fall, the housing frenzy calms and jobs remain plentiful'*, corroborates this opposition directly.

A formal marker of manipulation, the rhetorical question, functions distinctively from its linguistic definition as a question posed for effect, rather than genuine pursuit of an answer. This technique, frequently deployed in debates to convey a point without a declarative stance, stimulates thought and discourse. As the modern mass media is progressively interactive, it is harnessed by authors to catalyse contemplation and encourage discourse.

Thus, in Bloomberg's *A US Soft Landing? Even the Fed Doesn't Believe It* (Dudley, 2023) an examination of currency exchange dynamics in the US is undertaken. Notably, the title frames the idea of a 'soft landing' as a rhetorical question, denoting scepticism about the feasibility of a smooth currency depreciation. This questioning effect is amplified by the subsequent segment *'Unless 3.6% unemployment is the new normal, the central bank has more tightening to do'*, which reinforces the initial doubts. By resorting to a rhetorical question, the author stimulates readers to ponder and potentially arrive at similar uncertainties.

Another Bloomberg article, under the headline *Inflation? The Workforce Is the Bigger Problem* (Cowen, 2022), presents two rhetorical questions that prod readers to reflect on distinct economic concerns: inflation and employment rates. The subsequent subheading, *'This current period of rising prices has its roots in mistaken assumptions about supply and demand made a decade ago'*, expounds the author's perspective on the underpinnings of these economic issues.

In parallel, two examples from The Guardian shed light on the use of rhetorical questions for stimulating thought and inciting discussion. The first, entitled *Why do Britain's MPs Hang On to Their Second Jobs? Because Our Tinpot Democracy Lets Them* (Jones, 2023b), critiques the practice of MPs holding additional jobs unrelated to their parliamentary duties. Here, the rhetorical question serves both as a thought-provoking gesture and as a means to articulate the author's perspective, while the subheading *'New analysis on MPs' second jobs reveals a wealth of vested interests – when their only interest should be their*

constituents' harnesses strongly connoted lexical units and expressions, such as 'tinpot democracy' and 'vested interest', to enhance the negative evaluation.

The second article, *Where Have All the Buses Gone? Their Neglect Is an English National Failure* (Harris, 2023), employs a rhetorical question in its title to highlight the author's perspective. Strong words like 'neglect' and 'failure' further reinforce the author's sentiment, accentuating the inefficiency of governmental policies. The subsequent subheading *'Buses should be at the heart of public policy. Instead, the government panders to motorists while local routes vanish'* further underscores the author's viewpoint and highlights the premise of the discrediting strategy.

4.5. Empirical evidence and discussion

Through the above outlined linguistic and functional analysis, the study has identified four primary categories of markers indicative of speech manipulation: triggers, indicators involving national context, evaluation indicators, and formal manipulation markers, each manifested through various linguistic mechanisms of established efficiency. Table 1 below showcases a quantitative analysis that explores the frequency of occurrence for each indicator across four selected mass media publication outlets, offering practical informed data on how often each of these markers is strategically employed to shape public discourse and influence opinions in the media landscape, as per the sample analysed.

Table 1

Quantitative breakdown of manipulation indicators in mass media examples

PUBLICATION	TRIGGERS	INDICATORS INVOLVING NATIONAL CONTEXT	EVALUATION INDICATORS	FORMAL MANIPULATION MARKERS
Bloomberg	7	8	20	5
The Economist	6	7	21	6
Financial Times	7	5	22	6
The Guardian	8	6	25	6

The analysis of the selected mass media examples clearly reveals a prevalent utilisation of evaluation indicators – an observation that can be attributed to the pragmatic intent of these media outlets, whose purpose extends beyond merely imparting information and onto providing comprehensive analyses of political and economic contexts. Such analytical endeavours inherently involve evaluations, thus influencing the selection of linguistic tools.

The findings affirm the existence of speech manipulation within mass media, particularly those focusing on economic and political domains. This manipulation predominantly employs a discrediting strategy to sway public opinion. Evidently, the impact of conveyed information significantly hinges on the addresser's strategic and tactical choices, serving as instruments of influence. According to Blakar (1979), even when senders endeavour to present information objectively, the chosen linguistic elements inherently shape and condition the recipients' understanding. This potency of language and its wielders to structure and influence underscores the assertion that language is an instrument of social power. In our context, this influence and manipulation is manifested through the deliberate linguistic construction of discourse in mass media articles.

Furthermore, the outcomes compel us to deduce that mass media instances represent communicative scenarios wherein the accurate interpretation of speech activities relies on contextual background and inferential comprehension (Aleksandrova,

2018). Effective implementation of manipulation strategies within discourse hinges on the readers' capacity to grasp the message in its entirety. This points to the need for readers to possess a certain level of knowledge to decode messages comprehensively.

These research findings advocate the incorporation of the understanding of speech manipulation as a means to shape reader opinions within pedagogical practices, particularly in foreign language instruction at higher educational institutions. Educators can enlighten students regarding manipulation markers in headlines and content, encouraging them to autonomously identify such markers. This fosters a deeper understanding of authors' stances and nurtures critical comprehension skills.

6. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to illuminate the complex landscape of speech manipulation within mass media discourse, with a particular focus on economic and political contexts. By employing a purposeful sampling method, the study examined headlines from reputable sources such as The Economist, The Financial Times, Bloomberg, and The Guardian, collectively amounting to 160 articles. Through a blend of linguistic and functional analyses, coupled with a quantitative exploration, we endeavoured to discern linguistic markers indicative of speech manipulation and their frequency of occurrence.

The empirical findings of the investigation unearthed compelling evidence of the prevalence of manipulation strategies in these media contexts, predominantly through the use of evaluation indicators. It is evident that media outlets often employ linguistic techniques to not only convey information but to also mould readers' perceptions and opinions. The analysis underscores how media headlines, as the forefront of articles, serve as a platform for implementing these strategies, often through triggers, national context indicators, formal manipulation markers, and rhetorical questions.

These results carry profound implications for the comprehension of mass media discourse. It becomes apparent that headlines, despite their concise nature, are instrumental in setting the tone for the subsequent content and shaping readers'

understanding. The strategic application of linguistic elements enhances the communicative impact and the potential to influence public opinion. This realisation prompts a call for greater media literacy, empowering readers to critically engage with headlines and decode manipulation markers to discern the underlying intentions.

Furthermore, this study bridges the gap between linguistic theory and media practice, explaining how language can be harnessed to wield influence. The study advocates the integration of media literacy education, equipping individuals to navigate media content with heightened discernment. In essence, understanding the mechanics of linguistic manipulation in media headlines not only enhances linguistic analysis but also fosters a more informed and empowered media consumer base.

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Original Research

The impact of presentation skills on Moroccan engineering students' language abilities

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In EFL education for Engineering students, effective communication skills are crucial for academic and professional success. However, mastering these skills, particularly in the realm of presentation, poses a challenge. This study addresses the need to assess the impact of technology-assisted presentation skills on EFL Engineering students' English proficiency. The primary aim of the study is to examine the influence of technology-assisted presentation skills on the English proficiency of fourth-year Moroccan Engineering students, who possess a minimum B2 level of English proficiency. The study focuses on three key sets of presentation skills, namely the ability to define and illustrate, categorise and describe, and compare and analyse engineering processes and products. The study employs a mixed-methods approach involving 183 fourth-year Moroccan Engineering students. Quantitative data is gathered through pre and post-tests, while qualitative insights are obtained from focus-group interviews. Data is analysed using both quantitative and qualitative methods to provide a comprehensive understanding of the impact of technology-assisted presentation skills. The findings reveal that students' English proficiency improved significantly in the post-test compared to the pre-test, corroborating the main hypothesis. Specifically, students demonstrated significant enhancements in their ability to define, illustrate, categorise, describe, compare and analyse engineering concepts and products through presentations. This research highlights the effectiveness of technology-assisted presentation skills in enhancing the English proficiency of EFL Engineering students. The results underscore the importance of incorporating such skills into curricula to better prepare students for academic and professional communication. Additionally, the study emphasises the need for ongoing practice and gradual skill development to fully harness the potential of these presentation skills. These observations offer valuable implications for educators and institutions seeking to improve language instruction in engineering programmes and similar fields.

KEYWORDS: *communication skills, employability, EFL methodology, ESL methodology, ICT, presentational skills, English language proficiency*

1. INTRODUCTION

Language teaching pedagogy practices have witnessed enormous changes in the last decades that reflected the recurring trending philosophies and the social reality (Celce-Murcia, 2001). As evidenced in the series of approaches that have been initiated in the last decades, this concern for the best method that would feature the objectives of these societies is part of the continuum. As of late, the Covid-19 pandemic lockdown has initiated immense social and economic changes which urged educationalists to rethink the existing pedagogical practices and reshape them to fit these objectives. In the context of English language teaching to Engineering students, most impetus emanated from business studies, most of which envisage these application of presentation skills as a major component of assessing students' communicative abilities. On the same line, many teachers have resorted to the application of new instructional designs and new pedagogical practice that facilitate learning and equip students with the skills required in the job market. One type of these practices has been the introduction of presentation skills in English as a means of developing students' communication skills in English. Unlike institutionalised knowledge that warrants Engineering students' vocational aptitude, these skills are considered as the tools whereby students can practise their transactional realism thoughts mediated learning experience to communicate their concerns (Barker & Sparrow, 2016; Biesta & Burbules, 2003; Abouabdelkader, 2018) and display their communication abilities. In this practice, the do-it moulds of presentations offer students the opportunity to immerse in communication activities which foster their knowledge of the foreign language and structures (De Grez & Valcke, 2010) and communication skills.

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The concept of presentation skills is not easy to define, as it involves a mix of communication and thinking skills. Most current definitions given by researchers suggest that presentation skills are competencies that enable students to display their knowledge and communication skills in the target language (Masoud & Al Muhtaseb, 2021), and most of these definitions are centred on the outcomes rather than the means whereby these skills are made. Now, it is time to investigate these skills/competencies as a cognitive compound of constructs, which development is self-regulatory, context-bound, and basically depends on the learner's history and motivational drives.

As conceived of in this study, presentation skills comprise the knowledge states triggered by self-regulated process-oriented thinking skills through social interaction (De Grez et al., 2009). Within this framework, presentation skills are considered as language-bound thinking skills that function as a catalyst of effective communication skills in the content knowledge of the vocational subjects of the learners (El-Moamly, 2010). The term 'presentation skills', as its name implies, involves the ability to effectively convey information about an object or a process by utilising the necessary skills and knowledge needed to complete a communicative task in English. This task typically encompasses activities like introducing, explaining, and analysing a topic, as outlined in Schulz's (2008) model.

Due to the undefined functions of English in education and training in Moroccan higher education, the current state of vocational English language teaching (VELT) at the Ecole Nationale d'Arts Et Métiers (ENSAM), like in most engineering schools across the country, is still at the mercy of arbitrariness because the modular approach put forward to developing competencies has not been implemented. As most of these schools give more attention to engineering subject matters, English instruction is allotted a subsidiary role and inconsiderable teaching hours. In spite of all the efforts made by some scholars to upgrade its place in the curriculum, the outcomes are still embryonic and personal. As detailed in this section, the real problem in these schools is a matter of harmonising the curricula and coming to a consensual organisation of the discipline. The difficulty of achieving this objective, however, is due to the fact that such action requires the implication of all the stakeholders in higher education at both the content and pedagogical levels, as well as the educational policy decision making.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
2.1. Communication skills and employability

Though very limited and scarce, the existing literature on presentation skills indicates that preparing students to give self-initiated oral presentations is a hands-on activity in which students can practice some of the skills required in the job market. The studies reported in this section relate to the communicative, cognitive and the technological benefits of presentation skills.

Research studies maintain that presentation skills are ranked as key competency for communication strategies, on the one hand, and an important asset of employability for Engineering students (Boud & Falchikov, 2006; Thom, 2016; Zusho et al., 2003). These researchers not only report that these skills enable students to carry out communication skills; they also make them experience technology-bound skills that are necessary for their prospective engineering careers (Gyori, 2013; Mousawa & Elyas, 2015). These studies have identified presentation skills as an important facet of employability and suggested that the teaching of such skills should form part of the undergraduate curriculum (Fallows & Steven, 2000; Pittenger et al., 2004).

Besides, oral presentations offer students the opportunity to learn several skills that are required in the job market, and that prepares them to the world of work (Al-Issa, 2007). As Al-Issa and AL-Qubtan (2010, p. 230) argue, *'presenting in the EFL classroom prepares students for the job market that they will enter when they leave school'.*

Within this trend, several researchers probed the content and methodologies adopted in the current Moroccan English curricula for EFL Engineering students. Abouabdelkader (2018) maintains that communication skills should address the development of functional communication skills that relate to the students' vocational education. Along the same line, Chamorro-Premuzic et al. (2010) stress the importance of implementing '... *a set of non-academic attributes, such as the ability to cooperate, communicate and solve problems, often referred to as generic or soft skills in higher education'* (Chamorro-Premuzic et al., 2010, p. 221).

Other researchers maintain that the delivery of IT-assisted presentations enables students to acquire the ever-changing and complex needs of the contemporary workplace (De Villiers, 2010; Sleezer et al., 2004; Possa, 2006).

In response to the above cited reality, new guidelines have been approved at the educational level internationally by the Institute of Professional Engineer New Zealand (IPENZ) and the US Accreditation Board for Engineering which consider effective communication skills as an essential component of the engineering formal education and training (Cochrane, 2009). Locally, the Moroccan ministry of Higher Education recommends the reinforcement of the teaching of soft skills, of which communication skills are a necessary component, to align the curricula with the requirements of globalisation and employability. This move towards the empowerment of students with skills that would facilitate mobility has been reported in a benchmark key competencies report (Chaibate et al., 2020).

2.2. Presentational skills and cognitive skills

In the modern world, you cannot give an oral presentation to any audience without having the necessary tools. Before delivering your message, you need to decide on several issues, starting from who you are addressing, what you want to say, how to say it, and what for. Such designs require that you make several decisions before making any move. A second exigency is that you need to decide on what information would allow you to achieve your goal. As described in Bradbury's (2006) *Successful Presentation Skills*, these steps underscore the cognitive and metacognitive demands of these skills. One of the major assets of presentational skills is that they build on the students' ability to interact in groups and call for thinking processes that involve problem solving, selection, and organisation of data (Jahan & Jahan, 2008). These cognitive skills promote students' ability to communicate in English and boost their confidence (Mousawa & Elyas, 2015).

In fact, all the skills at stake in the present study are reported to be key thinking skills in the learning of communicative skills in cognitive science. Iijima et al. (2009), for instance, emphasise the importance of some skills, such as problem identification and problem solving, which may include both creativity and logical thinking when applied to language learning. More specifically, they clearly identify some of the attributes of communication skills. According to them, *'communicative competence includes knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of the language, but equally important is knowledge of the rules of discourse – knowing how to begin and end conversations, recognising context and thus adapting the topic, the forms of address and response type to different situations'* (Iijima et al., 2009, p. 269).

This interest in the cognitive dimension of presentation skills is also reported by Cismas (2009), who states that presentation skills are a necessary skill for Engineering students because *'students' mobility among universities all over the world, research exchanges, and the migration of professionals in search of better, more challenging jobs, require both foreign language fluency and a unified approach to communication tasks'* (Cismas, 2009, p. 236).

From a transdisciplinary perspective, this process of teaching presentation skills as cognitive entities that promote several communication skills is also supportive of students' ability to accurately perceive the world around them, using linguistic and content knowledge appropriately in communication. As Delahunty et al. (2020, p. 395) argue, *'visuo-spatial cognitive processes were found to support the conceptualisation of convergent problem-solving tasks'.* Based on these facts, Engineering students' ability to express their basic thoughts in social communication contexts needs to be considered in terms of improving students' thinking skills and knowledge content. Delahunty et al. (2020) suggest that requiring students make presentations allows them *'to engage in six processes (i.e., problem and constraints identification, research, ideation, analysis of ideas, testing and refinement, and communication and metacognition) and behaviours (i.e., read books, brainstorm, search websites, do hands-on activities, and com-*municate with their group members)' (Delahunty et al., 2020, p. 159). These aspects of presentation skills elevate this practice to an exceptional student-centred learning tool. Gyori (2013) points out that presentations help teachers *'discover hidden talents in our students and in ourselves and begin reinventing the education system in the place where it lives and breathes: our classrooms'* (Gyori, 2013, p. 183).

Looked upon from a holistic perspective, most of the strengths listed above are also reported by the proponents of Project-Based Learning (PBL). Bransford et al. (2000) and Hutchinson (2001), for instance, advocate that PBL encourages the use of critical thinking and language in real life situations, focusing on developing communicative skills for lifelong learning and collaboration among students. Others, such as Helle et al. (2006), Belland (2010), and Gallagher (2009), suggest that collaborative work pushes the learners not only to achieve their goals and objectives, but also to improve their achievements. Similarly, Ben Kaddour (2020) carried out a study that investigated a set of skills, like the ones explored in the present research, through PBL and concluded that providing freedom to students to prepare projects with the help of information technologies leads to better language performance among Engineering students.

Other researchers also reported that learner-centred instruction approaches have the advantage of developing students' cognitive abilities and several skills (Gómez-Pablos et al., 2017; De Grez & Valcke, 2010).

Considering the attributes highlighted in the cited works, the present study assumes that presentation skills rank among the most essential skills in English for Engineering curricula – an assumption grounded in their capacity to enhance students' cognitive abilities.

2.3. Presentation skills and information technology

Most of the existing research related to language education agrees that IT is intimately connected to communication endeavours for language learners across all age groups. In fact, it is challenging to separate presentations from the realm of new technologies. When students prepare presentations, they extensively rely on their computers throughout the entire process, employing them for tasks such as internet research, brainstorming, idea generation, locating images and videos, and constructing their presentation slides. As reported in a study by Pino (2008) on the importance of web-based learning, the internet is a useful resource on the ground that *'the potential to integrate effective Web-based instruction into ESL courses for their immediate application can add a valuable new dimension to language teaching and learning'* (Pino, 2008, p. 70).

From a pragmatic perspective, the role of technology assisted learning opportunities would, then, be to provide additional opportunities to learn and practice the new language in simulated real-time situations, or what Neal (2005) referred to as the student's 'learning culture'. Neal's (2005) argument is that learning a foreign language is a matter of using the foreign language in

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purposeful and meaningful experiences through authentic content-based resources and simulated real-life situations. As a substitute for classic didactic teaching, IT-supported presentation skills development offers more opportunities for independent learning outside the classroom and creates more effective interaction between the two parties inside the English language class.

Other researchers report that IT-aided presentation skills serve as a simulation of real-life activities that enable students to juggle with the vocational knowledge related to their field of study, on the one hand, and practice their communication skills, and techniques to achieve communicative acts, on the other (Tversky, 2005; Van Rooij, 2010). Obviously, renewed attention and praise of both synchronous and asynchronous use of IT in education have even multiplied following the Covid-19 pandemic (Bonk & Wiley, 2020) in order to achieve these objectives.

Several other studies on the integration of information technologies in language education also support this new trend. Billings (2000) stated that internet-assisted learning environments allow students to increase the time available for completing learning goals. Means et al. (2003) argue that, by using technologies, students have more than what teachers can offer, and that they have *electronic analogues to virtually every educational resource traditionally employed for teaching and learning – not only books, encyclopaedias, chalk-boards, pencils, and typewriters but also drafting boards, three-dimensional models, slide-rules, and dissecting tables'* (Means et al., 2003, p. 2).

Altogether, these views suggest that the teaching of English to Engineering students is not simply a matter of exposure to the foreign language; it is a matter of guiding the students to develop their communication and thinking skills through collaborative work and exploitation of information technologies (Jonassen, 2000).

Despite all the reviewed studies, this combination of skills needs further investigation in terms of its impact on English language proficiency improvement – a task which has been prioritised in the current study. By adopting a mixed-method approach, this study seeks to ensure higher levels of validity and reliability of the findings, using a set of instruments that address the variables under investigation. The main purpose of this methodology is to empirically examine the impact of involving

Engineering students in delivering presentations on their English language proficiency. All the variables investigated seek to examine the extent to which the use of IT-assisted presentation delivery impacts Engineering students' communication skills and English proficiency level and isolate the skills that students master more.

3. METHODOLOGY
3.1. Population and sample of the study
The study's population comprises engineering students, while the sample consists of 183 Moroccan fourth-year students, who have been divided into four groups, each comprising 46 students. For their presentations, each group chose a theme corresponding to one of the six units scheduled for the term. These six units focus on developing three primary skills: (1) defining and illustrating, (2) categorising and describing, and (3) comparing and analysing. These skills have been organised into three sets of data.

3.2. Phases of the study
The study involved a three-phase approach. Initially, the students underwent a language proficiency pre-test to assess their initial skill level. Subsequently, they were introduced to the targeted skills through explanation and practical demonstrations. Key aspects of effective presentation delivery were presented to establish clear benchmarks for the intended activity. Finally, a post-test was administered to the entire study population.

Regarding the preparation and execution of presentations, the training encompassed steps to achieve the following objectives: (1) effective planning and organisation, (2) compilation of relevant information and materials, (3) refinement and personalisation, and (4) delivering coherent discourse.

While technical aspects posed no significant challenges, the training primarily emphasised the communication skills involved and how to apply them effectively in an English context. To facilitate this, the teacher created a model project in the form of a portfolio, serving as a guide to align students with course expectations. This orientation was integrated into the planned activities and was introduced during the semester's induction session.

3.3. Research question
The study's research questions are designed to explore the impact of IT-assisted presentations on the English achievement of Engineering students, specifically in relation to their performance in the prescribed set of skills. These questions are as follows.

1. Does students' English achievement improve in the assessed skills during the post-test?

2. How do students perform across the various skills in their presentations?

3. Can the preparation and delivery of presentations be considered an effective EFL teaching approach for Engineering students?

To investigate these interconnected research questions, a mixed-methods approach was employed for data collection and analysis, as suggested by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004). Given that presentations can introduce unexpected variables, the data were analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the data, several measures were implemented in the design of various data collection instruments.

3.4. Instruments

The three sets of instruments used in the study include (a) a teaching course/treatment containing the communication skills required in the preparation and delivery of effective presentations; (b) a language test that addresses students' English proficiency level at both the pre- and post-test stage, and (c) an interview.

3.4.1. Course content/treatment

The English course designed for fourth-year students aims to cultivate a range of communication skills by involving them in the preparation and delivery of presentations centred around topics relevant to their vocational interests. These targeted skills are derived from the textbook *English for Engineering* by Ibboston (2008).

Due to the course's limited duration, only those units that connect vocational content with the specific set of communication skills to be assessed were chosen for inclusion. The primary objectives of these selected units are as follows: (1) enhance students' functional communication abilities; (2) develop proficiency in the use of engineering terminology and knowledge to address real-world vocational challenges; (3) cultivate spoken and written communication skills in the English language; (4) familiarise learners with the fundamental aspects of delivering presentations in English; (5) encourage collaborative work beyond the classroom, fostering teamwork; (6) provide opportunities for hands-on problem-solving activities.

Therefore, the course has functioned as an intervention aimed at acquainting the learner with the six skills covered in the module. The instruction for these skills was provided through induction sessions following the administration of the pre-test.

3.4.2. The language proficiency test

The notion of English language proficiency in the present study is considered in terms of its functionality rather than its general configuration. Functionality refers to the extent to which a student's English proficiency level matches the learning outcomes sought in the curriculum and the way they are applied in the vocational context (Abouabdelkader, 2018). The language proficiency test (Appendix 2), used at a pre- and a post-test stage has been designed and administered to the population under investigation within a framework that combines learning outcomes and assessment. The test involves a set of rubrics that address the students' English language proficiency in the three

clusters of the communicative skills taught in the course. These skills comprise (1) defining and illustrating, (2) categorising and describing, (3) comparing and analysing. All the items of the test have been drawn from the textbook in use. The pre-test was administered at the beginning of the course and the post-test at the end of the module.

3.4.3. Focus-group interviews

The qualitative data gathered for this study comprises students' assessments of their peers' presentations, measured in relation to their own learning experiences. These features have been considered in a series of focus-group interviews based on a peer evaluation judgment checklist adapted from a tentative textbook evaluation checklist used by Mukundan and Nimehchisalem (2012).

By engaging students in their own learning evaluation, every effort was made to get at a better understanding of the variable under investigation. Focus of this evaluative judgment was on the following criteria: (1) general attributes, (2) content and methodology, (3) technological attributes, (4) thinking skills, and (5) language abilities. These five rubrics seek to understand the extent of student engagement in performing the targeted skills.

Considering the nature of the variables under investigation, data regarding students' perceptions of learning presentation skills were obtained through focus group interviews. These interviews were conducted using evaluation checklists that were aligned with the study's objectives and guidelines.

3.5. Data analysis procedure

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative analyses to achieve its objectives. These analyses were based on numerical data and students' perspectives on various factors relevant to the study.

All students participated in both the pre-test and post-test phases. However, for ethical reasons, only students who volunteered were involved in the focus-group interview sessions, a valuable method frequently utilised in the social sciences, as indicated by Gibb (1997). The total number of interviewees amounted to 75 students, comprising 41 females and 34 males.

The quantitative analyses centred on the pre-test and post-test scores gathered to assess students' English language proficiency before the experiment and at the end-of-term examination. These tests were evaluated by the two teachers responsible for fourth-year Engineering students. The combined scores from the three sub-sections determined the overall score.

Altogether, both data analyses seek to answer the research questions of the study. While the qualitative analyses attempt to investigate the query of RQ3, whose concern is the isolation of the benefits of presentation delivery as a method of learning and teaching English, the quantitative analyses, in turn, seek to display the differences in performance in English, prior and after the experiment as well as the variation between the communicative skills investigated in RQ1 and RQ2.

4. STUDY RESULTS

4.1. General observations

Study findings confirm that the learning and teaching of presentation skills can serve as a catalyst for the development of students' communicative abilities, and also indicate that this pedagogical approach may not be beneficial to students with low level of English proficiency. In other words, while this approach improves students' achievement in English, it also proves to have limitations. Details of the results are presented below in accordance with the study's research questions and the objectives.

In response to the research questions addressed in this study, the obtained analyses have uncovered noteworthy insights. Concerning students' achievement, the data reveals that the mean score of students' performance in the pre-test was M=12.153, with a minimum score of 6/20 and a maximum score of 14/20. In contrast, the post-test mean score was M=15.203, with a minimum score of 8/10 and a maximum score of 17/20. It is important to note that the minimum score for each of the three rubrics on this scale is 1.

The mean scores pertaining to the sub-skills also yielded significant results. When examining the results related to these sub-skills, it becomes apparent that students' overall achievement is relatively high when compared to the three sets of sub-skills. This suggests that not all sub-skills have improved to the same extent, and students still encounter challenges with certain aspects of the English course.

Notably, some students displayed poor results in both the pre-test and post-test, indicating that students' prior language proficiency plays a crucial role in English language instruction. It implies that language skills are less likely to undergo substantial changes in situations where learners fall below a certain linguistic proficiency threshold.

The effectiveness of the IT tool in enhancing students' communication skills, as inferred from these analyses and corroborated by the interviews, has been observed as particularly beneficial for students with a high level of language proficiency. Detailed findings from these analyses are presented in Figure 1.
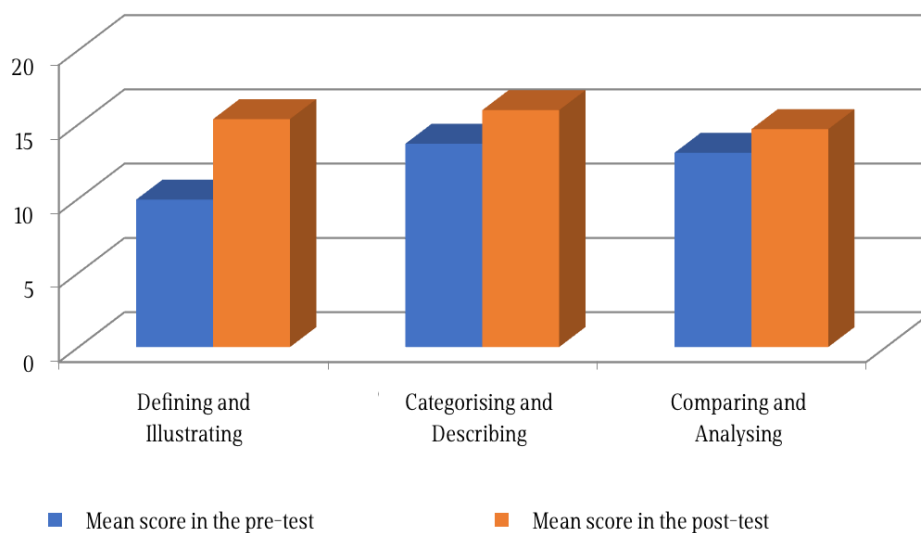
Figure 1. Comparison between the mean scores in the pre-test and the post-test

The general observation is that most students have experienced an improvement, albeit to varying degrees, in their overall mean scores from the pre-test to the post-test across all the investigated sub-skills. Notably, the progress was particularly substantial in the case of the Defining and Illustrating sub-skills, where the mean score increased from 9.93 in the pre-test to 15.35 in the post-test. In contrast, for the other pairs of sub-skills, the progress was less remarkable. The mean scores for the Categorising and Describing sub-skills showed a significant increase, with student grades rising from 13.69 to 15.95, while those for the Comparing and Analysing sub-skills increased modestly from 13.08 to 14.67. These discrepancies provide clear evidence of the positive impact of presentation delivery on students' English language proficiency.

Regarding the inquiry posed in RQ2, one of the principal research questions addressed in this study, the qualitative analyses have yielded intriguing findings, which will be elaborated upon below.

4.2. Results related to the sub-skills under investigation

Importantly, both the quantitative and qualitative findings suggest that students did not fully grasp all the skills taught and tended to rely on those with which they were more comfortable. The subsequent analyses indicate that the acquisition of presentation skills requires gradual and extended practice. The variations in results obtained for each of the investigated sub-skills, substantiated by qualitative data, suggest that students do not face the same level of difficulty across all skills.

'In the case of Illustrating skills, a majority of students reported that they were not familiar with this skill, as they believed that in scientific contexts, information should be precise. This misconception about how illustration can be employed is a result of the lack of practice with this skill in their other language courses, including the English module. Many students admitted to struggling with illustration because it demands a high level of mastery of the English language. In relation to RQ2, these findings suggest that some skills are more accessible for this category of learners to perform in English compared to others'

Some skills prove more challenging than others, underscoring that presentation delivery is particularly beneficial for students with a basic level of language proficiency.

4.3. Results for defining and illustrating skills

Among all the sub-skills examined in the study, it is evident that Defining and Illustrating skills have a more pronounced impact on students' language proficiency levels. The results pertaining to the Defining and Illustrating skills are highly significant, with a p-value < .00001, pointing to significance at p < .01. This underscores a substantial difference between the pre-test and post-test sub-scores. The mean scores observed in the pre-test and post-test, which are 9.93 and 15.39, respectively, strongly indicate the considerable impact of presentation delivery in enhancing these two sub-skills within the context of EFL instruction. This effect is further corroborated by students' overall achievements in the English test. Moreover, supporting evidence is derived from the figures obtained in the standard deviation (Eta squared = .65), indicating a substantial effect with a notable difference in the evaluation sub-scores for these two sub-skills before and after the project-based English for engineering course instruction.

The qualitative analyses were equally significant for these skills. As per the results from the focus-group interviews, students who participated in the experiment revealed that the improvement in Defining skills was primarily due to their ability to complete tasks at their own convenience, and they attributed their success to their capacity to search the internet. Many students emphasized that their presentations, as well as those of their peers, would have been challenging to complete without the assistance provided by the internet. Some mentioned that they followed the steps for defining as taught in class and as demonstrated in certain online videos during the preparatory stages.

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courses, including the English module. Many students admitted to struggling with illustration because it demands a high level of mastery of the English language. In relation to RQ2, these findings suggest that some skills are more accessible for this category of learners to perform in English compared to others.

4.4. Results for categorising and describing skills

The results obtained for Describing and Categorising skills demonstrate noticeable improvement in students' presentations, as well as in their post-test outcomes, attributable to instructional strategies and practice.

The data presented in the analysis of the second set of sub-skills, namely Categorising and Describing, reveals significant observations. The mean score for the pre-test is 12.58, while the post-test mean score is 15.85. Notably, the p-value is less than .00001, indicating a highly significant result at p < .01. This finding underscores a considerable difference in students' performance between the pre-test sub-score and post-test sub-score.

Additionally, it's worth noting that the mean increase, calculated at -2.15, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -2.98 to -1.32, provides further evidence of a noteworthy impact stemming from the treatment. This impact is consistent with what we observe in the pre- and post-test results of the English Course Module, where the Categorising and Describing skills test scores are 13.69 and 15.95, respectively. This data confirms a significant enhancement in post-test sub-score.

In summary, these findings bear testament to the positive influence of presentation skills on students' achievements. Furthermore, the reported standard deviation figures are also substantial (Eta squared = .28), indicating a substantial effect and significant differentiation in the categorising and describing skills evaluation sub-scores following the project-based instruction. However, it is important to note that the dispersion of the results does not provide insight into whether any of these skills are easier to learn through the adopted approach compared to the others.

In response to the query of RQ3, the qualitative results suggest that presentation preparation and delivery promotes students' Categorising and Describing skills. According to the students' reports, preparing presentations enabled them to visualise several models of descriptions in YouTube, which raised their understanding and metacognition awareness of these processes. The qualitative data also revealed that task completion was not easy for most of the students involved in the study.

However, many cases of utter plagiarism were reported. Out of 46 presentations 14 were full of 'cut and paste' materials. The students who resorted to this practice have been found to be low achievers at both the pre- and the post-test, suggesting that students with poor language ability cannot effectively follow this type of instruction. When asked why they displayed others' works without mentioning the sources or making any changes to their content, they replied that preparing and giving presentations in English is too hard for them and that they had neither the language nor the skills required for this type of task.

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One of the most important deficiencies reported in the interviews relates to students' lack of vocabulary knowledge, as evidenced in the recurring grammar, spelling and punctuation mistakes. This finding suggests that potential changes related to English language empowerment need to be introduced in the curriculum to assist students overcome these deficiencies. In the absence of a curriculum that gradually trains students improve their language skills and abilities, throughout their five-year training and education, such deficiencies would always persist.

4.5. Results for comparing and analysing skills

The analysis pertaining to the sub-skills of Comparing and Analysing demands a substantial foundation of background knowledge and higher-order thinking abilities. As evidenced by the probability value (p=.0005), there exists a noteworthy and positive distinction in the impact of presentation skills as a learning tool on students' language proficiency levels. While these figures are lower than those observed for the Categorising and Describing skills, the standard deviation data suggests a statistically significant improvement in the sub-score of the Comparing and Analysing skills test from the pre-test phase (M1=13.95; M2=14.37) and (SD1=3.37, SD2=2.53).

Furthermore, it is important to highlight that the mean increase is -1.67, with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -2.18 to -1.05. This demonstrates a discernible difference in student performance levels within the specific sub-categories under investigation between the two tests.

These results are also backed by the qualitative data. As evidenced in the students' judgments of their peers' PowerPoint and Prezi presentations, the ability to achieve the comparing and analysing skills has been improved. Admittedly, comparing and analysing have been reported to be easy for some students, but difficult for some others. It should be noted that students with good knowledge of English outperform students with language deficiencies. This suggests that before completing a presentation, students need to be familiarised with the language required for the tasks and skills to be performed. In short, these findings suggest that learning outcomes need the support of the required tools.

5. CONCLUSION

Study findings highlight the efficacy of incorporating presentations within the EFL context for enhancing students' communication skills and language proficiency. These improvements are reflected in language test scores and underscored in qualitative analyses. The development of presentation skills investigated in this study has yielded significant outcomes, leading to enhanced student performance in end-of-term language assessments. These enhancements can be attributed to students' engagement in the compilation, organisation, and analysis of diverse knowledge sets, along with the associated vocabulary and language structures.

However, it is crucial to acknowledge that certain limitations have surfaced in this instructional approach, and its success hinges on various considerations. Among these factors, two critical issues warrant attention – the need for deliberate curricular decisions that empower students to effectively utilise the English language in communication scenarios, and the progression of skills across the curriculum to ensure that every student receives tailored learning opportunities, thereby preventing any students from being left behind.

As indicated by research findings, the teaching of presentation skills within EFL courses for Engineering students requires alignment between learning objectives and methodological adjustments to cultivate effective communication skills. These findings point to the necessity of placing language proficiency at the core of the curriculum, considering factors such as students' English proficiency levels, cognitive load related to their vocational studies, aspirations, and future career paths.

In pursuit of these objectives, several measures can be implemented, including introducing learners to contemporary topics and issues that stimulate their critical thinking skills; exposing learners to functional vocabulary and grammar relevant to their vocational education and training; and fostering learning communities among students from various departments who share common interests.

The study results strongly suggest that the success of the English course depends on its alignment with educational goals and meeting students' expectations. Furthermore, the teaching of presentation skills as a pedagogical approach should be tailored to students' language backgrounds and the specific skills needed in their vocational fields. It is also essential to address communication skills that students may not have fully developed, such as illustration, analysis, and comparison skills, potentially due to a lack of prior practice in these areas.

Finally, the findings of the present study emphasise the need for further research in the realm of information technology and its impact on communication skills within English language education and EFL instruction.

Appendix 1

Dear student,

Please read the criteria included in the following list before the presentation. Keep in mind the point included while watching your peer. Then try to provide your evaluation of the work ac-

cordingly. If you think a criterion is missing, you may add it to the end of the list and indicate its level of importance. In addition, if there is a term that would be hard for evaluators to understand, please ask for assistance from your friend or from the teacher. If you have any further comments about each criterion, you may mention it in the *Comment* column. Thank you for your cooperation.

EVALUATIVE CRITERIA						COMMENT
I. GENERAL ATTRIBUTES						
A. The presentation in relation to syllabus and curriculum						
1. It matches to the specifications of the syllabus.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
2. It matches the exigencies of a professional presentation.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
B. Methodology						
3. The presentation is well-structured.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
4. The activities are well-presented.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
C. Suitability to learners						
5. The topic is compatible with the concerns of the students.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
6. The points raised are interesting.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
7. The presentation is compatible to the needs of the learners.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
8. It is compatible to the interests of the learners.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
II. TECHNOLOGICAL ATTRIBUTES						
9. The slides are good looking.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
10. The presenters make efficient use of text and visuals.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
11. The use of the technology is adequate.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
12. The use of the technology is helpful.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
13. The visual materials presented are well understood.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
14. The presentation is sufficiently supported by clear and attractive audio-materials.	⓪	①	②	③	④	

EVALUATIVE CRITERIA						COMMENT
III. LEARNING-TEACHING CONTENT						
15. Most of the tasks in the presentation are interesting.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
16. Tasks move from simple to complex.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
17. Task objectives are achieved.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
18. Cultural sensitivities have been considered.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
IV. THE LANGUAGE						
A. General						
19. The language in the presentation is simple and easy.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
20. The situations created in the presentation are well explained.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
B. Speaking						
21. The pronunciation of the presenters is appropriate.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
22. The presenters' intonation and rhythm are up to high standards.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
23. The presenters' English is easily understood.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
C. Communication skills						
24. The points raised in the presentation are clear.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
25. The speakers gave clear definition to the topic presented.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
26. The issue debated is well defined and explained by the presenters.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
27. The points presented are illustrated sufficiently.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
28. Examples are interesting and clear.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
29. The number of ideas in each slide is appropriate.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
30. There is a good distribution (simple to complex) of ideas.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
31. The slides are well-organised.	⓪	①	②	③	④	
32. The presenters' work is analytical and efficient.	⓪	①	②	③	④	

Appendix 2. Language proficiency test

Task I. When referring to automated systems, four properties are of importance: measurement, flow, control, sensor. Match each of the following definitions to one of the above properties (2 pts). Give an example for each definition in a meaningful sentence (4 pts).

1. A device which detects or measures a physical property.	a. measurement
2. A device by which a machine is regulated.	b. flow
3. Movement of a substance, usually a liquid or gas.	c. control
4. An amount, size, or extent as established by measuring.	d. sensor

1. ....
2. ....
3. ....
4. ....

Task II. Write two meaningful sentences for each of the following prompts, using all of the following cause and effect expressions (*consequently, owing to, result in, as a result of,* etc.) and the given key words. Example of a possible cause: A high speed train has derailed *because of* excessive speed (4pts).

1. A high speed train has derailed (tension of the catenary, camber of the track, damaged coaches, burnt motor):

a. Possible cause: ....
b. Possible effect: ....

2. A chicken cannon test results in unexpected damages (frozen chicken, canon malfunction, shattered windshield, a hole in the driver's seat):

a. Possible cause: ....
b. Possible effect: ....

Task III. Write a five-paragraph essay about the most suitable environmentally friendly source of energy for Morocco being wind farms or solar towers. Justify your choice according to each source's advantages and drawbacks (10 pts).

1. Introduction (state your point of view): ....
2. Advantages of the chosen source: ....
3. Drawbacks of the other source: ....
4. Illustrate your choice, giving supportive examples: ....
5. Conclusion: ....

Task IV. Describe some of the main functions and applications of the devices below, using the following words adequately: *ensure, used, prevent, useful* (4pts).

a. Two main applications of a drill:

1. ....
2. ....

b. Two main functions of a water jet cutter:

1. ....
2. ....

Task V. Write four meaningful sentences for the following prompt, using all of the following cause and effect expressions (*consequently, owing to, result in, as a result of*) and the given key words (4pts). Prompt: A chicken cannon test's damages are unexpected. Key words: frozen chicken, canon malfunction, shattered windshield, a hole in the driver's seat. Get inspired by the following example of a possible cause: A chicken cannon is ineffective *because of* a temperature issue.

a. Possible causes:

1. ....
2. ....

b. Possible effects:

1. ....
2. ....

Task VI. Complete the conversation using the following words: *cost-effective, efficient, inefficient, reliable, uneconomical, unreliable* (6pts).

An engineer at a power station is talking to a manager.

Engineer: Given the age of these gas turbines, you'd think they would be breaking down all the time – starting to get (1) .... But that's not the case at all. They're performing perfectly well. The problem is, in terms of energy consumption, compared with modern equivalents they're just very (2) .... So financially speaking, it's just not (3) .... to keep running such (4) .... equipment.

Manager: So, we need to look at replacing them with a more economical solution before they reach the end of their planned lifespan? That's basically what you're saying?

Engineer: I think we have to, yes. If we wait until they break down, we'll still be using them in 50 years' time. In a sense, you could say they're too (5) ....

Manager: OK. And in terms of energy consumption, how (6) .... would a new installation be, comparatively?

Task VII. Consider the statements below. Compare traditional light bulbs and energy-saving light bulbs for each of the three stages (pre-use, in-use, and post-use) (4pts). According to you, which light bulb is more environmentally friendly? Justify your answer (2pts).

Traditional light bulbs are cheaper to manufacture.
Traditional light bulbs convert 95 % of the electricity they use to heat, not light.
Traditional light bulbs last 1000 hours.
Traditional light bulbs are not poisonous.
Traditional light bulbs can be thrown away with rubbish after use.
Energy-saving light bulbs take much more energy to manufacture.
Energy-saving light bulbs use up to 80% less electricity when turning energy into light.
Energy-saving light bulbs last 10000 hours.
Energy-saving light bulbs emit harmful magnetic fields.
Energy-saving light contain mercury and need to be recycled carefully.

Pre-use: ....
In-use: ....
Post-use: ....

Which light bulb is more environmentally friendly? ....

Task VIII. For each heading in the table below, choose 3 of the following items: *aluminium glass, stainless steel, copper, bricks, titanium, porcelain, plastic*. Add 1 more item of your own to each category (4pts).

NON-FERROUS METALS	CERAMICS

Task IX. Explain the difference between the following physical forces (4pts).

1. Compression and contraction: ....
2. Expansion and tension: ....

Task X. What are mechanical and non-mechanical fixings? What are their main advantages and disadvantages? Illustrate your answers using the following words: *adhesive, bolt, clip, rivet, screw, weld* (6pts).

....
....
....

Task XI. **Compare** the given **cutting options** using the **phrases** *ideal/perfect/especially good for + -ing, the ideal/perfect solution for, not particularly suitable/not so good if you need..., not the best solution if you don't want..., totally unsuitable/useless*. For example: Grinding / Flame-cutting (heat affected zone). *Both grinding and flame-cutting are not the best solution if you don't want a heat-affected zone* (6pts).

Here are some definitions to help you:

Sawing: abrasive cutting, removing a kerf of material. Includes cutting with toothed blades and abrasive wheels.
Milling: removal of surface layers with multiple cutting wheel passes.
Guillotining: Making straight cuts by applying pressure to shear the material.

1. Milling / Drilling with a hole-saw (for cutting timber): ....
2. Sawing / Waterjet-cutting (for cutting curved edges): ....
3. Punching/ Guillotining (for cutting thin materials): ....

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Original Research

Academic writing details in critical perspective

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Academic writing competence is growing into an ever more deciding factor for evaluating students' performance which in the long run affects their academic prospects as well as professional career. The objective of the study is to analyse the academic writing practices in the critical perspective, detect the potential elements which may spoil the impression from the research paper, and offer some guidelines for the researchers, especially the beginners, on how to be more convincing in presenting the research results. The research is based on the error analysis of academic discourse texts represented in bachelors' and masters' qualification papers and post graduate theses, collected by the authors over a span of over ten years' teaching master's students and postgraduates, to form a sampling of over seven hundred examples of errors in the graduation and post graduate papers. The empirical data were analysed for the grammar, lexical, spelling and stylistic errors, and the ethical component which form an inseparable, inalienable part of the academic communication. The results of the analysis revealed two basic types of errors, one related to stylistically relevant mistakes and the other referring to academic ethics. The former covers unnecessary negations, evaluation markers, some awkward syntactic constructions, principles of referring to scientists' names, etc. These elements are not language-dependent and are practically universal, as they can be found in any language. The authors treat the latter group as ethically-related, covering the issues of quoting format and authorial 'we'. Distinguishing metonymical malfunction is suggested when the elements of different cognitive levels are misrelated and co-located. The results contribute to the theory of discourse and may be used in teaching academic writing.

1. INTRODUCTION

Academic writing in the educational and academic space has been in the research focus for the full twenty years (Norrish, 1983; Bailey, 2011; Korotkina, 2018; Sheipak, 2020). This interest can be attributed to the steadily growing number of academic publications in different forms and genres – research articles, qualification papers on a variety of levels (theses, graduation papers, end-of-the-term research papers) which are immediately made public, and they all add to the abundant open-source information landscape. This information stream needs analysis in a variety of research vistas, and the academic community does its best to meet this requirement: scientists explore the academic genres and their specifics (Bailey, 2011; Bhatia, 2017), the speech strategies of public academic discourse, with the invariable focus on linguistic means employed (Wong, 2018; Macagno & Rapanta, 2020).

In other words, most of the relevant aspects of academic writing are covered and seem to have got exhaustive description. Still, some of them call for further investigation, especially those which refer to the lingua-specific means and strategies. We admit, though, that the academic discourse is, to a great extent, universal in the sense that scientists all over the world rely on the means and communication strategies and academic standards that are universal – they often coincide, at least because they count on multicultural and multilingual academic communication craving for distinction and seeking universal recognition. There are, though, the means that are idiosyncratic and language-dependent, e.g., Russian punctuation rules are entirely different from those of some other languages, which is also true for spelling. We admit that there are some similar punctuation rules and, accordingly, similar potential errors in a variety of languages. For example, in Russian young researchers often misapply/overuse commas between subject and predicate or, on the contrary, forget about commas at the end of the dangling participial construction. The experiment with the masters' students revealed that around 25% of them make these mistakes (Suleimanova & Kardanova-Biryukova, 2021), the mistakes being widespread among the students of all levels of education both in their term, graduation papers, draft papers which they prepare for open publications, and in their everyday writing essays practices. We shall concentrate here on more universal writing rules concerning the choice of syntactic constructions and vocabulary determined by the genre and its ethical norms. In this paper we shall focus on some linguistic means in the

Russian academic discourse which correlate with the corresponding means and principles in other languages. Eco (2015) highlights the importance of these means, focusing on what constitutes a thesis, how to choose the topic, organise a work schedule, conduct bibliographical research, organise the material, and format the thesis. The author ultimately states: *'Inevitably, this book will provide the most precise instruction on the final task in this list, even if it seems to be the least important, because it is the only one with a fairly exact set of rules'* (Eco, 2015, p. 21). This means that the correct wording and framing of the text is crucial in preparing it for publication and peer reviewing. Some of the aspects of academic text preparation remain understudied, specifically, with respect to textual representation of the research results, taking into account the typical errors the authors make. This research is meant to prevent prospective authors from making the most likely errors.

The research objective here is to critically analyse the current state of affairs in academic writing practices typical in young researchers' writing in order to finally suggest promoting academic writing standards in learning-teaching practices. In pursuing the stated objective, the authors will try to focus on the issues to follow:

– account for the typical mistakes (young) researchers make in their written texts relating to punctuation, style and choice of words;

– analyse the ethical aspects of academic communication relating to referring to previous research papers and their authors;

– relate current academic writing practices in Russia to those in other cultural traditions;

– raise the problem of academic recycling as one of the key issues on the current academic horizon and alert young researchers to potential academic recycling consequences;

– suggest tips and guidelines which can be instrumental for the researchers in complying with the international as well as national academic writing standards in their publications.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Research design

The research is based on the error analysis – a well-established approach in text analysis that helps understand the specifics of the genres, academic writing varieties included, and to learn to act correspondingly, i.e., error analysis is prognostically efficient (Norrish, 1983). This approach often helps see the weak spots which otherwise could have gone unnoticed. For instance, a case study by Suleimanova (2014) revealed highly frequent English-to-Russian translation mistakes which had never been noticed by translators and never featured in translation textbooks and manuals. These are the constructions of the type *She woke up to see that the sun was shining* which formally coincides with the sentences using the infinitive of purpose, but the former one contains the infinitive of subsequent action, where no purpose is implied. What follows is that this construction should be recommended to be represented in renovated textbooks on translation practices.

We begin by clarifying the fundamental terms employed in this paper, namely, the terms 'error' and 'mistake', which we use interchangeably. According to the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 'error' is defined as *'a mistake'* and also as *'the state or quality of being wrong or mistaken'* (LDCE, 2023). While 'error' carries a more formal connotation, 'mistake' is defined as *'something that has been done in the wrong way, or an opinion or statement that is incorrect'* (LDCE, 2023). It can be inferred from these definitions that the meanings are nearly identical, with 'error' essentially being explained in terms of a 'mistake'. The distinction lies in the level of formality, which is inconsequential to our research; hence, we use these two terms interchangeably throughout the entirety of this paper.

The empirical data and research materials have been curated over a span of over ten years, distilled from the authors' extensive experience in teaching master's students (averaging around 20 students per year) and postgraduate participants (ranging from 4 to 8 course participants annually). Throughout this paper, these groups are collectively referred to as 'students'. The data is drawn from three academic disciplines: Research Methodologies, Modern Linguistic Theories and Paradigms, as well as Principles and Methods of Linguistic Research. This collection offers abundant examples of occasionally flawed textual material, particularly at the initial stages of teaching and learning. (These instances were subsequently identified and improved upon through suggested enhancements.) In addition to the above participation observation data the authors also analysed graduation papers (62 graduation papers, bachelors'), masters' theses (49 theses), post-graduate primary texts (29 texts), and one hundred dissertation reports. The empirical data (with the threshold value of more than one hundred utterances featuring each mistake, minor mistakes were not taken into account) were analysed for the grammar, lexical, spelling and stylistic errors and the ethical component which form an inseparable, inalienable part of the academic communication. Grammar, lexical and stylistic mistakes in the texts were registered and marked in accordance with the rules governing the language usage: wrong punctuation, lexical-stylistic mistakes such as metonymy malfunction (see below); breaking ethical practices of academic writing concerning quotation references, etc. We distinguished punctuation and spelling errors, lexical misuse, the latter being the matter of questionable choice of words, using questionable syntactic constructions, and wrong cognitive choice.

The material was collected throughout the years 2018-2023 in the Moscow City University. The research shows that the error types are typical of academic discourse and are crucial for this particular discourse genre, and they can easily lead to minor or even major misunderstanding.

Besides this participant observation method, the authors generated questionnaires (see below) to test a variety of research issues, related to academic writing competences in students. Finally, scanning more than one hundred dissertation reports (thesis abstracts) yielded empirical data the authors relied on in their research.

'Academic writing in the educational and academic space has been in the research focus for the full twenty years. This interest can be attributed to the steadily growing number of academic publications in different forms and genres – research articles, qualification papers on a variety of levels (theses, graduation papers, end-of-the-term research papers) which are immediately made public, and they all add to the abundant open-source information landscape'

2.2. Research procedure

We had been retrieving incorrect samples from students' essays, drafts of papers over ten years, to form the empirical base, counting more than one hundred samplings for each mistake so that we can get sure that the mistake is typical. The errors identified included those commonly addressed in manuals and reference books, such as misrelated adverbial participial clauses. However, the majority of the identified errors were previously unnoticed. These encompassed issues like metonymy malfunctions and punctuation problems in Russian texts, numerous stylistic shortcomings in academic writing, as well as failures to meet ethical requirements, such as providing proper citations and acknowledgments of researchers' contribution.

Subsequently, a questionnaire was developed to assess punctuation proficiency among postgraduates in comparison to the evaluation of this competence among bachelors' and masters' students (Suleimanova et al., 2020).

Later on, over a hundred dissertation reports were examined, primarily focusing on ethical malpractices. The same set of reports had been previously analysed descriptions of the methods employed in dissertations. It was discovered that in most instances, researchers referenced fundamental logical operations such as description, comparison, analysis, and synthesis. These operations are commonly used in everyday routines and do not inherently define the distinctive characteristics of the dissertations. In this context, the analysis honed in on quotations and their ethical implications, rather than merely formal presentations.

Finally, the authors address the practice of academic recycling and undertake a critical analysis of it.

The analysis is structured along two dimensions. Firstly, we identify two primary categories of errors – those pertaining to the ethical aspects of academic communication, and those encompassing the stylistic specifics of the text. It is worth acknowledging, however, that these two categories frequently overlap, giving rise to complex messages. What remains significant is that in matters of ethics and style, communication strategies in academic writing appear to be largely universal.

Secondly, our research primarily focused on linguistic elements operating at both the lexical and syntactic levels (Suleimanova & Petrova, 2020) that are utilised to convey ethical and stylistic connotations. In this regard, there might be variations among national academic cultures, albeit not too significant.

For instance, principles of punctuation are influenced by language, not to mention spelling rules and, consequently, potential errors.

The list of the errors is offered below with their logic accounted for. Consequently, guidelines have been formulated to assist in mitigating the errors highlighted by the authors.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In linguistics error analysis, as a branch of applied linguistics, starting from pioneering work by Fries (1945), is mostly used in studying interference in second language acquisition. It is gaining momentum, however, in intralinguistics and turns its eye to other fields.

In the error analysis, the term 'error' is defined as a deviation from accuracy or correctness (Corder, 1981; Norrish, 1983) – an interpretation we shall adhere to.

Academic writing, an essential component of academic endeavours (Suleimanova, 2020; Suleimanova et al., 2020), has been explored across various languages (see Erjavec et al., 2020; Korotkina, 2018) and through a multilingual lens (Curry & Lillis, 2019). Furthermore, practical recommendations for incorporating corpus-based and computer technologies into academic writing instruction have been provided by scholars such as Birhan et al. (2021), as well as Shpit and Kurovsky (2020). Of special note is the new vistas in exploring academic writing practices, e.g., task evolution from information transfer to the focus on critical commentary in (Swales & Feak, 2023), which will add to the critical analysis and in this way save the researchers' time in assessing the contributions and taking decisions as to the relevance of the research results to their research.

The inherent and universal logic of academic writing is elucidated in the work by Macagno and Rapanta (2020), whereby students were instructed in employing evidence and reasoning through a critical thinking course. The research drew upon longitudinal data, comparing initial competences with those after a three-month training period, yet their focus did not extend to the linguistic tools utilised in the process.

Furthermore, the study of academic writing within specific fields, such as engineering, is explored by Bolsunovskaya and Rymanova (2020), while critical scholarly editing and writing are discussed in Sheipak's (2020) work, where traditional approaches reliant on universalism are critiqued in favour of national rhetorical-cultural traditions. This standpoint warrants further substantiation, as any researcher seeks recognition, preferably on an international scale, which is why they aim to appeal to a global audience and endeavour to connect with it. This objective can be realised through adherence to essential academic writing practices, although culture-specific norms must also be considered (Bhatia, 2017; Bailey, 2011; O'Leary & Steinkrauss, 2023).

Linguistic intricacies, including lexical nuances in different languages, are addressed in the works of Fajri et al. (2020), as well as Wong (2018). Even students' motivation in academic writing courses is given due attention in Chuikova's (2015)

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study. However, the present research intends to explore more nuanced matters encompassing various textual aspects of academic writing, as well as the errors authors tend to make when composing written messages. Additionally, the study will confront sensitive ethical issues tied to academic writing.

4. STUDY AND RESULTS
4.1. Statistics of the empirical data
The statistics of the empirical data (see also above) runs as follows: graduation papers (62 graduation papers, bachelors'), masters' theses (49 theses), post-graduate primary texts (29 texts) and one hundred dissertation reports were analysed, in addition to the sampling obtained during teaching practice over ten years. The authors took into account only the mistakes which counted more than 100 occurrences in the papers analysed, minor faults were discarded. Experimental data were also added to the list. (Individual frequencies were not counted as the point was to limit the occurrences to one hundred.)

4.2. Stylistic mistakes
A common construction and, consequently, an error observed among certain authors is the usage of the construction *not only X... but also Y*, typical of non-native speakers' discourse. This can be substituted with expressions like *Y in addition to X* or *Y as well as X*. The rationale behind this approach is that a communication strategy commencing with a positive statement, devoid of negation, is more apt to accomplish the communication goal and instil trust within the intended audience.

Blunt negation, particularly when placed at the start of a sentence as in *But X*, tends to evoke subconscious resistance in the recipient and can detrimentally impact effective communication. Notably, the practice of beginning with negation rather than a positive statement is observed not only in dissertation reports but also in the articles of scholars published in scientific journals. Among 74 dissertation reports, the construction *not only X but also Y* was employed at least once, while in master's graduation papers, this construction appeared in 82 instances, with several cases featuring multiple occurrences. For example:

Стратегии эмпатии и дистанцирования свидетельствуют о желании женщины не только представить саму себя окружающим, но и дать оценку тем, кто находится непосредственно в поле зрения ее внимания (Strategies of empathy and distancing indicate a woman's desire not only to present herself to others but also to provide an assessment to those who are directly within the scope of her attention).

Моделирование переводческого процесса происходит не только на основе когнитивных структур, но и с учетом комплексной репрезентации эвристического процесса (The modelling of the translation process occurs not only based on cognitive structures but also with consideration of a comprehensive representation of the heuristic process).

Citing researchers' names and their contributions presents a challenge in academic discourse. The ethos of academic writing involves focusing on concepts and ideas rather than solely highlighting the researcher behind the study. This implies that instead of phrases like *'N.N. and P.P. studied the implied negation'*, it would be more effective to shift the attention towards what their findings specifically revealed. For instance, a better approach would be to write *'The study of the implied negation showed that...' [N.N., P.P., 2019]*.

This somewhat awkward practice is commonly observed in various academic products, including bachelor's, master's, and post-graduate works, as well as dissertation reports. In the methodology section, authors often list the names of researchers who have explored a particular phenomenon without specifying their actual contributions. As an example, consider this excerpt taken from a dissertation report (Ph.D. level): *'The theoretical and methodological foundation of the research was built upon the works of Russian and foreign scholars in the field of narrative theory [22 names cited in parenthesis], linguistic gender theory [13 names cited], feminist linguistics theory [15 names cited], functional linguistics theory [5 names cited], pragmatic linguistics and speech act theory [4 names cited]'.* Each list of names is followed by a vague reference to 'and others'. It remains unclear which ideas and theoretical frameworks the author used as the basis for their research.

This situation becomes perplexing, as some of the mentioned works contradict each other on crucial points while agreeing on others. As a result, readers might be left wondering which ideas the author actually aligns with. Regrettably, this undesirable practice is seeping into other academic genres as well, a trend that we believe should be curbed (for a potential solution, refer to Suleimanova et al., 2020). The overarching guideline is to clearly define the specific ideas you are incorporating into your work.

Regarding references to previous works and their authors, we'd like to highlight the choice of verbs used to introduce quotations and citations. It is common for students and young researchers to employ verbs like 'writes' or 'says' when attributing the voices of colleagues, as seen in examples such as *'L. V. Scherba wrote'*. This practice can be viewed unfavourably, and it is recommended to substitute such verbs with those that empha-

'Another contentious issue arises from the tendency of young researchers to assert that they are studying a particular term, when in fact, they are examining linguistic facts that are explained using said terms. While these facts may require definitions, they often don't necessitate extensive research. In specific fields like terminology, terms are indeed the primary subject of investigation, serving as objects of study. However, in other linguistic studies, terms, notions, or concepts serve as essential research tools, requiring clear definitions'

sise the cognitive actions of the authors instead – e.g., *'L.V. Scherba insists/claims/emphasises'*. Not only does this approach align better with the academic ethos, but it also shows greater respect for the scholars' contributions, thus promoting academic ethics.

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All of these seemingly minor details have the potential to significantly diminish the positive impact of the publication the authors are aiming to convey.

Another pressing concern within academic discourse is the matter of punctuation. While it may initially appear trivial, its significance is substantial, as it has the potential to alter the intended message of the author. The crux lies in the fact that punctuation conventions differ across cultures – a notion elucidated by Scherba (1974), who discerned three fundamental types of comma usage rules prevalent in European languages: Germanic, French, and an intermediary system. In German, punctuation adheres to strict regulations and largely corresponds to syntactic structures in both German and Russian. In contrast, French and Italian punctuation contributes to the axiology of the utterance. Scherba (1974) contends that Russian punctuation occupies an intermediary position between these two approaches. It combines stringent formal rules concerning syntactic structures with the flexibility for speakers to emphasise chosen speech fragments, thereby enhancing expression in both spoken and written communication. This ability allows speakers to accentuate virtually any concept or word in a sentence, imbuing it with emphasis and expressiveness. However, such emphasis may render the utterance more expressive, a trait that does not seamlessly align with the preferred neutral style of academic discourse.

Suleimanova et al. (2020) introduced a sentence that can accommodate several comma placements to emphasise adverbial modifiers. Alternatively, the sentence can be rendered complete-

ly neutral without any commas, as exemplified by this statement where a range of accentuation possibilities exists: *В настоящем издании на странице 46 в предложении о необходимости использования в таких случаях экспериментальных методик были обозначены основные трудности в постановке эксперимента (In the current edition, on page 46, in the sentence discussing the necessity of using experimental techniques in such cases, the main difficulties in experiment design were outlined).*

To cultivate this punctuation competence and sensibility in students, we engage in sentence analysis exercises in class. Students are tasked with inserting commas and subsequently discussing the resulting semantic variations. Eco's (2015) notion that a serene tone on paper is ideal is held in consideration. This notion underscores that within academic writing, expressions often denoted by discretionary commas are out of place. The same observation regarding commas is pertinent when considering Russian adverbs that denote high probability, such as *очевидно* (meaning 'obviously'). This adverb can assume three different meanings, each distinguished by the presence or absence of commas. The first meaning or function is integrated into the predicate, as in 'it is evident' (Russian: *это очевидно*). The other two meanings function as determiners, albeit of distinct types.

Based on the logic of the advocated approach, one can anticipate that the version without a comma is stylistically more neutral. In this scenario, words like *очевидно* modify the word, usually an adjective or adverb, with an intensifying connotation, as in *'Это очевидно неверный подход'* ('This is obviously the wrong approach'). Conversely, the version with a comma conveys a personally and axiologically marked perspective, rendering it less stylistically neutral. Consequently, in academic discourse, where neutrality is paramount, axiological considerations must be handled judiciously.

Another punctuation issue pertains to the use of dash marks in Russian. In the Linguistic Encyclopaedic Dictionary, this is referred to as the expansion of the dash mark. In comparison to the English dash mark, which is relatively infrequent, in Russian, it often serves to signify the missing element, frequently a copula, in addition to indicating a pause between clauses. Because English sentence structure necessitates the complete presentation of subject-predicate relationships, the predicate or copula is never omitted, rendering the dash mark unnecessary.

However, it's important to recognise that any punctuation mark acts as a form of barrier. This implies that if we can circumvent its use, sentences will flow more smoothly, becoming easier to perceive and consequently comprehend, thus rendering communication more successful (Suleimanova et al., 2020, p. 161). A guideline to achieving more effective communication, dash-wise, is to incorporate (semi)copulas. For instance, a sentence like *'Описание несвободной сочетаемости слов – одна из важнейших задач создания этого словаря'* ('The description of restricted word combinations is one of the most important tasks in creating this dictionary') will read more fluidly if the dash is replaced with verbs such as *является* ('is') or *состоит в том, чтобы* ('consists in').

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The aforementioned two instances of punctuation, while not resulting in errors, do diminish the text's comprehensibility enough to undermine the overall impression. Two other cases can be classified as actual mistakes: the insertion of an unnecessary comma between the subject and predicate, and the omission of a comma where it is obligatory, specifically at the end of an attributive participial construction.

The portion of punctuation competence linked to these stringent rules was assessed among bachelor's and master's students in Suleimanova et al.'s (2020) study, where students were tasked with both inserting a missing comma at the end of an attributive participial construction and identifying and removing an extraneous comma between the subject and predicate. The experiment involved 18 fourth-year bachelor's students and 18 master's students. Surprisingly, only 7 out of 36 participants correctly placed the essential comma at the end of the attributive participial construction, and 9 bachelors and 7 masters were unable to identify an unnecessary subject-predicate comma.

A subsequent re-evaluation experiment in 2023 involving 23 postgraduate students specialising in linguistics produced remarkably similar results to those of the 2020 experiment. Namely, 11 participants failed to recognise the incorrect subject-predicate comma, and 9 students neglected to include the necessary comma at the end of attributive constructions. This persistent trend needs to be acknowledged in the training of students in academic writing.

4.3. Academic ethics in the academic writing

Academic ethics has always been a sensitive issue in the academic circles and still is. The academic publications are meant for the global academic community which is lingua-culturally different, and scientists may abide by differing traditions and customs, with different nuances, which should be taken into consideration. This is why the ethical component is crucial. We shall focus on some of ethical issues, on various language levels.

One of the key issues here is academic recycling which used to be acceptable in pre-digital time when a scholar, in order to reach out to the desired audience, had to disseminate their ideas and discoveries via a variety of publications in different sources. Now, in the global digital space there is no need to copy and recycle one's ideas, it is often enough to ring once. Recycling practices nowadays are waiting for assessment and in-depth analysis (Hall et al., 2018; Suleimanova, 2020). Academic recycling is now frowned upon by the community, which lays a variety of restrictions on the authors.

When it comes to lexical elements, particularly commonly used words for discussing the contributions of colleagues, phrases like *'N writes/says'* often arise. However, this practice can be subject to scrutiny. The rationale here is to emphasise the importance of specifying the cognitive activity involved in the statement. It is more effective to employ verbs like 'claims', 'observes', 'argues', or 'emphasises', which carry a greater illocutionary force and enhance the persuasiveness of the quoted statement. Instead of using *'F. de Saussure writes X'*, it is more advantageous to use expressions such as *'F. de Saussure observes/argues/states'*, and so forth.

Evaluative discourse markers, such as the words 'renowned', 'famous', 'interesting', 'important', or 'careful' referring to colleagues and their works, though seemingly complimentary, sound condescending in most cases, especially if employed by young researchers who mean well as they are trying to pay tribute to the previous generations of scholars and express their piety to the honoured, meritorious researchers or evaluate their scientific achievements. The problem is that the attributes, while originating from good intentions, often do come across as condescending.

Further on, pronouns pose a distinct issue in the context of academic ethics research. The longstanding tradition of employing the humble authorial 'we', which students tend to use in an attempt to convey respect, appears to be losing relevance for at least two reasons. Firstly, as research becomes more personal, authors are inclined to opt for the pronoun 'I', thereby assuming full responsibility for their work. Secondly, excessive and persistent use of the pronoun 'we' can inadvertently shift from the intended humble authorial tone to one that feels imperious, akin to the speech of emperors.

While we do believe that judicious use of this pronoun remains a commendable practice, we do object to its overuse. This overuse can often be accompanied by the possessive pronoun 'our'. The phrase *'we in our research'* appears redundant and stylistically inappropriate, both in English and its Russian equivalent.

Academic syntax presents yet another prominent concern within academic writing. Numerous syntactic constructions, frequently encountered in academic discourse, pose challenges to researchers. These constructions often pertain to citation patterns and references to the names of other researchers. (We are not delving into reference lists here, as they adhere to publisher standards and may exhibit slight variations despite compliance.) Notably, syntax carries ethical implications, specifically regarding how authors mention the names of their colleagues. The choice between using initials or not, such as *'Petrov'* vs *'I. A. Petrov'*, or between employing full names like *'Ronald Langacker'* vs *'R. Langacker'*, carries ethical significance.

'Academic writing in the educational and academic space has been in the research focus for over twenty years, with studies carried out on both the material of different national languages and in multilingual perspective. The scientific novelty of this research lies in its potential to contribute to cross-linguistic research in the area of academic writing readability assessment, as authors describe correlations between linguistic means specific to the Russian academic discourse and corresponding means and principles in other languages that can be potentially misleading in addressing international audience'

Furthermore, as previously mentioned, the logic of academic writing encourages prioritising ideas over authorship when referencing colleagues' contributions. In alignment with this approach, we propose further support for metonymic representation of research elements, such as *'The survey shows/reveals'*, or employing impersonal or indefinite (im)personal, as well as passive constructions.

Moving forward, a significant concern arises in connection with an error we term 'metonymy malfunction'. We view metonymy as a linguistic device founded on the non-random association between objects. For instance, we can refer to the contents of a vessel using the vessel's label – like saying 'I drank one glass', signifying the contents of the glass. These cases have been subjected to thorough analysis (Panther & Radden, 1999).

We address this issue because, at times, we encounter statements such as *'there is agentivity in this verb'*, suggesting that the verb's meaning incorporates the feature '+agentivity'. In essence, authors in such instances establish a connection between two objects that possess a non-coincidental linkage. However, these objects exist on different cognitive planes and cannot be combined without specific explanation. This misalignment leads to expressions like *'is devoted to modelling the concept WOMAN in the contemporary British press'* (where the concept isn't modelled within the press but rather within the minds of journalists), or *'studying pragmatics determines its link with other disciplines – philosophy, psychology'* (where studying doesn't establish the linkage but rather the word is used inaccurately). Another example involves the use of a verb for metaphorical transfer from humans to inanimate objects. However, this transfer isn't between actual physical objects, but rather between different conceptual notions. This is due to the fact that metaphor is grounded in cognitive mechanisms and cannot bridge the gap between a person and an object in real-life terms. Taking the verb 'curb' as an example, one might posit that this word represents an action directed at the complete suppression of emotions. The exclusive category of verbs capable of materialising actions is formed by performative verbs, whereas others merely describe the actions.

Another unfortunate practice linked to metonymy malfunction is asserting that research is dedicated to studying notions/terms. We contend (as discussed earlier) that notions and terms receive specialised study in the field of terminology, whereas other research areas deal with different subject matters – though term definitions remain pertinent.

The crux of the matter is that this metonymy malfunction likely manifests in other languages of academic writing, as it reflects the inclination to directly connect elements that are indirectly linked and belong to distinct yet co-located cognitive levels. Metonymy malfunction results in a lacklustre and hasty text that falls short of meeting academic standards and necessitates correction.

5. DISCUSSION

We report on current academic writing practices in Russian universities and provide error analysis of academic discourse texts presented in undergraduate and postgraduate qualification papers and theses. The outcomes of the study are significant as error analysis allows detecting potential pitfalls in the way the narrative is designed and executed, which may spoil the impression from a research paper. Another aim is to offer some guidelines for the researchers, especially the beginners, on how to be more convincing in presenting their research results to the scientific community.

Academic writing in the educational and academic space has been in the research focus for over twenty years, with studies carried out on both the material of different national languages and in multilingual perspective. The scientific novelty of this research lies in its potential to contribute to cross-linguistic research in the area of academic writing readability assessment, as authors describe correlations between linguistic means specific to the Russian academic discourse and corresponding means and principles in other languages that can be potentially misleading in addressing international audience. The results obtained are of significance as they suggest universal academic writing rules concerning the choice of syntactic constructions and vocabulary, determined by the academic research genre and its ethical norms.

We argue that compliance with the rules and regulations of academic writing contributes to mutual understanding, especially when the stylistic and ethical norms are concerned. Error analysis seems one of the powerful weapons in fighting academic 'illiteracy', or rather negligence of the author towards written texts. This analysis appears to be quite efficient in prognostic text analysis; it helps to understand the specifics of the academic genres and to act correspondingly when producing written texts. Participant observation method in the longitudinal perspective allowed the authors to spot the problems which normally pass unnoticed by the researchers. What has been done against the current practices is introducing new axes of analysis, e.g., punctuation issues that do not qualify as mistakes proper, though they constitute specifics of Russian academic discourse. Metonymy malfunction was entered into the academic focus as a new research object that calls for deeper investigation in view of professional training of bachelors-through-masters-to-post-graduate level. Attention is drawn to wrong stylistic practices which refer to quotation patterns and references to previous research work.

We raised the issue of presenting research methodology with shifting the focus on what has been done by predecessors rather than on the list of names involved in the topic. The suggested guidelines do shape the academic style and make the written text easy on the eye and easily perceptible.

Some of the issues raised open the new research vistas in elaborating training programmes which will cover the issues relating to punctuation, style, and academic recycling. Study limitations lie in insufficiency of empirical data relating to other stylistically sensitive devices and means. What issues remain intact and are under researched, being though relevant for practical and theoretical purposes is building up the typology of mistakes proper on different levels in academic writing as distinguished from the stylistic deviations which do not significantly affect the message, though they form a distinct communication barrier when communicating internationally. The latter ones are less tangible, but they must be specially taught in the learning-teaching practices.

6. CONCLUSION

Contemporary academic writing across its various genres is now accessible to the wider public. Even students' qualifying papers undergo thorough public evaluation, placing greater responsibility on them in terms of content and textual elements like stylistics, vocabulary, and syntax. Numerous aspects of the text are inherent to academic writing, irrespective of the language used, as they embody universal strategies for academic communication. Violating even minor communication norms may result in misunderstandings and potentially influence colleagues' perceptions of the author, casting doubt on the credibility of research outcomes. Particularly crucial are guidelines pertaining to text style and academic ethics.

The objective set on examination of errors within the texts of bachelor's, master's, and postgraduate students revealed common mistakes present in their essays and draft papers. Some of

these errors are also made by researchers during the preparation of manuscripts for publication and in their research papers. The authors conducted an analysis of a substantial sample of masters' and bachelors' papers, as well as a hundred dissertation reports to identify stylistic shortcomings encompassing areas like punctuation, references to prior studies, approaches to citing researchers' names, linguistic axiology tools, negative syntactic structures, and negation. Furthermore, the linguistic competencies of students were assessed to uncover areas where their skills were underdeveloped.

The study has identified an overlooked mistake in academic writing that pertains to misrelating cognitive levels – a phenomenon denoted as 'metonymic malfunction'. This type of error carries a high likelihood of detracting from the paper's impact and can even engender scepticism toward the presented research findings. An illustrative example is the connection between linguistic elements and the reality they describe, where phrases like 'this verb is realising the act which affects N' mistakenly treat the verb and the act's realisation as being on the same cognitive plane.

The study also examines the comparison between the Russian and English dash marks, investigating the frequency of their usage in Russian academic writing. Moreover, the study underscores the significance of understanding other punctuation marks and their culture-specific linguistic implications as a matter of importance for academics to consider.

The research perspective on a variety of errors, e.g., metonymy malfunction, involves looking into various types of metonymic transfers – an exploration that aims to heighten the awareness of future learners about such metonymies; on treating academic writing in translation perspective will contribute to the theory of discourse.

The practical perspective is that findings from this analysis can be harnessed to enhance training programmes for emerging researchers.

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Book Reviews

Everyday Shakespeare: Lines for life (a review)

Original work by Ben Crystal and David Crystal published by Chambers, 2023

Reviewed by Barry Tomalin

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This review fits in well with Asya Akopova's excellent article on tailoring the English Language for History majors in university as it is about the famous Elizabethan playwright and poet, William Shakespeare. Compiled by actor, director and Shakespeare expert Ben Crystal and the world-renowned expert on applied linguistics and the English language, David Crystal, incidentally, Ben's father, *Everyday Shakespeare: Lines for Life* offers a quotation from Shakespeare's plays and poems for every day of the year, giving a simple but addictive insight into how Shakespeare used the language of his time to create his masterpieces. It is an excellent resource for teachers and researchers in English literature and for teachers running courses in history or the English language at upper intermediate and advanced levels. As an example, here's the entry for September 24th from *Hamlet*. Queen Gertrude, Hamlet's mother, is replying to him after he has told her a secret.

> Be thou assured, if words be made of breath
> And breath of life, I have no life to breathe
> what thou hast said to me (Hamlet, Act 3, Scene 4).

What she says gives pause for thought. What does she actually mean? What do these words *thou* and *hast* mean? Ben and David Crystal explain it simply. *Thou* means 'you' and *hast* is the present tense singular form of 'have'. *Breath* is used to mean 'speech' or 'voice' and *to breathe* in this context means 'to repeat'. So, she is simply saying, 'I won't repeat to anyone what you have told me'.

The authors go on to explain the meaning of the speech, and how the different words are used. For example, the explanation of the speech quoted above goes like this: '*Hamlet asks his mother Gertrude never to reveal what has passed between them and especially that he is not in madness. But mad in craft. The Queen strongly re-assures him using these words'.* They also offer other examples of the way the word *breathe* is used in Shakespeare's plays, taking examples from *King John*, *The Merry Wives of Windsor* and this one from *The Merchant of Venice* spoken by the leading female character in the play, Portia, who says: '*I have toward heaven breathed a secret vow'.*

Work that one out. It's not hard. 'I have made a secret promise to heaven' and the speech goes on '*to live in prayer and contemplation'.*

How did the authors select their quotations and allocate them to different dates in the year? In their introduction they say they selected extracts both from Shakespeare's best-known plays and poems and sonnets but also from lesser-known pieces or plays that are not so often produced in the theatre. Examples include *King John, Henry 4, Henry 6,* and others.

How were decisions taken what quote to choose for what day of the month? In their introduction the authors explain how quotes were arranged in each month of the year. January features some of the best quotes they found. February focused on love and laughter and March on grief, sorrow, hope and peace.

April contained some of the most frequent quotes which people hear and use, and May focuses on nature. June explores expressions of emotion like insults and argument and July looks at politics and tyranny, a key feature of Shakespeare's history plays. In contrast, August's quotes focus on wisdom.

As Autumn begins, September features quotes about work, honesty, secrets and money while October features love, marriage, children and, as the authors put it, '*grounded outlooks on death'.* November looks at friendship and also what people say when their friends have to leave while, finally, December takes us home and looks at arriving, welcome, celebration and kindness.

As mentioned, every day has a quote and the words that teachers and learners may not be familiar with are explained as they have changed in meaning over the years or centuries. The authors often offer a number of definitions for a single word and use what is called a 'lexical triangulation' which offers a number

of alternative definitions of words. For example, on September 24th, the authors stress the relationship between words and breathing and define the noun *breath* as *utterance, speech*, and *voice*. The verb *breathe* can mean *speak, utter,* and *talk*. In the authors' view the modern meaning may lie somewhere in the middle.

Following the daily quotes and the commentaries that accompany them the book lists an index of sources in alphabetical order and an abbreviation of the titles for ease of reference. *Macbeth*, for instance is *Mac* and *Romeo and Juliet* is *RJ*. The detailed index presents the date, the opening of the quote and the reference to the play or poem or sonnet. This is followed by an index of themes and finally by an index of the openings of the lead quotes presented with the date references.

Although not its intention or part of its methodology, for teachers of history and of classical literature *Everyday Shakespeare* offers a simple and effective lesson plan every day to introduce students to differences in the way the English language was used in medieval times. Look at the book, choose the quotation for the day you are teaching, present it to the class and get them to work out what it means. It also offers historians and language and English literature specialists a valuable and entertaining source of reference to browse through and help keep themselves up to speed.

The authors are not the first to create a daily programme of teaching, though maybe it's a first for Shakespeare. Steven Covey, author of the *7 Habits of Highly Effective People* wrote a calendar of things to do, and His Holiness the Dalai Lama of Tibet offered daily topics of meditation, leading to a more fulfilled life. So, teachers, it's time to get on your bikes and start working or, as Lady Macbeth put it, when telling guests to leave a royal banquet her husband was hosting, *'stand not upon the order of your going, but go at once'*.

Everyday Shakespeare is instructive, entertaining and an enjoyable source of information which can have a positive impact on students and teachers alike both in the classroom and for personal study. The book is available in print, but an online audio version is also available. What next, we ask ourselves? Everyday Pushkin, Everyday Goethe and everyday Voltaire or Rousseau? I can't wait!

Book Reviews

Introducing stylistic analysis: Practicing the basics (a review)

Original work by Gibreel Sadeq Alaghbary published by Edinburgh University Press, 2022

Reviewed by Eman Adil Jaafar

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Introducing stylistic tools to teach language patterns, cultural references, and meaning based on linguistic textual evidence cannot always be a straightforward task. There is a plethora of books available but most of them are produced for advanced researchers and native learners of the English language. In fact, few stylistic books are accessible to foreign language learners. This book under review is written by an EFL Yemeni Professor, who comes from a background that allows him to understand the difficulties that EFL and ESL learners face. Needless to mention that learners whose native language other than English lack the cultural and linguistic competence that might help them as readers to analyse, understand and interpret texts correctly.

This book is highly recommended for ESL/EFL teachers and students for several practical reasons. First, it offers teachers who aim to teach various text types including literary texts (i.e., poetry, fiction, drama) and non-literary texts (social media language, advertisements, etc.). This book contains many practical exercises with key answers. In addition to that, it is suitable for advanced-level students and native language learners. *Introducing Stylistic Analysis* consists of three parts. Parts 1 and 3 are devoted to introducing stylistics both as a linguistic field and as an analytical framework. The first part is mainly concerned with definitions of stylistics and the main stylistic toolkits that help in conducting text analysis. For example, definitions of key terms – such as deviation, foregrounding, and style – are presented with practical examples to foster readers' understanding. The last part, the third one of the book, entitled *The Story of Stylistics,* reveals the historical journey of the development of the field. Beginning with Russian formalism, a literary criticism and literary theory school that flourished in the early 20th century, stylistics has been influenced by other contemporary methods to the present day. Not only this but also, Part 3 shows future development in the field and displays a few textbooks for those who wish to immerse themselves with the stylistic experience.

Generally, stylistics' main concern can be defined in terms of authorial and text style. The latter is the main focus of the book. This pertains to the examination of how textual choices that indicate the overall meaning and impact of a text by considering the reasons behind the selection of a specific word or expression from a variety of available options. In addition to that, the rationale for choosing a particular structure is highlighted.

Part 2 is the heart of the book. After introducing definitions of the key terms in the first part and presenting how stylistics developed over the years in the second one, the practical analysis of many text types is exemplified in the middle part. Thus, the second part entitled *Into the Practice of Stylistics* nourishes readers with illustrations of textual evidence about each and every stylistic term. Furthermore, its importance lies in presenting all types of stylistic approaches including the formalist, functional, critical, corpus, feminist, pragmatic, cognitive, and multimodal approaches. The interdisciplinarity feature of the discipline enables dealing with various data and appeals for readers with different linguistic backgrounds. The author provokes critical thinking by providing questions to readers. To have some detailed information about each type of the practical section it is crucial to reflect on these stylistic divisions. Firstly, functionalist stylistics invites readers to examine verbs through transitivity processes and agency. Categorising the types of verbs in terms of material (doing), verbalisations (saying), mental (thinking, feeling), relational (relation, equivalence), behavioural (behaviour), and existential enables us to reveal the way how language patterns are textually constructed.

Concerning feminist stylistic analysis, the textual creation of gender ideology in an example of narrative fiction is the subject of this chapter's investigation. This section covers gender prejudice, the distribution of gender roles, and the fragmentation of the female body in a book written in the twentieth century by employing the analytic framework of feminist stylistics.

To provide readers with a variety of literary text analyses, Algabardy also presents a pragmatic stylistic model to an extract from Shakespeare's *King Lear*. Dramatic dialogue can best be described through pragmatic theories for instance; turn-taking, speech acts, politeness, Grice's maxims, politeness, and cooperative principles, etc. Next, cognitive stylistics is discussed, and analysis is exemplified through humorous discourse in particular jokes. Relevance theory is applied to understand cognitively how readers receive humour while reading or hearing jokes. Relatedly, the human mind allows for the maximisation and manipulation of optimum relevance about the world and language to generate humour. More approaches are presented to deal with different data, such as Multimodal Stylistics applied to study the language of ads. Stylistic frameworks are used with visual grammar techniques to achieve this aim.

The author's goal is to demonstrate how the interaction of verbal and visual aspects in advertising creates meaning and effect. The approach of stylistics here is multimodal, which simply means paying attention not only to verbal aspects (written) but also to visual ones including visual modes of communication such as typography, layout, colour, distance, and other visual effects. Moving to the next phase, critical stylistic approach to political speech demonstrates how to uncover ideology through ten textual functions that also pay attention to grammatical aspects of the discourse.

Lastly, corpus stylistics refers to huge data spoken or written stored electronically and analysed by computer and stylistic tools. This is exemplified in the book by news published on social media referred as to journalism. In sum, after each practical type of stylistics, lists of books are recommended for the readers to have in-depth knowledge.

These methodological varieties are presented in a practical and convenient way to the readers, for example, each type of stylistics is enhanced with an introductory section supported with definitions of the main tools that can be used in the analysis. Then an illustration from a literary text is selected to apply such a method in a detailed simplified manner. Guided questions are introduced to the readers to question themselves about certain textual features in the text. These questions are fundamental in guiding readers to what features they should pay attention to. They work as maps to the treasure island of meaning.

Followed by an example of the analysis by the author so readers can compare their answers with the given model of the analysis. The do-it-yourself activity is the most exciting and interesting part present in the form of questions. The closure glossary section is useful and handy for readers who might come across unfamiliar words. Thus, it provides definitions of key terms in stylistics.

It's worth noting that the goals of *Introducing Stylistic Analysis: Practicing the Basics* may be similar to those of other popular stylistics textbooks like Gibbons and Whiteley (2018), and Jeffries and McIntyre (2010). While those other works are aimed at experts in the area and more specialised readers, this book by Gibreel Sadeq Alaghbary is accessible to readers with varying levels of familiarity with the discipline. Moreover, in comparison to previous stylistics textbooks, this book, as Alaghbary characterises it, is more 'practice-oriented than research-based'. Thus, this book is highly recommended to general readers, learners, and teachers in linguistics and in particular those who are interested in text analysis by means of applying stylistic interdisciplinary methods.

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News & Events

RUDN University News

Specialised Translation Seminar at RUDN University

On June 2, 2023, the Department of Foreign Languages at the Faculty of Economics hosted a scientific seminar focused on *Specialised Translation: Optimising the Teaching Process*. The seminar featured a presentation and an engaging discussion led by Professor Alexandra Anisimova of the Department of English Language Studies at the Faculty of Philology, Lomonosov Moscow State University. The primary objective of the seminar was to refine the methods used to teach specialised translation. The agenda centred around the development of major skills, including understanding the role of translating terminology in specialised translation education, selecting the most appropriate approach for translating terms, and leveraging a corpus of professional texts to identify equivalent terms.

Throughout the seminar, participants had the opportunity to delve into existing methodologies for translating terms in the humanities and socio-political sciences, explore the effective employment of a professional text corpus when confronted with multiple equivalents for a term, and discuss strategies to foster student engagement with the subject matter and foster a positive connection with instructors.

The seminar proved to be an invaluable platform for the exchange of ideas and strategies aimed at enhancing the teaching of specialised translation. Participants gained valuable insights into effective approaches and techniques that can contribute to an optimised learning experience in this field.

Seminar on Profession-Oriented Communication

The Faculty of Economics' Department of Foreign Languages recently hosted a thrilling international scientific seminar titled *Profession-Oriented Communication and Translation: Scientific and Methodological Aspects*. Attendees eagerly delved into engaging discussions, all centred around a captivating presentation on the ever-important topic of the prospects and challenges in the context of cross-cultural competence in Business English communication skills. The seminar offered an exceptional platform for brilliant minds to exchange ideas and perspectives on this crucial aspect of the professional world.

Adding to the seminar's allure, the organisers had the honour of inviting a distinguished guest speaker Dr Valentina Budinchich, a highly respected professor and the Dean of the Faculty of Foreign Languages at Alpha BC University in Belgrade, Serbia. Professor Budinchich shared her invaluable expertise, captivating the audience with her profound knowledge and thought-provoking observations.

The seminar proved to be a melting pot of intellectual curiosity, as participants explored a wide array of topics. One of the many highlights was examining the promising avenues and hurdles associated with cross-cultural communication in the realm of business English. Attendees exchanged views, experiences, and innovative strategies to navigate this ever-evolving landscape.

To immortalise the wealth of knowledge and groundbreaking research presented at the seminar, a remarkable collection of materials has been published. Indexed by the Russian Science Citation Index (RSCI), this compendium features contributions from the seminar's attendees, as well as the exceptional graduate and MA students of RUDN University. The compilation showcases cutting-edge studies in the fields of phonetics, lexicology of professional English, Chinese, and German languages, speech impact, linguistic pragmatics, translation studies, and intercultural communication.

The seminar was a resounding success, leaving participants inspired and empowered with fresh insights and innovative approaches to profession-oriented communication and translation. With the stage set for future collaborations, the faculty eagerly anticipates even greater breakthroughs in the dynamic field of language and cross-cultural interactions.

International Student Conference Explores Globalisation and Regionalisation in the 21st Century Economy

On May 18, 2023, the 8th International Student Scientific Conference on *World Economy in the 21st Century: Globalisation and Regionalisation* took place at RUDN University. Co-organised by prestigious institutions like the Armenian State Economic University, Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, Lebanese University, and others, the event fostered an exchange of ideas on pressing global development issues. The conference, held within the Multilingual Environment project, featured 14 sections covering a wide range of topics, including digital assets, national economic transformation, financial system contradictions, management paradigms, cities as economic drivers, Latin America's role, Ibero-American innovation, Russia-China relations, regional development, foreign economic trends, digital transformations in Asia and Africa, and legal aspects of business.

Distinguished scholars, including Dr Inna Andronova, Dean of the Faculty of Economics at RUDN University, and Dr Alexey Maslov, Director of the Institute of Asian and African Studies at Lomonosov Moscow State University, presented papers on modernising the 21st-century economy, addressing globalisation requirements, and socio-economic challenges worldwide.

The conference aimed to promote scholarly discourse, providing a platform for students and researchers to share their thoughts and ideas. With certificates awarded to participants, selected Russian papers will be published in the electronic scientific journal *Innovative Economy*, while foreign language articles will be featured in the conference proceedings. For more information and conference materials, visit global-rudn.ru.

Russia and Algeria Strengthen Cooperation in Science and Education

On May 22, 2023, a collaboration agreement was signed between RUDN University and the University of Constantine 3-Salah Boubnider in Algeria, marking a significant milestone in the partnership between the two institutions. The Algerian delegation was represented by Kebbabi Saliha, Vice-Rector for International Affairs at the University of Constantine 3-Salah Boubnider; Prof. CHERABI Abdelaziz, a professor at the University of Constantine 3-Salah Boubnider; and Ms Benmaza Sonia Faranaz, an advisor at the Embassy of the Republic of Algeria in Russia. RUDN University was represented by Larisa Efremova, Vice-Rector for International Affairs; Inna Andronova, Dean of the Faculty of Economics; Darya Sokolan, Deputy Dean for International Affairs; Vitaliy Zhalnin, staff member of the International Protocol Department; and RUDN University graduate Muhammed Selim.

The agreement solidified the ongoing cooperation between the universities that began in 2019. It encompasses joint scientific events such as conferences and science schools, collaborative supervision of doctoral students, and joint publications. This partnership aims to foster knowledge exchange and enhance academic collaboration between Russia and Algeria. By combining their expertise and resources, the two universities seek to promote research, encourage academic mobility, and nurture a vibrant intellectual environment.

The signing of the agreement is a testament to the commitment of both institutions to strengthen educational ties and deepen scientific cooperation. It opens up new avenues for joint initiatives and creates opportunities for scholars and students from both countries to engage in meaningful academic exchange and contribute to advancements in various fields of study.

Engaging School Tour Wraps Up Academic Year at the Faculty of Economics

On May 22, 2023, an exciting school tour marked the grand finale of the academic year at the Faculty of Economics. As part of this special event, visitors to RUDN University had the unique opportunity to meet faculty members and students, immersing themselves in the vibrant atmosphere of the esteemed faculty.

This time, the excursion predominantly welcomed 11th grade of secondary school students. The students were greeted by Elena Egoricheva, Deputy Dean of the Faculty of Economics for Pre-University Activities. Leading the way, she guided them through the university and the faculty, showcasing prominent locations such as the university library, the coworking space, the winter garden, and ultimately settling in an auditorium where students had the chance to ask questions and engage in meaningful discussions.

The young participants expressed their enthusiasm for actively participating in various events hosted by the faculty throughout the academic year. They eagerly seized this opportunity to learn more about the competitive advantages of studying at RUDN University. As a special treat, senior students were also invited to join the gathering, sharing their experiences about their student life. They revealed the secrets of navigating the educational process, internships, and practical training, providing valuable guidance to the eager school students.

The tour not only offered a glimpse into the academic world but also served as an invaluable platform for intergenerational exchange. It showcased the supportive and inclusive environment that RUDN University provides, emphasising the importance of mentorship and the seamless transition from school to university life.

The Faculty of Economics at RUDN University remains committed to nurturing future talents and inspiring young minds. With this successful school tour marking the end of the academic year, the faculty eagerly looks forward to welcoming a new wave of aspiring students in the coming years, continuing its mission to provide quality education and empower the next generation of leaders in economics and beyond.

Faculty of Economics at RUDN University Meets with Colleagues from Al-Farabi KazNU

In April of 2023, Professor Svetlana Balashova, Head of the Department of Economic and Mathematical Modeling, and Associate Professor Konstantin Gomonov, embarked on a scientific mission to Al-Farabi KazNU in Kazakhstan. Over the course of two days, they delivered lectures on *Sustainable Development through the Circular Economy Concept* and *Inequality of Opportunities as a Barrier to Sustainable Development*. An engaging meeting with fourth-year students was held to promote the MA programme in International Project Management and attract students to study within the framework of the Commonwealth of Independent States University (CISU) and the Eurasian University Network.

The visiting professors actively participated in a departmental meeting with the Management Department of the Higher School of Economics and Business at Al-Farabi KazNU. The purpose of this meeting was to present the new digital MA programme *Data-driven Management and Business Analytics*. Current issues and tasks related to CISU students were discussed and plans for the 2023-2024 academic year were coordinated. Additionally, possibilities for collaborative research endeavours were explored.

A meeting was also held with the Dean of the Higher School of Economics and Business at Al-Farabi KazNU, Dr Lyazat Bimendiyeva. During this productive discussion, prospects for expanding cooperation in the field of digital disciplines and enhancing academic mobility for faculty members were explored.

The encounter between the Faculty of Economics at RUDN University and Al-Farabi KazNU showcased the commitment of both institutions to fostering academic collaboration and enriching the educational experience for students. Through such exchanges, knowledge is shared, and new opportunities for joint initiatives and research emerge, paving the way for a brighter future in the realm of economics and digital education.

Leadership in Sustainability: RUDN University Successfully Completes Independent Assurance of SDGs

RUDN University has become the first Russian university to undergo independent auditing and public assurance of its non-financial sustainability report, making significant strides in the pursuit of sustainable development goals.

The university prepared an ESG (Environment, Social, Governance) report and specific indicators of sustainable development, which were audited by a leading auditing organisation within the global network of PricewaterhouseCoopers International Limited. Furthermore, the report underwent a process of public assurance by the Russian Union of Industrialists and Entrepreneurs. ESG represents a commitment to sustainable development through responsible environmental stewardship, social responsibility, and high-quality corporate governance. When selecting a university, both Russian and international prospective students consider its rankings and evaluate its commitment to achieving sustainable development goals. They examine how the university responds to these goals, how it supports them, and what contributions it makes towards their realisation. RUDN University, as an international university, actively engages in this direction. Recently, it presented its first sustainability report, a significant milestone that unveils the university's approaches and projects in the ESG agenda.

The university management faced the challenging task of prioritising from the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), each equally important. Recognising the impossibility of implementing initiatives for all goals simultaneously, RUDN University focused on the primary achievement of five SDGs: SDG 4 Quality Education, SDG 8 Decent Work and Economic Growth, SDG 17 Partnerships for the Goals, SDG 3 Good Health and Well-being, and SDG 9 Industry, Innovation, and Infrastructure

The report, which upheld the criteria of transparency, consistency, confidence, and sincerity, emphasises the university's awareness of the impact of its activities on the environment and the socio-economic development of the regions it serves. The university prepares engineers, medical professionals, and agrarians for developing economies, conducts research on SDG-related topics, and provides ecological expertise and analytical support for projects initiated by industrial partners and government structures. However, it is impossible to advocate for SDGs without implementing sustainable development principles within the university itself. This includes internal relationships among staff and students, sustainable practices on campus, waste management, and resource consumption.

The content of the report inarguably holds great significance for the RUDN University community, offering a fresh perspective on the university. For instance, in 2021, the university managed to reduce electricity consumption in its Moscow campus by 12% compared to 2018, despite the introduction of new equipment and increased network load in dormitories during the period of distance learning. Electricity consumption decreased by 11%, and water consumption by 32% in the Moscow campus compared to 2019, highlighting a major accomplishment.

RUDN University's commitment to sustainability aligns with its mission to contribute to the global sustainable development agenda. By actively pursuing the SDGs and implementing sustainable practices within the university, RUDN sets an example for other educational institutions and demonstrates its leadership in fostering a more sustainable future.

RUDN University and SberObrazovanie Collaborate to Launch a Joint MA Programme

This year, those willing have the opportunity to enrol in the *Product Management* programme offered by RUDN University in collaboration with Sber's online platform Academy Eduitoria. The programme is open to students from all around the world, allowing them to pursue their education regardless of their location. The classes will commence in September 2023, and students can submit their applications today.

Product Management is an interdisciplinary field that combines IT, business analytics, and marketing. Students in this programme will gain competencies in managing the entire lifecycle of a product, from its creation and promotion to successful market launch.

The programme is offered by the Higher School of Industrial Policy and Entrepreneurship at RUDN University, led by Svetlana Murtuzalieva, a candidate of economic sciences and the Deputy Director of the Higher School of Industrial Policy and Entrepreneurship.

In the core curriculum of the MA programme, students will cover a set of fundamental disciplines. Additionally, there is an opportunity to choose optional courses. Upon selecting four or more additional subjects, graduates will receive not only the main diploma but also a professional retraining diploma from RUDN University.

Core Disciplines include Digital Transformation and New Business Models, Managerial Economics, Theory of Management, Modern Strategic Analysis, Professional Foreign Language, Product Marketing, Pricing and Monetisation Strategies, Product Management, Product Management Strategy, Sales Management and Promotion Channels in the Digital Environment, Product Competitiveness Management, and Computer and Digital Technologies in Product Management

Elective Disciplines include Customer Centricity and Design Elaboration, Managerial Psychology, Emotional Intelligence and Leadership, Business Communication and Negotiation, Flexible Leadership Skills, Applied Methods of Data Collection and Analysis, Presentation Techniques, UX Design, Business Process Management and Modelling, CRM and Sales Automation, Basics of Programming, Economics for Non-Economists, Advanced Excel, Python/SQL, and Entrepreneurship.

The programme is designed to be equally effective for students with technical and humanities backgrounds. Enrolling in the *Product Management* programme, its participants will gain access to all it takes to become sought-after professionals in the dynamic field of product management and ultimately propel their careers to new heights.

Institute for Scientific Communications Holds a Seminar on Scientific Publications at RUDN University

Russia is home to numerous distinguished scientists with a global reputation. It is crucial for them to share the secrets of successful publications, particularly with talented students and young researchers, in order to multiply the achievements of Russian science and strengthen its position on the global stage.

On June 14, 2023, the Institute for Scientific Communications hosted a scientific seminar on *Technologies for Preparing Articles in High-Impact Journals.* The seminar is organised by RUDN University, the Institute for Scientific Communications, and the Consortium for Sustainable Development and Technological Leadership. The event took place at the Faculty of Economics of RUDN University, with Dr Inna Andronova and Dr Yulia Konovalova serving as the moderators. The seminar addressed the following key topics.

Stakeholders in the promotion of scientific publications.

Mechanisms for promoting scientific journals.

Global university rankings (ARWU, QS, THE).

Publication activity rankings based on Scopus (SCImago) and Web of Science (Leiden ranking) data.

Challenges in promoting scientific publications.

Scientific systems in different countries.

Open access in science and public repositories.

Marketing strategies for promoting scientific journals.

This seminar fostered knowledge sharing and collaboration among researchers, enabling them to enhance their publication strategies and navigate the rapidly evolving landscape of scientific communication. Participants gained valuable insights into the promotion of scientific publications and learned about the latest advancements in the field.

By facilitating the exchange of expertise and experiences, this seminar at RUDN University strived to empower researchers to contribute to the advancement of science in Russia and strengthen the country's position in the global scientific community.

RUDN University Strengthens Russia-Africa Dialogue

On May 19, 2023, the second informal dialogue titled *Russia-Africa: Borderless Economic Education* took place at the Faculty of Economics of RUDN University. Participants offered ideas for Russian-African academic cooperation, joint scientific projects, and research endeavours.

'RUDN University is fostering scientific and academic collaboration with African and Asian countries. If people are unaware of where to start communicating with each other, if they have never been to Africa, then our task is to build this bridge so that we can engage in more frequent exchanges,' stated Dr Inna Andronova, Dean of the Faculty of Economics at RUDN University.

Foreign graduates of Russian universities at the meeting emphasised the demand for Russian education in African countries. Lubinda Haabazoka from Zambia stated that thousands of Zambians are currently receiving government scholarships to study in Russia.

'In Zambia, we have an English education system, and there is a lack of diverse economic specialties; only economic theory is available. Zambia needs to exchange experiences with Russian universities and invite Russian students to universities in the Zambian capital,' explained Dr Lubinda Haabazoka, Director of the Business School at the University of Zambia and graduate of the Rostov State Economic University.

N'Goran Koffi Celestin shared that RUDN University recently signed a cooperation agreement with the ETIC University, aiming to develop economic education in Africa.

'We are graduates of RUDN University, and today we need to work together. The education we received here is of high quality. We should be proud of it and use our knowledge to develop our own countries,' emphasised Dr N'Goran Koffi Celestin, Dean of the Faculty of Economics and Business Management at ETIC University in Cote d'Ivoire, and a graduate of the Faculty of Economics at RUDN University.

It is also important to involve students in the development of trade and economic relations between Russia and Africa. Kasonde Aaron Mweva, a student at the Faculty of Economics at RUDN University, presented the project of a Summer School in Zambia for RUDN students and the Business School of Zambia. Over two weeks, economists will collaborate on a joint project aimed at introducing competitive products produced in Zambia or Russia to the global market. The project's goal is to demonstrate that international trade contributes to the development of bilateral relations between Russia and Zambia.

'The Summer School is my first international project. It will allow young people from both countries to get to know each other, make friends, and learn about the cultures of our nations. The projects developed at the Summer School will be presented to representatives of the country's business community, potential investors for their implementation,' added Kasonde Aaron Mweva .

Participants of the meeting acknowledged that professional growth is a crucial stage in education. To promote Russian education abroad, it is necessary to organise internships and practical training for foreign students in domestic companies, support start-ups, projects, and scientific research.

TLC News

TLC Shows Remarkable Improvement in Scopus Ratings: A Milestone Achievement

Training, Language, and Culture has recently achieved a significant milestone by demonstrating substantial improvement in its Scopus ratings. This remarkable progress reflects the journal's commitment to excellence and its growing impact in the scholarly community.

In 2022, TLC's CiteScore rose to 1.1, signifying a substantial growth in citations received per document and indicating a higher degree of recognition and relevance of the published research within the academic community. The SJR (SCImago Journal Rank) elevated to 0.247, reflecting the journal's enhanced measured scientific influence. The SNIP (Source-Normalised Im-

pact per Paper) also experienced a substantial boost, reaching 0.741, highlighting the growing impact of the journal's articles within its specific research domain.

The improved ratings carry profound meaning and implications for both the journal and the scholarly community it serves. Firstly, the enhanced CiteScore demonstrates that the published articles in *Training, Language, and Culture* are gaining more visibility and attracting a greater number of citations. This signifies the growing recognition of the journal as a reliable and valuable source of scholarly information.

Secondly, the elevated SJR emphasises that the articles published are increasingly influential within the academic sphere. It indicates that the research findings and insights presented in *Training, Language, and Culture* are making a significant impact on the development and advancement of the respective fields of training, language studies, and cultural research.

Lastly, the improved SNIP underscores the contextual impact of the journal's articles. This metric considers the characteristics of the journal's field and measures the significance of its publications within that specific context. The heightened SNIP signifies that TLC's articles are contributing significantly to the scholarly discourse and the broader research landscape, making a valuable and relevant impact.

TLC's progress in its Scopus ratings reflects the unwavering dedication of its editorial team, reviewers, and contributors to delivering high-quality research and promoting academic excellence. For more information and to explore the latest research published in *Training, Language, and Culture,* visit our official website at rudn.tlcjournal.org and immerse yourself in the world of scholarly discoveries.

TLC Achieves K1 Category in Higher Attestation Commission (VAK) Index

We are delighted to announce that *Training, Language and Culture* has achieved the K1 category in the Higher Attestation Commission (VAK) Index. This recognition signifies the journal's exceptional quality and scholarly impact within the field.

In 2022, the Higher Attestation Commission (VAK) of Russia has officially introduced a classification system for scientific journals, including the implementation of quartiles akin to those used in the international scientometric database, Scopus. Under this new system, VAK journals are divided into quartiles, with 25% falling into the K1 category, 50% into K2, and the remaining 25% into K3. While not a strict quartile in the literal sense, these categories serve the same purpose and provide a comprehensive overview of a journal's standing within the VAK system.

The categorisation of journals relies on a set of both quantitative and qualitative indicators. These indicators encompass various aspects, including scientometric measures such as the Science Index, Hirsch-Index, Gini Index, average Hirsch Index of authors, and average number of article views per year. Additionally, qualitative indicators such as the quality and uniqueness of scientific articles, author authority, peer review quality, and the journal's organisational standards are also considered. While individual indicators may not provide a complete picture, considering them collectively eliminates any potential bias and provides a more objective categorisation. The introduction of the quartile system within the Higher Attestation Commission Index signifies a remarkable step towards transparency and standardisation in the categorisation of scientific journals in Russia, enabling researchers to navigate the publishing landscape effectively.