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Review research paper

FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT OF CRITICAL READING SKILLS IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN RUSSIA IN THE CONTEXT OF EMERGENCY REMOTE TEACHING

Ksenia Antonova, Nadezhda Tyrkheeva

St Petersburg University of Economics, Russia
St Petersburg University, Russia

Abstract. *The paper considers the role of formative assessment of critical reading skills within the framework of distance education in conditions of emergency remote teaching English as a foreign language. A model of descriptors for assessment of critical reading skills at 4 levels of language competence and 3 levels of university education has been developed and tested on undergraduate and postgraduate students majoring in Economics, IT and the Humanities in Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics. The model has been tested and conclusions have been made about the effectiveness of formative assessment as a supplementary/helpful tool for the development of critical reading skills in emergency learning conditions of COVID pandemic.*

Key words: *professionally-oriented learning, formative assessment, summative assessment, distance teaching and learning, critical reading, universal and professional competences, critical thinking*

1. INTRODUCTION

In the context of the sanitary and epidemiological crisis of 2020, when the entire world community is unable to participate in the traditional educational process, the education system is therefore everywhere forced to switch to a new format of education – distance (emergency remote) learning. It is a great pedagogical experiment and a challenge for modern education: the restriction of physical presence and direct interaction between the teacher and the student highlighted forms of distance learning previously little used in the framework of traditional education.

Traditionally, it is believed that distance learning is highly attractive (Anderson, 2008; Aston, 2002; McClintock, 1992) since it makes education accessible to those who, for whatever reason, cannot participate in the traditional face-to-face educational process. The general characteristics of distance learning (e-learning) are: separation of the learner and the teacher in space, communication mediated by information and communication technical teaching aids, a high proportion of independent learning and self-control on the students' part.

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Corresponding author: Ksenia Antonova. Saint-Petersburg University of Economics. 21, Sadovaya street, 191023 St Petersburg, Russia | E-mail: ksana-a@mail.ru

Being confronted with the emergence situation of online teaching, at the very start of the pandemic the majority of the teaching staff automatically transferred practices of face-to-face teaching and assessment online. Summative assessment results of the spring term showed that the direct move of the face-to-face form of education to distance learning cannot be effective and confirmed the hypothesis that distance education requires profound reconsideration of methodological, pedagogical and psychological approaches to instruction and assessment giving priority to formative assessment as the foundation for building up successful individual paradigm for each particular student. To verify the hypothesis the experiment of formative assessment implementation for evaluating critical reading skills was undertaken in Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics among undergraduate and postgraduate students of IT, Economics and Humanities.

During the experiment the question arose of working out criteria and an efficient model of descriptors for formative assessing critical reading skills in the context of a distance teaching EFL, about the search of effective assessment methods format.

We can say that the psychological and pedagogical technologies for assessing the key constructs of the competence-based approach in the professionally-oriented educational process are just beginning to be developed (Definition and Selection of Competencies: Theoretical and Conceptual Foundations, 2001: Definition and Selection of Competencies (DESECO). Theoretical and Conceptual Foundations. Strategy Paper, 2002; Safonova, 2004; Solovova, 2008). In this regard, it seems promising to introduce the experience of researchers on formative assessment for developing effective criteria and a model of descriptors for critical reading evaluation as a part of communicative competence through the experimental research, carried out in digital environment in Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics for teaching students majoring in Economics, IT, the Humanities critical reading of professionally-oriented texts.

2. Formative Assessment Theory

The introduction of the term formative assessment (formative evaluation) is ascribed to Scriven (1967), who used to say “formative evaluation… is typically conducted during the development or improvement of a program… and it is conducted, often more than once, for the in-house staff of the program with the intent to improve” (Scriven, 1991, pp. 168–169) unlike summative assessment or evaluation that “is conducted after completion of the program… and for the benefit of some external audience or decision-maker… (Scriven, 1991, p. 340). Since then the focal point of the discussion has been on differentiating formative and summative assessments. A profound insight into assessment theory was made by Benjamin S. Bloom who distinguished formative and summative assessments from the point of purpose, timing and generalisation. According to Bloom, “formative evaluation is … the use of systematic evaluation in the process of curriculum construction, teaching, and learning for the purpose of improving any of these three processes” (Bloom et al., 1971, p. 117), while the purpose of summative assessment was to grade and certify the learner. Various studies and meta analyses of research data over the past 20 years have developed Bloom’s theory and at different times elaborated on the issue of purpose, timing, generalisation as well as conditions for effective feedback and identified positive contribution to the teaching-learning process that efficient combination of formative and summative assessment are supposed to provide.(Wiliam 1998, 2018;

Bell and Cowie 2001; Brookhart 2008; Guskey 2007; McMillan 2007 and others) because the main purpose of the former is to aid learning while the main aim of the latter is to grade and certify the results.

In the COVID-19 pandemic era we have faced a unique situation when the ultimate purpose of education and the format of instruction are undergoing a profound reconsideration. The primary focus of education has been redirected on soft skill acquisition, whose main task is to develop the individual. Distance teaching that substituted in emergency face-to-face teaching also relies to a great extent of personal characteristics and capacities of the student. Thus, the combination of these two conditions makes us pay additional attention to formative assessment techniques and their regular implementation during the teaching-learning process in order to make the necessary corrections in individual pedagogical approach to a particular student. Quoting Bloom, "the main purpose of formative observations… is to determine the degree of mastery of a given learning task and to pinpoint the part of the task not mastered. … The purpose is not to grade or certify the learner; it is to help both the learner and the teacher focus upon the particular learning necessary for movement towards mastery". In our experimental research we strived to demonstrate that in conditions of distance learning formative evaluation is supposed to serve as a tool for collecting the evidence about how to improve the curriculum, methodology, as well as individual approach of the teacher and the student in order to avoid failure in summative assessment and make timely corrections of the mostly student-dependant online educational process. Prioritizing formative assessment should reduce the negative effect that is associated with emergency remote education.

We view formative assessment as a tool for teachers and students to shape their own educational route depending on the background, residual knowledge, academic capacities, psychological features, conditions of learning and format of instruction provision. Improving the final results of education is expected as an outcome of effective formative assessment imlementation especially with the new tasks set in front of the education and in the new educational environment.

The possible forms of formative assessments are correspondingly broad. Formative assessment information can be gleaned from information-gathering activities such as traditional classroom tests, but also from observations, oral questioning, class discussions, projects, portfolios, homework, performance assessments, group work with peer feedback, student self-assessment, and other sources.

3. Critical Reading as an Essential Part of Critical Thinking Acqusition and Criteria of its Formative Assessment

Critical reading is a necessary component for critical thinking and a practice that is crucial for success in academic and civic life (Carillo 2017; Horning 2007). It is conceived from active reading, requiring an activity on the part of the learner (Schwegler 2004). It refers to the awareness of the fact that all texts are crafted objects, written by people with particular dispositions or orientations to the information, regardless of how factual or neutral the products may be (Freebody and Luke 1990).

We regard “critical reading” as a reading for academic purposes and for academic success which is an ability to go beyond summary of main ideas to analysis, synthesis and evaluation, i.e. the ability to critically comprehend, evaluate, interpret what has been read and apply the results obtained to solve a given problem.

The non-critical reader makes sense of the presentation as a sequence of thoughts, understands the information, ideas, and opinions stated within the text from sentence to sentence, paragraph to paragraph, while the critical reader makes an analytical activity, which is a non-linear process: he reads a text to identify patterns of elements – information, values, assumptions, and language usage – throughout the discussion. It is only when readers struggle with texts that they are likely to become aware of different factors affecting comprehension.

We think that formative assessment can be referred to as a tool that a student needs to be shown how to read more effectively and be explained about their ongoing development as critical readers.

Peter Afflerbach states that effective reading programs combine formative and summative assessment (Afflerbach 2013). Formative assessment is the one that provides up-to-date and detailed information about students’ learning in relation to benchmarks. Such assessment is used to help teachers shape or form understanding of students’ reading development and training across lessons, units, marking periods, or academic years. We are sure that in the context of emergency remote teaching it is the formative assessment that provides the valid information about the effectiveness of educational process and students’ development.

The system of formative assessment of critical thinking skills in reading will be based on the following provisions:

Critical thinking skills in reading:

- is the highest level of development of reading skills;
- is the basis for the formation of the personality of the reader, which in professional life means the ability to study all life;
- acquire special relevance in the context of the information boom, characterized by a sharp increase in information saturation;
- are individual in nature, which means that the reader interprets the author's ideas, guided by his critical point of view.
- are formed sequentially gradually and are based on other types of reading (search, familiarization, study) and correlate with the level of language proficiency from B1 to C2.

Karen Manarin et al. identify the following characteristics of critical reading for academic purposes:

- identifying patterns of textual elements;
- distinguishing between the main and subordinate ideas;
- evaluating credibility;
- making judgments about how the text is argued;
- making relevant inferences about the text (Manarin et al. 2016).

Thus, we proposed a classification of critical reading skills from B1 to C2 that scaffold student reading experiences and lead them through the various stages of our critical approach.

Table 1 Critical reading components and its criteria

Level	Critical reading components and its criteria
criterion 1: identifying patterns of textual elements	
B1	- can name contexts and key themes; - can identify the main ideas and rephrase them in their own words.
B2	- can obtain information, ideas and opinions from highly specialized sources within their field; - can understand specialized articles outside their field, provided they can use a dictionary occasionally to confirm their interpretation of terminology.
C1	- can understand in detail a wide range of lengthy, complex texts likely to be encountered in professional or academic life, identifying finer points of detail including attitudes and implied as well as stated opinions.
C2	- can understand logical, causal, temporal or semantic relationships in order to link parts of the text to one another.
criterion 2: distinguishing between the main and subordinate ideas	
B1	▪ can recognize logic connections; ▪ can identify connections and relationships between the content elements if these are explicitly referred to in the given text; ▪ can summarize the text using these elements.
B2	▪ can identify structural elements of texts and use their functions to understand the text as a whole; ▪ can identify the main conclusions in specialized articles within and outside their field.
C1	▪ can identify structural elements of lengthy, complex texts likely to be encountered in professional or academic life and use their functions to understand the text as a whole; ▪ can identify the main conclusions of these texts; ▪ can summarize lengthy, complex texts.
C2	▪ - can summarize lengthy, complex texts likely to be encountered in professional or academic life and recognize their implications
criterion 3: evaluating credibility	
B1	▪ can question assumptions.
B2	▪ can focus on connections to disciplines or across disciplines; ▪ can outline an issue or a problem clearly, speculating about causes or consequences, and weighing advantages and disadvantages of different approaches.
C1	▪ can master the readers' epistemic skills; ▪ can identify unstated assumptions within lengthy, complex texts likely to be encountered in professional or academic life; ▪ knows that authors write for different purposes, that texts can be biased, and that not everything in print is necessarily "true"; ▪ - considers potential implications of the abovementioned features.
C2	▪ - can sift through various forms of rhetoric.

Level	Critical reading components and its criteria
criterion 4: making judgments about how the text is argued	
B1	▪ can understand simple “for” and “against” argu- ments on a particular issue.
B2	▪ can recognize the line of argument in the treatment of the issue presented, though not necessarily in detail; ▪ can understand the information that is implied, but not explicitly stated in a text.
C1	▪ can distinguish separate elements of an argument (assertion, reason, example, conclusion) in the text; ▪ can develop a convincing, logical argument (thesis, justification, exemplification, conclusion).
C2	▪ can evaluate ▪ arguments and their assumptions in the light of existing conditions; ▪ can reason about problems and issues on the basis of lengthy, complex texts likely to be encountered in professional or academic life.
criterion 5: making relevant inferences about the text	
B1	▪ can connect the material to other experiences and ideas, whether social, or personal.
B2	▪ can summarize a wide range of factual and imaginative texts, commenting on and discussing contrasting points of view and the main themes.
C1	▪ can connect the material to other experiences and ideas, whether academic, social, or personal.
C2	▪ can summarize information from different sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation of the overall results; ▪ can use the text for personal self-reflection.

4. Feedback and Outcomes of Formative Assessment of Critical Reading in Distance Learning

Consideration of formative assessment within the framework of distance learning causes a change in vectors, namely, strengthening independent work and responsibility of students for their learning outcomes, since it is formative assessment that makes it possible to evaluate the learning process in an educational digital environment, taking into account the possibility of building a personal individual route of education / self-education.

The main feature of formative assessment is regular, not evaluating, but correcting feedback: the results of the controlling event, as an indicator of the student’s performance, are extracted, interpreted and lead to the action which, in its turn, leads to optimization (improvement) of the learning process

As the assessment expert Dylan Wiliam writes in *Embedded Formative Assessment, Second Edition*, when educators integrate formative assessment practices into teachers’ minute-to-minute and day-by-day classroom activities, substantial increases in student achievement — roughly between 50 to 70 % increase in the speed of learning— are possible (Wiliam 2018).

The methodological potential of formative assessment is fully realized within the framework of considering the continuity of education: it is formative assessment that will help the teacher and the student to form an effective pathway and smooth out irregularities caused by different educational routes of students during the transition from one stage to another in the higher education system (from undergraduate to graduate school).

It is often valuable to develop learning intentions jointly with students – a process that is sometimes called co-construction. Thus students become owners of their own learning and teachers' collaborating on learning intentions and success criteria helps to ensure that all students in the grade are learning the same thing regardless of the teacher they have.

It seems obvious that students' feedback about their work should help them learn, but it turns out that providing effective feedback is far more difficult than it appears. There are different types of feedback from praise or reprimand to grades or scores. These days teachers can use engineering principles to test the efficiency of their feedback, typical student reactions to feedback, how feedback functions formatively, and principles of effective feedback.

Constructive feedback, as Embedded Formative Assessment defines it, includes specific comments on errors, suggestions to the students about how to improve, and at least one positive remark. Feedback has the power to improve emergency remote learning (Wiliam 2018).

Generally, a student may respond in the one of the following four ways when the feedback indicates that current performance falls short of the goal. 1. The student may change the goal. 2. The student may abandon the goal altogether, which is seen as the learned helplessness of students who face repeated indications that they fall short. 3. The student may reject the feedback. This is quite common in workplace settings when, for example, someone who feels he contributes well beyond what was expected gets a neutral evaluation from a supervisor. 4. The student may change behavior so as to increase performance to match the goal, which is presumably the response the person giving feedback intends.

In most cases ineffective assessment methods are being used that are not capable of giving meaningful feedback regarding each student. Thus, it is not possible to construct a separate learning path for each student in order to successfully complete the learning objectives.

5. Methodology

5.1. Participants

There were 135 participants in the study (74 Females). 6 study groups were formed by sample random sampling consisting of 20-25 learners each. They were students enrolled on Bachelor (2 groups), Master (2 groups) and Post graduate (2 groups) programs in one higher education institution (University) in Russia.

We applied the formative assessment of critical reading at three levels of education throughout spring and autumn semesters of 2020. Even though the goals and requirements for each level were different, they all aimed to promote the formative assessment of critical reading.

All the participants majored in different fields and were taught by the same teacher.

5.2. Materials

In spring 2020

In the context of emergency remote teaching traditional face-to-face teaching methods and teaching materials were used but they were communicated to the groups via information and communication technical teaching aids, in particular by Moodle. Assessment of critical reading skills at three levels of education (bachelor's, master's, postgraduate studies) were performed during the synchronous courses via video conferencing. At the end of the semester all the students passed an exam which included a task for checking critical reading skills according to the criteria mentioned in Table 1, which comprised of the following assessment interview questions: How does this text relate to your research question? • How does this text relate to your experiences? • How does this text relate to other sources that you have read? • Do you agree or disagree with the main idea of the text? • Does this text make you think about your topic differently than you did before?

We used qualitative methods to analyze various types of data: 1) responses to a task of critical reading comprehension and translation of professionally-oriented texts; 2) five semi-structured interviews focused on the reading task.

In autumn 2020

The participants had the same task activities during of remote teaching and were proposed to read texts according to the level of their language competence and their scientific field. At the same time the formative assessment was organized asynchronously. The students fulfilled tasks about the text and were given the feedback via the computer system Moodle. The computer-mediated feedback was conceived as a personal process-oriented feedback (i.e. feedback on the process and its results of each student). We used two types of feedback: “correct answer” feedback and the “explanation” feedback.

6. Results

The aim of the present research was to investigate beneficial effect of formative assessment on acquiring critical reading skills within the framework of emergency remote learning. Agreeing with the majority of scholars about technical, methodological and psychological peculiarities of on-line teaching-learning process we drew a special attention to the type of assessment and prioritized it among the key factors of the students’ success in developing skills of critical reading professionally-oriented texts.

Fig. 1 shows that most students were able to comprehend a professionally-oriented text at a minimal benchmark level. Most students were able to understand the text explicitly well enough to identify information and to make at least some inferences about context. The findings showed that most of the students failed to understand the text critically and that this was due mainly to the lack of awareness of critical reading skills and inefficient use of critical reading strategies during the remote classes. Thus, we observe that students demonstrated very low level of performing critical reading skills

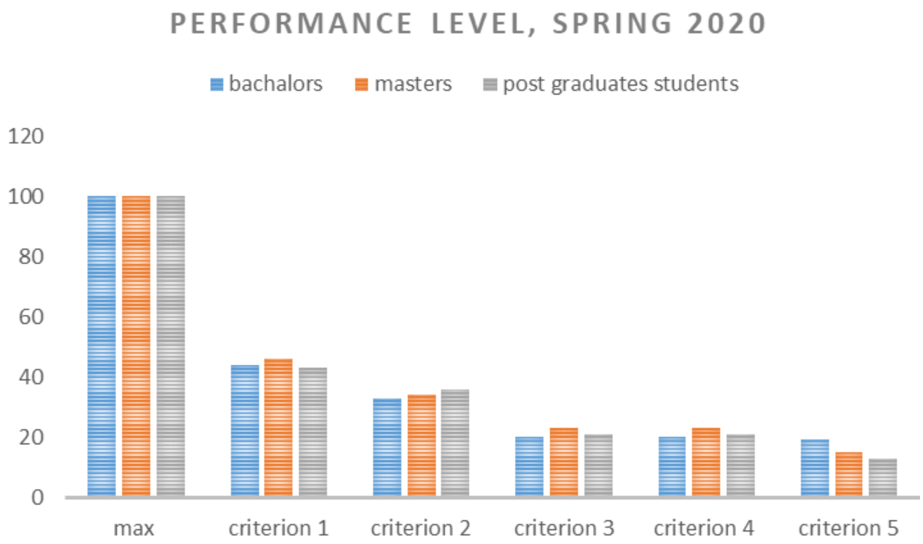

Fig. 1 Performance level, spring 2020

Fig. 2 shows the result of teaching critical reading followed by the formative assessment of critical reading. The system of formative assessment plus feedback had a statistically significant positive effect on critical reading performance in comparison with traditional reading methods and no feedback. Thus, we observe that students demonstrated very different level of performing critical reading skills.

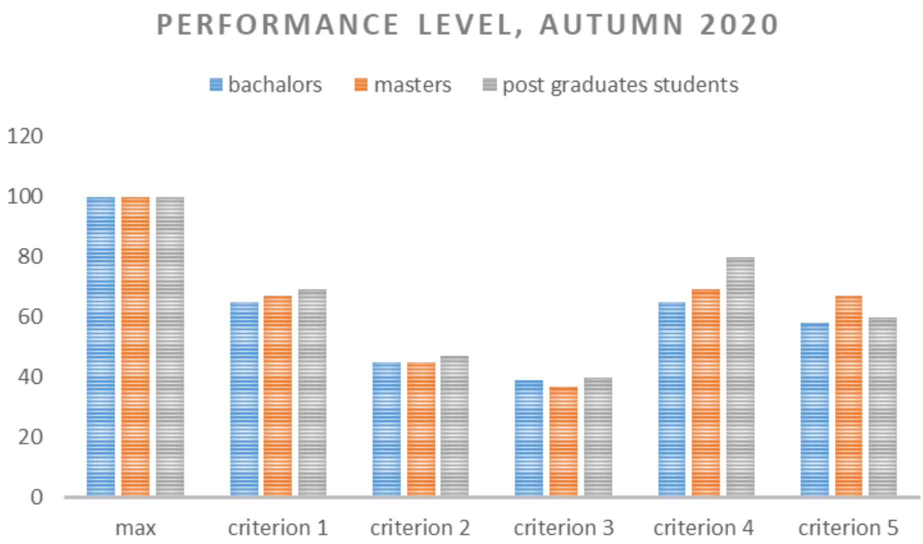

Fig. 2 Performance level, autumn 2020

We have to admit that effectiveness of different types of feedback remained beyond the scope of this study. We will continue to study the impact of positive feedback on formative assessment effectiveness.

7. Discussion

The learning outcomes showed that when reading professionally-oriented texts, students faced different difficulties caused by insufficient (low) formation of critical reading skills:

- identifying patterns of textual elements;
- distinguishing between the main and subordinate ideas;
- evaluating credibility;
- making judgments about how the text is argued;
- making relevant inferences about the text.

Students were not aware of the importance of critical reading or of the difficulties of this activity.

Not all the students identified their problems of literal comprehension of concepts even those who used multiple online resources, such as monolingual dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, initial and abbreviation dictionaries, linguistic forums.

The most important differences among the students specially remained on the strategies used to detect those comprehension problems of identifying patterns of textual elements; distinguishing between the main and subordinate ideas; evaluating credibility. Some students could not identify the main ideas and rephrase them in their own words as well as they couldn't understand logical, causal, temporal or semantic relationships in order to link parts of the text to one another.

Some students did not check whether their interpretations were correct; this fact made them select wrong / contradictory answers

Some students did not identify the text ideology and did not know what strategies could be used to do so. As a result, problems regarding literal comprehension occurred.

During the interviews the students ignored or had difficulties explaining the actions they performed to find, select and evaluate the text information. On the whole, the students showed different strategies and levels of awareness regarding the importance of evaluating information.

Due to the emergency of transition on-line the teacher simply transferred the traditional forms of oral feedback into distance format, which led to the following problem: the oral feedback sometimes was not really effective for the students because many students did not retain what had been said by the teacher. Consequently, the feedback could not be used by the students for improvement of their study as they simply forgot what the feedback was about. Moreover, the interviews indicated that the feedback given to the students was merely about how to improve their learning strategy to get a high score in final exam. In order to eliminate these difficulties, in the framework of the experiment the teacher offered various types of feedback (oral, written, self-assessment, peer-check), which appeared efficient in the subsequent interviews with the students.

Taking into account everything mentioned above, formative assessment administration proves to be not only useful to find out the students' problems in learning, but it is also essential for the teachers themselves to improve their teaching styles so that learning activities can become more effective in enhancing the students' knowledge and skills. In this study since the emphasis was on learning rather than teaching, all courses were conducted by one teacher. Therefore, this does not remove the issue of professional training of teachers for the introduction and use of assessment in the educational process.

8. Conclusion

The results of this study provide support for the use of formative assessment for critical reading. The participants who were surveyed by means of formative assessment and received corrective feedback solved problems more effectively at the end of autumn semester 2020 than in spring 2020. We formulated the two positive statements surrounding the formative assessment of critical reading skills: formative assessment being assessment for learning provides a sense of lifelong learning; this form of feedback had a statistically significant effect on participants' performance.

Therefore, it is thought that the formative assessment can increase and develop the critical reading skills. Formative assessment should be given more attention to in online teaching.

Activities should be prepared in accordance with the principles of formative assessment and following the strategies of FA

We believe that our framework incorporating the five critical reading elements can help students become active readers and, as a result, active learners.

We hope that the results of this research will contribute to the development of education and shed light on the challenges of the new epoch and ways of dealing with them.

As the discussion is now circling around the question if it will ever be possible to do without summative assessment at all because of its unfavorable psychological impact on the students especially during the exams and other testing procedures. The next step in the development of the assessment issue may consist in determining efficient formative-summative assessment ration in conditions of distance and blended teaching as well as working out criteria for formative assessment of other professional communication skills apart from critical reading like academic and business presentation, writing a scientific paper, abstract and annotation including correspondence in various types of professional networks.

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Review research paper

INSTITUTIONAL STRATEGIES TO INCREASE EMI QUANTITY AND QUALITY IN RUSSIAN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Elena Belyaeva, Michael Freese

St Petersburg State University (SPSU), Faculty of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Russia

Abstract. *The article starts by examining the reasons behind the relatively recent growth of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in Russian higher education institutions, from internationalization to more altruistic motives. While internationalization in Russia has recently been facilitated through a top-down approach at a national level, the quantity and quality of courses and programs taught in English are the responsibility of Russian universities and are primarily managed at an institutional level. Russian higher education institutions (HEIs) have been employing several strategies such as international recruiting, long-term university partnerships and faculty development. The authors take a closer look at each strategy, assessing its strengths and weaknesses, and illustrating it with some examples. Comparative analysis of the strategies under scrutiny allows to highlight more effective ones which are likely to positively impact the quantity and quality of EMI in Russian higher education in the years to come.*

Key words: *English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), faculty development, internationalization, Russian higher education, institutional strategies, quality management*

1. Driving Forces behind EMI Growth in Russia

One of the recent systematic reviews of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in higher education (HE) that assessed the range and quality of research into EMI across all education stages, regions and countries (Macaro et al. 2018) indicates that EMI has been widely researched for the past two decades, whereas in Russian HE EMI has not yet been investigated on a large scale. Thus, the following discussion cannot claim to be research driven, but offers an overview of the current local practice.

Professional discourse on English used in HE across the globe has been using several acronymic terms such as English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Content and Language Learning (CLIL), Integrated Language and Content in Higher Education (ILCHE) and English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI). Schmidt-Unterberger in her recent article (Schmidt-Unterberger, 2018) proposed the 'English-medium Paradigm,' or a framework for all the instructional types found in HE. Using the suggested paradigm as a reference point, it may be argued that in Russian Higher Education

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Corresponding author: St Petersburg University (SPSU), Faculty of Liberal Arts and Sciences, 58–60 Galernaya Street, St. Petersburg, 190000, Russia | E-mail: lena.belyaeva@gmail.com

Institutions (HEIs) EAP and ESP belong to the domain of English language as a subject in the HE curriculum. CLIL, more characteristic of a secondary sector, and ILCHE, potentially relevant for the tertiary sector, require the involvement of language specialists in syllabus design, course delivery and team teaching (Gustafsson & Jacobs, 2013), which would require resources beyond most Russian HEIs' budgets. Due to the financial burden, ILCHE is currently non-existent in Russia. We, therefore, argue that English as a Medium of Instruction is being currently implemented in Russian HEIs and has the potential to become the dominant term to embrace most of the English-taught courses and degree programs. In this paper, EMI will refer to the teaching of a university subject or discipline through the medium of the English language where English is not the national language (Dearden, 2015).

In Russian HE the rise of EMI is apparent and is generally an integral part and a consequence of HE internationalization as a global trend (Coleman 2006; Hultgren 2014, Macaro at al. 2018). Russian researchers appear to be pragmatic and tend to recognize opportunities brought by English particularly in the domain of publications. The perception of Russian students and faculty about English as a language of education, research and job opportunities is also pushing HEIs towards EMI at the micro level which is clearly a bottom-up movement manifested through academics learning English, obtaining international qualifications in English, thus becoming more competitive on the job market (Lanvers & Hultgren 2018).

While the reasons behind EMI growth in higher education vary depending on the country, the general move towards EMI is global (Dearden 2015; Watcher & Maiworm 2014; Hultgren 2018; Fenton-Smith, Humphries & Wilkinshaw 2017), and Russia is not an exception. Unlike Chinese and Japanese HEIs which claim to expand EMI for altruistic motives such as to contribute to the improvement of the developing world by promoting high-level education or gaining access to cutting-edge knowledge (Galloway 2017), Russian HEIs' motives are far from altruistic: revenue-generation and raising their positions in rankings, through attracting a larger number of international students and faculty. Salmi in his research paper "Road to Academic Excellence" (2011) suggests the two factors which can facilitate short term growth at any university: firstly, by strengthening the university teaching staff through attracting the ex-patriots back, and, secondly, by introducing English as a medium of instruction (Frumin and Salmi, 2013).

Russian universities have recently been concentrated on increasing their positions in rankings. Therefore, Russian HEIs have been trying hard to expand the number of international students and faculty, the number of international research projects and collaborations, the number of courses and programs taught in English and the amount of English-language research published in high impact international journals. Another important reason is revenue generation. Therefore, Russian HEIs need to offer courses taught in English to encourage academic exchange and attract academic mobility students from all over the world in addition to offering bachelor and master programs taught in English to attract fee-paying international students. Hence, the most powerful contextual factor driving the growth of EMI courses in Russian HEIs is its direct positive impact on raising their positions in world university rankings to make Russian higher education more competitive on the world education arena. Primarily due to this positive aspect – attracting a larger number of international students – Russian universities have been voluntarily expanding EMI.

The expansion of EMI at an institutional level is also being encouraged by university management policy makers and stakeholders. However, it must be mentioned that some strategic decisions at the university level appear to be leading to 'Englishization', but in fact, none of these decisions have anything to do with English, rather they promote English indirectly, like in some other European contexts (Saarinen and Nikula 2012). Likewise, the development of EMI in Russian HEIs may be considered a consequence of the internationalization and, simultaneously, a sign of a top-down approach at the national level.

Russia's student population may not appear very international compared to other European countries, such as UK, Germany and France, and the OECD 2020 report indicated that Russia is not on the list among the key players on the international educational landscape. In 2018, Russia hosted only 4% of international foreign students (OECD. Stat). International student mobility has been expanding quite consistently in the past twenty years. In the Russian Federation, the share of foreign or international students increased from 3% in 2014 to 4% in 2018. Meanwhile 1% of Russian tertiary students are enrolled abroad compared to 2% in total across OECD countries. Among students leaving the Russian Federation to study, the most popular destination is Germany (OECD Education at a Glance, 2020).

International student mobility may be affected by political stability, government relations or tensions between countries. Even obtaining student visas might be difficult for the third world countries. In addition, the economic factor may also negatively affect international student mobility and international student admissions as developing countries have an inadequate budget and insufficient resources. In 2017, Russia's share of international, or foreign students at a tertiary level of education, was 4% against the 6% OECD average which is quite impressive, on the one hand. On the other hand, if we consider Russia's share of international or foreign students by education level, we will see dramatic differences at three educational levels: Russia's share of international or foreign students was 5% for bachelor's or equivalent compared to the 4% OECD average; 7% for master's or equivalent compared to an average of 13% for OECD which is twice as small; 4% for doctoral or equivalent compared to 22% for the OECD average which is 3 times as small.

For example, the Higher School of Economics University (HSE) in Moscow offered 17 English-language master's programs, with a total enrolment of 568 students. "HSE has a number of academic mobility programs, under which 360 foreign nationals came to the university in 2015 for a period of at least a month, the top sending countries being Germany, South Korea, USA, China and the UK. The most popular are one-semester programs, including English-based courses and intensive Russian language courses" (Nefedova 2017, 10)

The overall numbers of international students applying to Russian universities from the west are still quite low for numerous reasons: uncertainty in terms of what to expect and a lack of updated information, climatic conditions, and different culture, to name a few. Programs and courses taught in English should also be actively promoted among Russian students. More domestic students should be willing to switch to English as it will speed up their social and economic mobility and it will improve their job prospects making them more competitive on the global job market. Russian HEIs will benefit from a truly international classroom with a truly international cohort of students as an important part of internationalization. EMI education enhances English language and intercultural skills and the competencies of Russian students as well as faculty. An international classroom will make interaction in English meaningful. Moreover, it will resolve the complaint of international students who move to Russia hoping to join regular courses in English and to study alongside their Russian peers. As it stands now in most programs, foreign students who are not focused on the Russian language and Russian studies are placed in a tailor-made program, designed specifically for international students, and interact only with other foreigners. “Russian universities need to start offering more English taught programs. From the start, Russian students should be actively encouraged to enroll in them as well. The programs should be well promoted and visible on the latest digital media; foreign alumni should be used as ambassadors for the universities” (Verschoor 2017: 6). There is a considerable opportunity to increase the educational experience at Russian universities by having programs that encourage a truly ‘international’ classroom comprised of Russian and foreign students.

The scope and quality of English-taught programs in Russia seem to hold many potential international students back. Therefore, Russian universities should not only increase the quantity of English taught programs but also improve the quality of teaching in English. Considering the current situation and the ambitions of Russian universities, this paper discusses the currently available ways and strategies of improving the quality of university EMI teaching employed by Russian HEIs. To increase the quantity and the quality of EMI teaching Russian HEIs have been using the following strategies: international recruiting, long-term educational partnerships, and professional development programs.

2. EMI Faculty Development: Standing on the Shoulders of Others

In the process of implementing EMI at an institutional level, Russian academics and policy makers share some of the concerns widely debated in European higher education (Williams 2015, Shohamy 2012, Dearden and Macaro 2016). Research on Russian academics’ attitudes and concerns indicated that the most widely shared concern of Russian-speaking EMI teachers is the insufficient, regarding content complexity, language level of English among the students admitted to EMI courses (Belyaeva & Kuznetsova 2018). Other concerns include the required linguistic proficiency of the EMI teachers, their teaching competence in English, assessment validity of academic performance and the fundamental rational of EMI teaching in the absence of international students or including Russian-speaking international students.

The higher education EMI scenario all over the world is currently extremely diversified due to many reasons. Even in Russia the higher education landscape is quite heterogeneous due to a certain level of autonomy of Russian HEIs and independence of university faculties. However, many scholars and researchers have emphasized the need for EMI training for university teachers and lecturers in various contexts, where English-taught courses in universities are delivered by faculty, who are not English language teachers, to non-native English-speaking students.

EMI teacher training research has been aimed at establishing the ultimate goals for EMI teachers and, thus, discovering the most relevant content of EMI training. In general, EMI training focuses on two primary objectives: to improve English language competence and to adopt a wider range of teaching methodologies. Developing intercultural sensitivity and competence is oftentimes suggested as an additional goal.

The linguistic competence of EMI teachers is a widely shared concern, particularly in Southern and Eastern Europe and Asia. Unlike many outer circle countries (Kachru, 1992), where English has a better-established presence in the educational system often introduced at the primary level, Russia belongs to the expanding circle of countries where English has traditionally been a widely taught foreign language. English has always had a prominent role among other foreign languages taught at secondary schools, followed by German, French, Spanish and, recently, Chinese. (Russian State Exam statistics, 2020).

English is the compulsory foreign language at all levels of education in Russia and yet English language proficiency is ranked low. In the English Proficiency Index (EF EPI 2020), Russia scored 52 (low proficiency), placing it 38 out of the 80 countries in the world where people were tested. However, it ranked 24 out of 27 in Europe. English skills continue to lag in Russia like in other countries on the periphery of the European continent. Lagging far behind the Scandinavian countries, Germany, Austria and some other European countries with the highest level of English, Russia ranks on par with Italy, Spain, Albania and Turkey.

Despite English being one of the most widely taught foreign languages in Russia and despite its critical role in publications, technology, and Academia in the 21st century, the linguistic competence in English is still inadequate among university teachers. The growth of EMI has caught the attention of content teachers and administrative authorities due to its impact on learning outcomes. Issues such as incorporating adequate teaching techniques, course materials, interdisciplinary collaboration, teacher training and assessment have been raised among Russian EMI practitioners. Regardless of the trend, controversial issues in conducting EMI in Russian universities have also resulted in debate and scepticism. Questions such as university content teachers' varying English proficiency levels as well as their readiness for EMI remains unanswered.

Another alarming issue that is still widely shared among Russian university teachers is the belief that to switch to EMI teaching they need to translate their lectures into English. To make them aware of the fact that translating their lecture into another language is not sufficient may be a serious challenge for an EMI training program as it requires working on attitudes. EMI requires more than merely translating content and delivering it. It involves teaching subject matter, supporting students learning this subject matter through English, often in classes with students from diverse lingua-cultural and educational backgrounds. Therefore, faculty may also need training in intercultural communication.

Well-designed faculty training is instrumental in determining the success of an EMI program. However, as Dearden (2015) points out, there are few pedagogical guidelines for effective EMI teaching and learning: there is little or no EMI content in initial teacher education (teacher preparation) program and continuing professional development (in-service) courses, which is concerning given the rapidly growing number of EMI programs worldwide. EMI presents a challenge of introducing faculty to the western style of higher education teaching with which they may not be familiar.

Few researchers have been investigating the content of EMI faculty development and providing recommendations to program designers of EMI training program. In Klassen's doctoral dissertation (2001), she recommends working on speech clarity, pronunciation, accent and vocabulary. According to Fortanet-Gomez (2010), EMI faculty should be trained in self-reflection on their pedagogic approach, metacognitive skills, assessment, lexis, and oral presentation. According to Dafoux Milne (2011), EMI lecturers should be trained to independently deal with language issues.

EMI local faculty needs should be examined. Current EMI needs analysis research provides valuable but limited insights for EMI training program design. For example, some Spanish teachers (Martín del Pozo, 2017) reveal that methodological concerns are of secondary importance after language up skilling. It has yet to be discovered what country-specific needs analysis findings may indicate, however, they are quite informative and should feed into the process of EMI teacher training program design.

3. Increasing EMI Quality Teaching in Russian HEIs through International recruiting

To increase the number of courses taught in English, Russian HEIs need faculty who are both capable and willing to teach their disciplines in English. One obvious strategy is the so-called “international recruiting”. To most western universities this is a non-existent notion as the academic market is open to everyone. However, in Russia and, possibly, in some Eastern-European countries and countries of the FSU (former Soviet Union), establishing the practice of “international recruiting” has been both a priority and a challenge. Russian Academia was isolated for a long time and during this period most international scholars worked in Russian universities through foreign agencies such as the British Council, Fulbright programs, personal connections, or other one-off arrangements, none of which were sustainable or large scale.

Although Russian HE has long been insular, the HE policies of the last decade have been seriously oriented at breaking this isolation and adopting the international standards. Recent HE initiatives such as Project 5 – 100 (established in 2013) and Export Education (approved in 2017) encouraged Russian HEIs to attract international talent. 21 Russian universities’ (members of Project 5 – 100) KPIs include increasing the numbers of international students, courses and programs in English and international partnerships with foreign scholars and universities.

The Higher School of Economics University (HSE) was among the first Russian universities to successfully start recruiting international faculty back in 2007 using three main tracks: tenure-track positions, postdoctoral fellowships, and part-time positions for senior academics. “Currently there are 179 internationally recruited researchers working at HSE: 90 tenure-track faculty members, 18 faculty members holding tenured position, 47 postdocs and 24 senior researchers working part-time. However, the overall number of international academic staff at HSE is at least twice that, since many of them are invited to work at HSE international labs as lead researchers and some of them were recruited through standard procedures for non-tenure-track contracts.” (Radaev 2019, 12). Another success story of international recruiting is the School of Advanced Studies (SAS) at the University of Tyumen (Siberia) which joined Project 5 – 100 in 2015. SAS “built its current permanent faculty body where ¾ of the faculty, representing 7 nationalities, hold a PhD from a university in the top-100 of THE or QS general university rankings” (Shcherbenok 2019, 15).

Since the leading Russian universities intend to become part of global Academia, they have been greatly involved in a worldwide search for the best scholars. HSE University and SAS at the Tyumen university have convincingly demonstrated success in attracting international faculty through academic mobility and recruitment strategies. However, it is explicitly stated that hiring faculty members and postdocs internationally is primarily aimed at enhancing research collaboration and building long lasting research teams, rather than teaching. Hence, the selection criteria favour research skills and experience over teaching competence and expertise. Similarly, international experts are often attracted by an opportunity to join exciting research projects, to open new research laboratories and to work in research-intensive HEIs. Perhaps, teaching at a Russian university would not be their top priority in seeking a job opportunity in Russia. And yet international experts who have been part of our academic community, even for a while, have made their contribution to teaching our students and exposing them to a different teaching style and different philosophy behind teaching. This by no means can be categorised as teacher training, but the exposure to different ways and traditions of western university teaching is paramount in providing Russian faculty with opportunities to learn from their foreign colleagues, even if informally through observations, sharing and professional exchange.

There is still much work to be done to establish a sustainable institution of international recruiting and to improve faculty retainment through standardising immigration procedures and residency visas. International faculty may be hesitant to stay long term and prefer employment elsewhere due to their lack of Russian language, family/spousal support, and the absence of an English-speaking academic community. Therefore, there is a need to continue the work on national and institutional policies as well as monetary and non-monetary incentives to attract and retain international faculty. Many Russian universities unfortunately do not have a well-established reputation and history, nor do they have high positions in world rankings, and finally they may not have the resources required to attract foreign experts. Hence, most international faculty tend to concentrate either in the leading Russian HEIs with additional funding from the Russian government or in a handful of universities in Moscow and St Petersburg, being generally unwilling to move elsewhere across the country.

Recruiting international faculty as a strategy may offer certain valuable opportunities for further development of EMI in Russian HEIs, but at the same time it has serious risks and will likely remain in the position of a contributor to the EMI quality in Russian HEIs. This strategy does offer a “quick fix” solution with a foreign university professor stepping into the university classroom with fluent international English, English language subject specific terminology and professional jargon together with western approaches to university teaching and interacting with students. However attractive it may seem, increasing the number of international faculty is a short-term solution with certain risks and sustainability issues, but it does contribute to the quality of teaching and positively impacts students and local faculty.

4. Increasing EMI Quality Teaching in Russian HEIs through Long-Term Partnerships

In 1999 the Bologna Process established the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and provided a framework for international higher education cooperation among universities from its 48 participating countries. It has played an important role in facilitating the dissemination of experience between universities and in establishing various practices of cooperation in international higher education. Double degree programs that allow students to obtain two degrees, one from a partner university in a different country, exemplify such practices. As a neighbouring country, Russia has been building the necessary trust for successful learning mobility, cross-border academic cooperation and the mutual recognition of qualifications and learning periods abroad completed at other universities outside Russia.

In 2008 multiple universities from Russia and other countries established the Network University of the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO). Over the last few years, university cooperation between the BRICS countries has been expanding rapidly. With the BRICS Network University, BRICS University League and other similar educational forums, Russia is attempting to put itself at the center of a changing academic world, gaining access to the intellectual resources of the countries that together make up 40% of the world’s population.

The launch of the Bologna Process, with the aim of creating the EHEA, had a significant impact on the post-Soviet HE landscape. Eleven countries of the region joined the process and, consequently, have been reforming their HE systems to comply with the common principles. Subsequent Russian-led initiatives can be considered a “Eurasian” sub-region of higher education. These have been based on European principles, but take into account important features of post-Soviet countries. “Pursuing the same goal as the EU — to become one of the world leaders in the global education market — Russia sees the Bologna Process as a means of improving its competitiveness. At the same time, dissatisfied with its “periphery” position in the EHEA, Russia launched an Excellence Program and spearheaded alternative regional projects under its leadership” (Leskina 2019, 12). Regardless of the limited scope and funding, the SCO and Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) network universities marked an important milestone by engaging universities in regional cooperation and supplementing intergovernmental processes. However, they include mainly elite universities based in capital cities, and thus, represent only a limited number of stakeholders. Russian universities have been attempting to take the lead in fostering cooperation with Eurasian Economic Union (EAEU) universities. For example, in 2016 Tomsk State University launched a joint Master’s program with Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan on Eurasian integration to train students to work in EAEU institutions.

Finland, as one of Russia’s closest European neighbors, and Russia have been enjoying fruitful cooperation including various internationalization activities between universities on both sides of the border. “Finland-Russia Higher Education Cooperation EDUneighbours investigated Finnish-Russian double degrees at the graduate level, found five Finnish universities implemented 18 master’s programs announced with 23 Russian partners between 2014 and 2017 and selected seven double degrees with ten Russian partner universities from Northwest Russia and Moscow. […] These activities led to the launch of double degrees under Finnish government funding for regional initiatives such as the Finnish-Russian Cross-Border University and the Finnish-Russian Student and Teacher Exchange” (Shenderova 2019, 21).

While traditional study abroad programs remain the predominant option for domestic students wishing to have an international experience, more Russian HEIs have been seeking ways to firmly embed international experience in their programs through launching joint-degree and double-degree programs. By a joint or double-degree program, we mean a collaborative study program (at the undergraduate and graduate level), all major elements of which have been agreed upon by the HEIs partners – curriculum, learning outcomes, learning methods, quality assurance, grading and credit transfer, admission procedures and staffing requirements, etc. Such programs are collaboratively managed, have a built-in mobility procedure, which is automatically recognised by partner institutions. The incentives for launching double-degree programs are obvious: advancing internationalization, increasing the academic mobility of students and faculty, raising institutions’ international visibility and prestige. However, we would argue that this kind of cooperation between HEIs partners offers unique opportunities for stengthening teaching collaborations and developing innovative educational approaches through the joint work of international teaching teams and improved recruitment of international and local faculty. While implementing double-degree programs Russian universities have the opportunity to gain a deeper understanding of the changes brought about by the Bologna process, which is still rather vaguely understood by the Russian academic community.

Double-degree programs, as one well-explored format of long-term academic partnership between Russian and foreign HEIs, have significant potential for continuous professional development of the local faculty through their direct involvement in syllabus design, teaching methods and review of assessment systems, as well as improving quality assurance procedures. Such programs, based on the synergy of the unique experiences of each partner, allow teachers more freedom in expanding their repertiore of teaching methods and techniques, classroom practices and provide them with opportunities to develop specific competences relevant for lecturing and teaching in their subjects. Collaborative programs give local faculty excellent chances to gain multicultural experience, both in the academic and social sphere, to experience a variety of educational and cultural systems and traditions, to acquire a broader outlook. Furthermore, local faculty experience alternative and innovative educational and professional practices and obtain access to global educational and research resources and facilities that might be absent at their home universities. In establishing international collaborative programs, all the involved parties have to switch to English in both professional and social settings. Low English level proficiency among Russian university teachers has been seriously hindering and challenging the development and sustainability of most collaborative programs. Russian HEIs that aim at developing international programs and internationalizing their activities as a whole promote and encourage intensive language learning among staff and students, making English language one of the top priorities.

When planning and realizing joint and double degree programs special attention is paid to their compliance with the national procedures of each participating country. The Russian HE system remains quite centralized and governed by federally assigned standards which means that the curriculum and course content developed in cooperation with an international partner must fully comply with the Russian national educational standards and qualification framework, making the uneasy job of program setup even more difficult. Additional challenges are connected with planning academic activities on a program. Partners from different countries may implement different grading methods and scales to evaluate students. For example, in Russia more emphasis is put on oral examinations while in Europe and the US written tests are commonly administered. This is a serious challenge not only for students but for teachers, who need to adapt to different assessment methods and to design different assessment tools.

From our perspective, the benefits of having a strong international educational partnership outweigh the difficulties of its practical implementation, and universities should look into ways of overcoming such barriers. An undeniable advantage of establishing international partnerships between educational institutions and setting up joint and double-degree programs is the fact that such collaborations encourage the local faculty of Russian universities to explore diverse approaches and innovative teaching methods while also seeking new instruments to improving the overall quality of education and increase transparency and compatibility of curricula. The role of the local faculty in strengthening these long term partnerships is often underestimated. In order to make any joint or double degree program truly sustainable it should have a powerful local faculty professional development program which is aimed not only at increasing their English language proficiency, but also their teaching practices and underlying values and beliefs. A systemic deep-end approach to univeristy teacher development will probably lead to systemic changes in university teaching at an institutional level, however it may not be apparent immediately.

In order to exemplify and illustrate the impact of an EMI teacher training for Russian faculty, conducted by an American HE instution, the partnership between Bard College, a liberal arts and sciences (LAS) college in upstate New York, and St Petersburg State University (SPSU) will be discussed. Bard's partner within SPSU is Smolny College which since 1996 has grown from a program within the Philology Faculty of SPSU to becoming Russia's first accredited Faculty of Liberal Arts and Sciences institution and a Faculty at SPSU. Since then several Russian universities of different calibre have expressed interest in developing liberal arts programs. Moreover, Bard College has set up new partnerships in the Kyrgyz Republic, Palestine, and Germany, and is launching new partnerships in Asia and South Africa. The liberal arts and sciences is far from being an easy system to adapt to, but Smolny College created a precedent of adapting LAS to the Russian educational environment. Bard College as a partner was context-sensitive, made an effort to familiarise itself with the local issues and showed sensitivity to what was locally essential at institutional level. Context-sensitive adaptation of a new educational approach and system should never be a one-way street. It should rather be a mutual process of exploring different educational traditions, reimagining old approaches and discovering opportunities for change.

The scope of this paper requires us to focus on the EMI teacher training program that has been offered to the Smolny faculty since the partnership started. Content-wise, this EMI teacher training program has a double focus: modern LAS pedagogy and the role of writing. English is a medium of instruction and never the focus of any teacher training event. The typical format of training events is a 5-day intensive seminar/webinar with a particular central theme. It is delivered in a group mode to facilitate faculty team building at an international level by the English-speaking Bard faculty. The key factors to the success of this EMI teacher training program is its relevance and being intellectually-stimulating and empowering (rather than equipping).

First, let us focus on the LAS pedagogy as it puts a serious emphasis on teaching and, thus, bringing the act of teaching into the focus of the trainees, raising their awareness of their own classroom practices and revisiting their teaching techniques. Smolny teachers are exposed to a very different approach in regard to the educational process and are led to gain a better understanding of a more interactive student-centered pedagogy. By participating in a series of seminars both in Smolny and at Bard, faculty are provided with methodology to expose their students to different points of view, to familiarize them with a variety of approaches and to probe issues, requiring them to read texts critically. "An interactive, student-centered pedagogy means that the classroom is not a one-way conveyor belt of knowledge from professor to student. Specifically, instruction does not simply consist of a teacher reading lectures to students, as is common throughout the world. The classroom is an environment in which students are encouraged to question assumptions and conclusions, analyze texts and derive their own interpretations, debate and role play, and to learn from one another" (Becker 2015, 41). In many ways this approach is similar to what has recently been called a "flipped classroom" when a significant amount of learning takes place outside of the classroom and prior to classes. Students are supposed to read significantly in order to prepare for a classroom discussion and/or to do their own research that is then reported on in class. Thus, students are empowered to offer informed insights and even to draw conclusions that differ from those of the teacher. For Russian university teachers this is quite a dramatic change in the role of a teacher and can be percieved as a serious threat to a teacher's authority in the traditional understanding. Within LAS pedagogy university teachers provide guidance, clarify issues, express their views and can be questioned and challenged, so they must be ready and willing to give up some authority. While for some Russian faculty this may be quite difficult at first, they may find it to be rewarding later as they observe that student-teacher relations acquire more of a collaborative nature. LAS pedagogy leaves room for different teaching styles and its pedagogic approaches, together with the degree of interactivity, vary according to discipline. Traditional lecturing can remain part of the repertoire of teaching techniques, but lecturing is of secondary importance compared to engaged discussion. Irrelevant of the discipline, there are elements of LAS pedagogy that must be present in the classroom as Becker has made apparent: "learning is interactive, students are encouraged to raise questions, challenge assumptions, and make their own discoveries, the teacher does not have a monopoly on knowledge, and a significant amount of learning takes place outside of the classroom" (Becker 2015, 42).

Since the LAS system has been institutionalised by Smolny College and the LAS key principles have been adopted, the local faculty faced the following requirements: to teach some of their courses in English (to provide students with an opportunity to study through English while also becoming prepared for academic exchange opportunities), to teach interactively (the size of the groups was reduced and limited to 15 students to allow for interaction), to develop a student-centered syllabus in English for their courses (a syllabus has to be given to students before the course starts); to review the continuous assessment procedures and to develop written exam questions in English (continuous assessment is no less important than the final exam); to grade students' papers in English and to provide feedback through which learning occurs. The EMI teacher training program was developed to assist local faculty in the above mentioned areas through tailor-made EMI seminars focused on all those aspects of teaching. Needless to say, the motivation of the local faculty to apply and participate in such relevant seminars was quite high and so was their effectiveness. Given that many among the local faculty had been accustomed to traditional didactic approaches, many local faculty members attended EMI teacher training seminars more than once until they became reasonably comfortable in LAS pedagogical practices and, finally, ready to meet its demands. The goals of the EMI seminars are multifaceted: proficiency in LAS pedagogy, linguistic competence as a result of the seminars being conducted in English, and confidence building. By experiencing firsthand pedagogical approaches, teachers increase their own self-esteem and confidence which are likely to be reflected in the classroom.

Another important focus of the Smolny College Russian faculty EMI teacher training is the methodology termed 'writing to learn' as writing is used to enhance the learning process for students. Back in the early 80-s, Bard College President Leon Botstein created the Language and Thinking Program with a particular focus on writing as an exploratory process to develop critical thinking. Later this program grew into the Bard College Institute for Writing and Thinking (IWT) which developed a series of workshops and seminars offered to Bard's international partners – institutions that do not have the extensive experience of viewing the classroom as a site of student-centered, active and engaged learning for students. Many faculty members were accustomed to a didatic approach of teaching where students are passive recipients of information. IWT teacher trainers have been preparing the Smolny faculty to encourage their students to ask questions, entertain new ideas, and listen productively. For university teachers who themselves came from an educational system in which rote learning was the norm, more collaborative and participatory forms of learning transformed their ideas of their new role and responsiblities in the classroom and how they can apply these in their classrooms.

Russian faculty get an opportunity to attend 2 or 3 teacher training events every academic year, in addition to the possibility of visiting Bard College for a two week seminar in the summer, and to deepen their undestanding of writing-based techniques and its applications in the classroom. Together teachers explore how to internalise these practices, making them an intergrative part of the courses they teach. Faculty members reimagine writing prompts, work with new readings and integrate collaborative learning into their classrooms and adapt them to their subjects and their teaching styles. Examples of seminars provided to Smolny faculty in the past include “Writing and Thinking”, “Writing to Learn”, “Inquiry into Essay”, “Writing to Learn in the STEM Disciplines”, “Thinking Historically through Writing” and “Creative Nonfiction”. These workshops create opportuities for university teachers of all subjects to experience learning through writing across all academic fields, benefitting from the supportive dialogue with their colleagues. Professional discussions in English help local faculty become more proficient in English while enriching their classroom and pedagogic discourse. Many of the techniques demonstrated provide first-hand experience to faculty in an attempt to make them more comfortable in introducing similar techniques in their own classes, irrelevant of the language of instruction.

Together with the well-established faculty training seminars offered by the Institute of Writing and Thinking, Bard College has demonstrated its ability to come up with tailor-made teacher development events whenever there is a need. For example, earlier this year a tailor-made program “Writing to Learn and Liberal Arts Language Classroom” was offered to the Smolny language teachers at Bard College (Annandale-on-Hudson, New York) and tailored specifically to their professional and institutional needs. We would argue that this long-term partnership between Bard College (USA) and Smolny College (RF) is a success story in EMI teacher training. The Smolny statistics demonstrates that among the approximate 130 courses across 12 fields of study each semester for bachelor students, approximately 20-25 courses are taught in English. This is strong quantitative evidence to prove the described above approach to EMI teacher training as both productive and efficient. The combination of formal EMI teacher training events with international teaching projects, teacher exchanges, Bard-Smolny online and face-to-face staff meetings and confrerences, exchange visits and study trips together with informal staff gatherings and team-building events result in a systemic institutionalised sustainable change towards an institutional switch to English as a medium of instruction and collaboration. A systemic approach to faculty development as a human resource development strategy results in an impressive outcome of such a partnership growing both HEIs into effective agents of change in their educational systems. What makes this partnership unique is its clear focus on the teaching excellence and commitment to making local faculty training and development one of the top priorities. It is important to note that this is a clear example of how truly international teaching teams evolve and together overcome the division into “us and them”. They develop into one international team sharing the same education values and visions as well as classroom practices. To conclude, the strategy of a long-term partnership when and if implemented with a clear focus on systemic faculty development is an effective strategy for increasing the quantity and quality of EMI teaching.

5. Increasing EMI Quality Teaching in Russian HEIs through External Teacher Training

In 2019 a small-scale online research was done by Belyaeva to determine what kind of EMI teacher training options were available all over the world. The three available options discovered through this research will be briefly discussed below.

An EMI teacher training course in an English-speaking country developed and delivered by English speaking qualified professionals was the first option. EMI teacher training courses were offered by 5 institutions in the UK (Regent's University of London, Department of Education University of Oxford and Oxford EMI training, University of York, Wimbledon School of English in London and University of Liverpool), 3 universities in Australia (The University of Queensland (Institute of Continuing and TESOL Education), University of Alberta (language school) and Monash University Language Centre) and 1 university in Canada (Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia). EMI teacher training programs offer professional support to university teachers planning to teach their academic subjects in English and to universities intending to create their in-house EMI support center. All the EMI teacher training programs consist of two key components: English language competence and university teaching methods. The EMI teacher training program length was one or two weeks of intensive work. Most of these course providers offer two options: university teachers could attend their teacher training programs in those countries and join multinational groups of teachers from different countries or, alternatively, EMI teacher trainers can travel to their HEIs in their countries to work with homogeneous and monolingual groups. However, most EMI teacher trainers are native English language teachers who work in a language center (not university faculty). International certification is offered to all the training participants.

The second available option is an EMI teacher training course in non-Anglophone countries: Zurich University of Applied Sciences in Switzerland (SHAW School of Applied Linguistics), Institute of Career Development in Pakistan, the Education University of Hong Kong, the University of Venezia (in partnership with University of California) in Italy, University of Freiburg Language Centre in Germany, and the British Council in France (Teaching Academic Excellence). The Universities offer a wider range of EMI issues including EMI courses, EMI research, EMI quality assurance and management, EMI conferences, EMI reading lists and e-resources and EMI workshops. These are also short intensive training events led by non-native English-speaking experts and language teachers offering international certification. Teacher trainers are also ready to travel anywhere to deliver any of the training events and quite flexible about the time and length of the training events.

The third available option has already been mentioned above – it is arranging for the EMI teacher trainer to arrive in Russia to a particular HEI or, perhaps, to a Russian city where several HEIs can bring their faculties together for an EMI teacher training. Duration, content, and format of an EMI teacher training event can be negotiated, and the content can be customised. For example, the Tomsk Polytechnique University invited English-speaking trainers to lead an EMI teacher training intensive program for its faculty.

One more available EMI training option should be mentioned here – MOOCs offered on international online education platforms by international teaching qualifications providers. There are currently 2 similar EMI-focused MOOCs: "English as a Medium of Instruction for Academics" developed by the University of Southampton on the "Future

Learn" platform and "English for Teaching Purposes" developed by the Open University of Barcelona on the "Coursera" platform. These MOOCs are available to EMI teachers all over the world including Russian-speaking EMI teachers wherever they teach their subject courses in English. One more online EMI teacher training course developed by the Cambridge University Assessment "Cambridge English Certificate in EMI Skills" is only offered to HEIs should they wish to train and certify their EMI teachers online.

The strategy of external EMI teacher training has its advantages (exposure to professional English, western teaching methods and techniques), however it does have a serious disadvantage of highly qualified teacher trainers lacking relevant EMI experience as well as an insufficient understanding of the local context of the higher education system, thus, weakening their chances to offer relevant and context-sensitive EMI teaching practices. Besides, this strategy has far more serious limitations: a short intensive training event will not ensure qualitative language improvement, a teacher trainer from outside will not be familiar with the local EMI context, the intensive mode of a relatively short training event will not provide the necessary and sufficient practice, and, hence, it has hardly been used by the Russian HEIs.

6. Increasing EMI Quality Teaching in Russian HEIs through In-Service Teacher Training

To increase the number of EMI courses and programs Russian HEIs have been encouraging their local faculty to start teaching their disciplines in English. Among the first to be encouraged to switch to EMI teaching are foreign-educated English speaking Russian faculty members with foreign degrees. The results of the survey of the EMI teachers of SPSU identified only 12,5% of the surveyed 72 SPSU EMI teachers educated abroad and only 8,7% were degree holders (Belyaeva and Kuznetsova 2018, 430). We can only assume that those 12.5% of the respondents who graduated from universities abroad had to meet those universities requirements and should have at least a B2 level of English. Foreign-educated Russian faculty with a foreign degree are still a minority, but they seem most secure and confident to step into EMI teaching without any professional support or scaffolding as they have hands-on experience of being educated outside Russia and exposed to the western approaches to teaching and assessment. If St Petersburg State University (SPBU), one of the oldest universities in Russia, has such statistics, it is unlikely that any other Russian HEIs will have larger numbers of foreign-educated local faculty with foreign degrees.

The same survey indicated that among the SPBU faculty there were 20,8% who had various international English language qualifications and certificates, such as TOEFL, IELTS or Cambridge ESOL, indicating that their level of English is sufficient for EMI teaching. It should be mentioned, however, that the survey did not ask the lecturers to indicate their score or the language level according to CEFR, thus, we cannot be certain how proficient they are. Nevertheless, it needs to be mentioned that there are 4 International Examinations Centers in St Petersburg, but this may not be the case for many other Russian cities and towns. As a result, similar numbers of local faculty with international English language qualifications are unlikely to be found in an average Russian HEI. We can conclude that the local faculty who are confident to start teaching their disciplines in English is clearly a minority while the majority of local faculty all over Russia clearly requires EMI teacher training to start teaching their disciplines in English.

One more strategy to increase the EMI quality teaching in Russian HEIs is in-service EMI teacher training which is designed and delivered by the local experts. Recently Russian HEIs have been encouraging local experts to offer professional support to those in need. Consequently, Russian higher education has been moving towards empowering non-English speaking domestic faculty to step out of their comfort zone and start teaching their disciplines in English. Russian HE institutions have not been providing clear policy statements on EMI and the current trend is developing in an evolutionary way. As the quality of the lectures and seminars that are taught in English varies, Russian HE institutions have been working on the professional development opportunities internally.

Many Russian HEIs have traditionally had English language courses for their faculty either through their human resources department or through university-based language centers. However, EMI teacher training programs are still very few in Russia: St Petersburg-based ITMO University launched in-service EMI training for their faculty and later made it available for university faculty from all over Russia. Chelyabinsk-based South Ural State University (SUSU) launched a teacher-training course for English Medium Instruction together with the first locally published EMI textbook “English for Researchers: English Medium Instruction” (Volchenkova, 2018). The English Language Teaching publishing industry is surprisingly lagging behind and has not shown sufficient interest to create training materials for EMI teachers all over the world.

To better understand in-service EMI teacher training courses in Russian institutions, the course developed within St Petersburg State University (SPSU) will be looked at in more detail. This 72 academic hour EMI teacher training course has become part of SPSU internally certified professional development program. It is an extensive program and is delivered through 90 minutes sessions twice a week, which makes language improvement feasible. The program is aimed at educating and training highly qualified university teachers, non-native speakers of English, who teach (or intend to teach) their subjects and disciplines in English and work with international cohorts of students. This course consists of the following 3 modules: English for higher education teaching and classroom discourse (45 academic hours); Methodology of university teaching through English (15 academic hours) and Intercultural competence for teaching international cohorts of students (12 academic hours). All the 27 course participants (12 SPSU teachers in 2018 and 15 SPSU teachers in 2019) had a B1+ and B2 CEFR level of English and they unanimously rated their English language proficiency needs higher than those in teaching methodology. Among the classroom language the trainees intended to develop, the following were identified as their top priorities: signposting language for lectures and presentations, language of instructions, language for interactive tasks, elicitation and questioning, language of definitions and explanations; language for positive and constructive feedback and describing visuals and illustrations. All the phonology work aimed at accent minimization was received with enthusiasm by all the course participants.

Despite the fact that all 27 university teachers represented a wide variety of subject fields (Journalism, Law, Forensic Linguistics, International Trade History, Earth Science, Geology, Geography, Slavonic Studies, Economics, Medical Psychology, Physics, Computational Linguistics, International Relations, Political Science, Literature, Philosophy of Science and Art), they unanimously identified the following teaching competencies as their priority needs: course outline and syllabus design, assessment techniques and criteria, interactive ways of teaching and leading seminars, establishing a positive and comfortable classroom environment and feedback to students. Even though all the course participants rated the language module higher than the teaching methodology one, they expressed interest in the course activities, tasks and techniques used and mentioned. Responses from participants in their evaluations made it clear that they would be integrating some of the course activities into their own teaching in the future.

The intercultural module turned out to be the least popular and was not a perceived need, so the academic hour balance was changed in favor of English language work. Intercultural sensitivity is essential to manage intercultural differences in a multicultural and multilanguage classroom, but it had to be limited in scope and classroom time.

According to the needs analysis questionnaire, EMI trainees were most interested in developing their speaking, listening and writing skills. Reading, as the best developed language skill, was not at all a priority. Most trainees (25 out of 27) claimed they needed English to use it in lecture and seminar modes and only 2 trainees needed English for one-to-one academic supervision. The end of the course evaluation indicated that all the trainees improved their language skills in classroom discourse (speaking was the best developed skill) and felt more confident to teach their courses in English. The most popular course assignments were the following: to deliver a fragment of a lecture in the subject matter, to create a glossary of the course key terminology, to present a course outline, to give written and oral feedback, to lead a group discussion and poster presentations. Many trainees' feedback also indicated that moving into an online setting helped them discover a variety of teaching techniques to be used on online platforms.

The SPBU EMI course, together with the SUSU and ITMO expertise (presented and discussed at various conferences), make a convincing case for the strategy of in-service EMI teacher training to be quite promising in raising the EMI teaching quality and standards. It can grow into an effective context-sensitive and tailor-made EMI faculty training and development if it is competently institutionalized, managed and evaluated on a regular basis. We would argue that with growing scope and qualification awarded, this strategy can potentially resolve the current shortage of EMI faculty and positively impact the quality of EMI teaching.

7. Comparative Analysis Discussion

The scrutinized institutional strategies employed by Russian HEIs vary in their effectiveness and efficiency, however, there is much evidence to suggest that all of them have their limitations and weaknesses. The summary of the simplified comparative analysis is provided in the Table 1. The major criteria for comparing the discussed strategies include sustainability, recognition and status, financial implications and costs, logistics and infrastructure and risks.

The overall potential of each strategy should not be underestimated; however, it must be admitted that most Russian HEIs have been encouraged to search for "quick fix" solutions to facilitate the process of internationalization of Russian HE as part of a bigger agenda of Russian HE exports promotion and improvement of university rankings. Russian HEIs in their attempts to internationalize and to become more competitive on the global education market demonstrate a variety of approaches in increasing the quantity and quality of EMI ranging from degree programs fully taught in a foreign language (mostly English) to a combination of EMI and non-EMI courses.

Table 1 Comparative analysis of the institutional strategies

Criteria for comparative analysis	Strategies employed by Russian HEIs			
	International recruiting	Long-term partnerships	External faculty development (one-offs)	Institutionalized faculty development
Sustainability	Low	High	Low	High
Recognition and status	Expert status Institution status (prestige)	Institution status Certificates recognized	Expert status Certificates not recognized	Institution status Certificate recognized
Financial implications	High	High	High	Low
Logistics and infrastructure	Limitations at national level (quota control)	Established, with some institution-specific limitations	No infrastructure, typically a one-off arrangement	Long-established faculty development procedures
Risks	Political issues Personal circumstances	Political issues Partners' reliability and commitment	Political issues Experts availability	No risks
Overall potential	High	High	Only if the objectives are feasible	High

Unfortunately, the issue of the quality of university disciplines taught in English has been getting insufficient attention among Russian educationalists and researchers, and the number of publications reporting EMI-related research or describing university practices in EMI implementation remains limited. In the few recently published articles which analyze the current state and prospects of development of English-language education programmes at Russian universities (Anureyev, 2017; Kurgansky, 2018), some problems have been identified and recommendations have been suggested. The issues and concerns shared by the local university lecturers who start teaching subject content through a foreign language typically include insufficient language-related training, an insufficient language level among the students and a lack of interactive techniques. The traditional lecture-and-test model is still dominant in most Russian universities and the growing opportunity to teach in a foreign language should be combined with the introduction of different pedagogic approaches and methods such as experiencial, discovery and collaborative learning to make university teaching more student-centered and student-oriented. This may require a different set of professional competencies and needs and clearly highlights the lack of a pre-service training framework for university lecturers and teachers adapting to teahing in a foreign language or in English as the currently prevailing medium of instruction.

The currently employed strategies by Russian HEIs are limited to in-service faculty training and are being implemented at an institutional level by universities and work more or less efficiently depending on a number of context-sensitive factors. However, there is clearly a need for a research of the EMI phenomenon in the context of Russian

HE in general and the identified problems and issues involving university teachers and students on a larger scale to ensure the convincing evidence of the research findings. Research-based evidence of the current practice can lay a foundation with an innovative pedagogic framework for pre-service teacher education and training which will breed a new generation of teaching cadre in Russia.

8. Concluding Comments

The central theme of this paper was the quantity and quality of EMI teaching in Russian HEIs and the strategies of improving EMI teaching in Russian HE. Among the strategies currently available to Russian HEIs, we considered international recruiting, long-term educational partnerships, and teacher training. International recruiting can be considered as a short-term measure fundamentally lacking sustainability and requiring substantial financial resources. EMI teacher training supported externally by foreign experts from outside is both short-term and costly. The two most promising and effective strategies for EMI training and professional development are long-term HEI to HEI partnerships and in-service locally designed and delivered teacher training extensive programs. In both cases the results may not be immediately apparent, but in the long run both strategies will bring about systemic positive change and can positively impact EMI teaching quality.

Currently there are no EMI policies in Russian HEIs, and linguistic competence is one obvious obstacle to EMI in Russia. In most Russian institutions EMI is an evolving practice with varying institutional support. Some Russian HEIs have goals regarding EMI and there may be an evolving EMI policy, however, due to the galloping internationalization of Russian HE many institutions lag behind in offering their faculty intensive language support. Depending on how important EMI becomes to an HEI, the linguistic competence in the language which is the medium of instruction will be shaping university faculty careers in future. We are hopeful that EMI teacher requirements are likely to change over time and that linguistic competence will become as important as subject expertise since EMI teacher excellence is a combination of the two.

A closer assessment of effectiveness of the discipline-appropriate and context-sensitive pedagogy and its connection to the expected learning outcomes is also essential to guarantee quality of the university courses taught in a foreign language. There is a need to develop a pedagogic and linguistic framework for professional practice would help promote excellence in teaching and learning in a foreign language in Russian HEIs.

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Review research paper

EDUTAINMENT AND INFOTAINMENT IN DISTANCE LEARNING AND TEACHING ENGLISH TO UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AND ADULT LEARNERS

Elena A. Bugreeva

St Petersburg University, School of Journalism and Mass Communications, Russia

Abstract. *The era of digitization and post-literacy has changed many aspects of our life. This paper investigates into edutainment and infotainment as an approach to the instructional design of an English course for university students or adult learners, including distance learning. Apart from a brief history of edutainment and infotainment, the research attempts to realize the nature of edutainment, specify the concept, and point out its advantages and disadvantages. The article describes some instruments of edutainment and infotainment that can improve e-learning English. The findings may be interesting for the faculty engaged in synchronous and asynchronous e-learning and instructional designers creating online courses.*

Key words: *edutainment, infotainment, distance learning, synchronous/asynchronous e-learning, online course, instructional design*

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, our life is becoming more and more digitalized: we use e-commerce, e-mailing, teleconferencing, e-learning, and more. E-learning implies studying at home using computers and courses provided on the Internet, or the process of providing courses on the Internet or an intranet (Cambridge Dictionary https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english-russian/e-learning). E-learning as a type of distance learning can be synchronous and asynchronous. Synchronous e-learning means that a teacher (lecturer, instructor, or tutor) and their learners are present online simultaneously. Asynchronous e-learning means doing an online course created by a lecturer beforehand or using any learning materials on the Internet.

E-learning has come into university and business education with many advantages, such as inclusion, availability, and adaptability. Indeed, e-learning can embrace many learners at a time, which makes it profitable in case it is a commercial educational project. It is available to all groups of learners including senior citizens, disabled people, and those living in distant areas. Moreover, it is available everywhere at any time. As many online courses consist of modules, they are adaptable to any group of learners, university discipline, or level of student's competence. E-learning provides everybody

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Corresponding author: Elena A. Bugreeva. St Petersburg University, School of Journalism and Mass Communications, SPbSU VO, 1 Line, 26; St. Petersburg, 199004, Russia | E-mail: elena.a.bugreeva@yandex.ru

with a great opportunity to listen to a famous lecturer or join a high-profile course (often free) developed by some leading university. This is also a great chance for networking, getting a job or internship.

However, many aspects of e-learning are still disputable. Firstly, in asynchronous learning, it is often difficult to choose the right course for a university syllabus. Secondly, e-learning, like any distance learning format, reinforces learners' procrastination and all types of distraction. Many find it difficult to self-organize and declutter their home office. An online course may give little space to practice the skills or apply the knowledge it teaches. Due to this, many learners often quit before completing a course. Another concern is lack of live human communication in doing an online course, although online courses often involve a feedback from the author of the course and connection to the other learners. Finally, few universities and employees accept the certificates awarded upon completion of an online course as valuable as a high school diploma.

Synchronous e-learning shares similar concerns. The author surveyed 60 students at St. Petersburg State University, who are learning from home now (2020/21). The survey revealed complaints about learning from home such as: lack of live human communication and interpersonal practice (23%); greater need for concentration (16%); self-organization and time management (14%); self-motivation (11%); many distracting factors (10%); lack of feedback from lecturer (9%); students' and/or lecturers' poor technical skills (7%); bad Internet connection (7%); and boring presentation of learning materials (3%).

In fact, in many instances, lecturers extrapolate their offline approaches to teaching their disciplines online. This may be a reason for their students' low motivation, concentration and interest in learning. The hypothesis of this research is that elements of edutainment and infotainment could make up an efficient approach to learning English in formal and informal synchronous and asynchronous formats and raise learners' motivation, engagement and concentration in distance learning. This research aims to: 1) outline the history of edutainment and infotainment; 2) explain the mechanisms, advantages and disadvantages of edutainment and infotainment; 3) classify and illustrate the instruments of edutainment and infotainment applicable to learning English online; 4) survey adult learners and university students about their attitudes towards edutainment and infotainment in learning English; and 5) attempt to assess the efficiency of edutainment and infotainment in e-learning English.

2. An Outline of Edutainment and Infotainment

The word 'edutainment' is a blend of 'education' and 'entertainment'. *Edutainment* refers to entertaining TV programs and computer software, which are primarily meant for educational purposes. The educational purpose can be related to formal education in different school institutes or to informal learning in different daily life contexts without systematically organized education (Walldén, Soronen, 2004). The concept roots back to ancient rituals, myths, fairy-tales and fables used to educate and entertain at the same time. In 1973, Robert Hayman was the first to use the concept 'edutainment' in his report for the National Geographic Society.

The US military administration began to use the approach in the drawn cartoon series *Private Snafu* in 1943. This is a black and white series about soldier Snafu. The character does not care about his safety at war. The cartoon entertained the audience and helped them learn the safety rules at war. Another cartoon *Pop-Eye the Sailor Man* aimed to attract new volunteers to the army service and boost the spirit of soldiers. In 1948, the Walt Disney Company described their documentary about wildlife as edutainment that aimed to attract attention, entertain, and inspire.

In the 1970s, the US and Great Britain used edutainment in outreach projects to tell everybody about cancer or AIDS. In 1975, the artist and designer Chris Daniels used the term to describe his *Millennium* project called *Elysian World*. Being interested in nuclear physics and quantum mechanics, Chris Daniels believed in education combined with arts and interwoven with imagination. In the 1980s, the popular *Muzzy in Gondoland* came out, at first, to teach and learn English, but later it was translated into different languages (Hangeldieva, Bogdanova, 2013; Dragun, 2015).

In the USSR, documentaries and feature films contained edutainment. In-service training games have been developing for the employees of factories and plants since 1932. As an example, in 1936, M. Birstein developed and launched a five-day game to imitate the conversion of a weaving mill to another product range. The imitation took 30 hours and aimed to check if the employees were able to make decisions similar to their regular ones in such situations (Panfilova, 2003).

In the early 20th century, business education emerged in the USA and later developed in Europe. Phycologists advised educational cartoons to develop multiple features of personality such as leadership, self-efficiency, and self-motivation. Due to their age and status, trainees did not want to be taught and learn like schoolchildren. It was necessary to work out an approach for comfortable adult learning. Hence, innovative techniques emerged such as relaxation, improvisation, reflection, and more. Universities and business schools began to use edutainment; and so did museums, tourism, cafes, and clubs. However, edutainment only meant having fun and playing games including business role-plays. Now, in a broad sense, edutainment means using any entertaining media or multimedia for learning (Hangeldieva, Bogdanova, 2013). It is also important to distinguish edutainment and *technotainment*, a combination of technology and entertainment, for example, promotional robots.

Infotainment boosted with the development of interactive multimedia in the late 1980s. In television, infotainment means reporting news and facts in an entertaining and humorous way. Generally, it is information that is provided on television, the Internet, etc., in an entertaining way (Cambridge Dictionary). Historically, news organizations maintained a distinction between ‘hard’ news and ‘soft’ news. In the 1980s, communication theorists began to use the term *infotainment* (a portmanteau of information and entertainment) as a synonym for soft news (G. P. Matthews). For Evgeniia Dragun’s classification, infotainment includes breakfast television, docudrama, docusoap, infomercial, documentary chronicles, court shows, culinary shows, medical shows, TV programs aimed to change somebody’ appearance, flat interior, etc., talk shows, TV journals, TV games, info shows, and gonzo journalism (Dragun, 2015).

Infotainment usually uses flashy graphics, fast-paced editing, music, and sensationalism or satire. Popular examples include *Entertainment Tonight*, *Hannity and Colmes*, *The Daily Show*, and shows that we would not classify as news earlier, such as *The Oprah Winfrey Show* (G. P. Matthews). In Russia, many journalists and bloggers/vloggers use infotainment on TV and the Internet. The best example of infotainment is Leonid Parfenov’s documentaries, docudramas as well as his vlog *Parfenon* on YouTube.

3. Edutainment and Infotainment: Mechanisms, Advantages and Disadvantages

The principle of emotional and engaging learning is one of the key didactic principles together with others such as visualization, truthfulness, dynamics, learning from analysis to synthesis, highlighting the key information, and individual and adaptive learning. Entertainment meets most of them as it always refers to a visualized and dynamic presentation of information. In asynchronous e-learning, learning platforms are challenged with creating compact videos injected with flashy graphics and pictures for online courses. Instructional designers do their best to make video lectures as concise and engaging as possible. Synchronous e-learning also demands a dynamic presentation (much faster than in face-to-face learning) with bright graphics, infographics, and pictures in slides, as well as fresh metaphors and off-beaten examples accompanied with short, concise videos and interactivity. The author is of the opinion that elements of edutainment and infotainment introduced into e-learning could help us meet its challenges.

How does edutainment work? Vyacheslav Bukatov (Bukatov, 2018) explains the efficiency of edutainment by a rehabilitation of unconscious mechanisms of learning usually suppressed. For traditional didactics, learners' knowledge is short-term and hollow without comprehension, consciousness, and discreet reflection. Given teachers get rid of this view, they will have to change the way they evaluate learners' knowledge, present the information, and organize their students. Then, teachers are free from artificial stillness of students in classroom, pseudo-collectivism, and involuntarily exploited learned helplessness often thrust to learners. Edutainment means both education and entertainment. However, the concept attains a new meaning, which is not only education or entertainment, and appeals to unconscious processes included into both learning and play. Learning and entertainment transform into a new reality one can even introduce in regular secondary school (Bukatov, 2018, Dyakonova, 2012, 2016). Thus, learning with an aim shifted to a motif becomes a more natural process similar to how little children learn to walk, speak, and interact.

Edutainment and infotainment are understandable, natural, and involving. They do not need to be funny, but do need to be interesting. Paraphrasing Randy White's characteristics of children's play, for adults, edutainment is highly pleasurable, process-oriented (although the outcome is as important as the process), often self-initiated and self-directed, an activity of the mind, imaginative, hands-on/participatory (even if limited with imposed tasks or rules), and may be open-ended (see: White, 2003). That is why edutainment and infotainment appeal to many target groups of learners. These approaches can embrace, among others, low/non-motivated learners, low educated adults, senior learners, and immigrants. Corporate trainings often use these approaches for employees of all levels, including top management.

At the same time, edutainment and infotainment cause concerns. The contents of edutainment may be fragmented and/or incoherent. That is why it is crucial to highlight a clear trajectory to help learners follow the content of a lesson or a course and integrate sparks of entertainment into it. This should be a wise collaboration of what is to be learnt and what is used to entertain. Otherwise, the learnability and entertaining means of edutainment can stand too far from each other. This is challenging because we never know how learners will take, for instance, an online course. They can skip part of it or randomly choose individual fragments (only entertaining games and quizzes). Much depends on an instructional designer's capability to highlight key information in learning materials to avoid wordiness, engage learners, maintain contact with audience, and let edutainment and infotainment trigger better learning.

Another concern is lack of assessment and evaluation in edutainment: it is difficult to measure the efficiency of a game or a song for learning. A solution might include monitoring the efficiency of edutainment and infotainment and their role in a lesson or a course, checking for possible misleading aspects, assessing learners' results, and activating the transference of the learned material into life.

In addition, we should take into consideration the fact that adult learners often reject entertainment in learning because they regard it as a waste of their time. Randy White explains: "What we call children's edutainment is really just children's play. To adults, children's play is fun, relaxing and recreational, not work. Many adults view children's play as nothing more than mindless play with little value. For children, nothing could be further from the truth. For adults, edutainment falls somewhere in the middle of the education-entertainment continuum, with a little of both. For children up to about age 8, play is a unique form of edutainment since it is both 100% education and 100% entertainment. Children are biologically wired to play. It is nature's way of programming them with a pleasurable activity that teaches them about the world around them and how to become part of society. Play is child's work. Play to children is unlike play to adults." (White, 2003)

What is the added value of edutainment and infotainment for learning and teaching? Firstly, they expand the landscape of formal and informal education. Secondly, the elements of edutainment and infotainment used in teaching appeal to a new nature of cognition in contemporary learners, both youngsters and adults. They tend to learn better and easier, when in an environment similar to their real life, where they are used to interactivity, fast flowing chunks of information, clipped and/or fragmented information, and information delivered in the most animated way.

Thus, attractive and engaging edutainment and infotainment as an approach can contribute to learners' motivation, concentration, reflection, and progress. The instructional designer should artistically interweave the elements of edutainment and infotainment into a course in order to balance education and entertainment and avoid entertainment outweighing learning. It is also important to offer learners a diversity of instruments of edutainment and infotainment and monitor their efficiency.

4. THE INSTRUMENTS OF EDUTAINMENT AND INFOTAINMENT USED IN LEARNING AND TEACHING ENGLISH

Within the research, I have attempted to classify edutainment and infotainment instruments. However questionable it may seem, a classification of edutainment and infotainment instruments used for synchronous and asynchronous e-learning English could be said to consist of three groups.

Among *edutainment instruments* are vocabulary/grammar/communication games; role-plays; funny dictations; learning video/audio, songs, poems, chants; and learning applications. Examples are a global learning platform company *Kahoot!* (https://kahoot.it/) and *Carrington's Padagogy Wheel* (https://www.teachthought.com/technology/the-padagogy-wheel/). Allan Carrington, who was a learning designer at the University of Adelaide, has offered the Pedagogy Wheel. This is a model for planning academic activities embracing the competences of graduate students in the 21st century. First, he put apps around the outside of Bloom's Taxonomy Wheel and organized them according to his cognitive domain categories. Later, he added Graduate Attributes and Employable Capabilities for version two, then

Motivation and Ruben Puentedura's SAMR (Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, Redefinition) Model for version three. Then, he updated the apps and doubled the number available per category for version four. He also added further advice on app selection criteria. How does it contribute to learning and teaching? The Padagogy Wheel associates mobile apps with the educational purpose they are most likely to serve. It then enables teachers to identify the pedagogical place and purpose of their various app-based learning and teaching activities in the context of their overall objectives for the course, and with reference to the wider developmental needs of their students. (Carrington https://www.teachthought.com/technology/the-padagogy-wheel/).

I believe infotainment can augment edutainment, but only when it is accompanied with educational purposes and a tutorial or guide of how to use it for learning and assess the outcomes of learning. A group of *infotainment instruments* may include: documentaries, feature films, cartoons, comics, memes, quotes, interesting facts, interviews, speeches, presentations (TED.com), soft news and other TV genres (Dragun, 2015), breakfast television, docudrama, docusoap, infomercial, documentary chronicles, court shows, culinary shows, medical shows, TV programs aimed to change somebody' appearance, flat interior etc., talk shows, TV journals, TV games, info shows, and gonzo journalism. One of regular ways to use infotainment in learning English is to involve interesting facts (https://www.did-you-knows.com/), memes (https://memes.com/), quotes (https://www.goodreads.com/quotes), and films (https://film-english.com/) for discussion to contribute to practicing speaking skills or expanding vocabulary. Another resource to use infotainment for developing listening and speaking skills is BBC Learning English Lingohack (https://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish/english/features/lingohack). This resource provides short soft news with downloadable transcripts and audio tracks, which makes the materials mobile. The videos are convenient to work with both in class and individually. In class, I offer these videos for 'grasp' comprehension. As the topics are diverse and the learners do not know which video the lecturer chooses, this makes the activity real-like and sometimes challenging. Then, students are assigned to look up the vocabulary and grammar they may not know and listen or watch a video as many times as they need to make sure they understand every single word. In their following class, they make up a summary of a news item and bring extra information on the topic for discussion.

Third group of instruments includes those where *infotainment and edutainment overlap*: myths, fables, fairy-tales, storytelling, songs, stand-ups, quests, quizzes, jokes, anecdotes, crosswords, puzzles, riddles, infographics, location-based edutainment (R. White, 2003): (online) museums, galleries, events, performances, zoos, concerts, blogs/vlogs/YouTube channels, board games, computer games, applications, themed web pages, social networks. These instruments can be pure infotainment if they have no educational purpose and an algorithm or a guide including assessment. As an example, Randy White stands for Location-Based Edutainment (LBE) and defines it as "events, programs and attractions where the entertainment qualities are the primary draw, with the learning or education being a byproduct" (White, 2003). Now, LBE is available online thanks to projects such as *GoogleArtProject* or *StreetView*. One can take a virtual tour, walk along a street in New York, or visit a museum or a zoo, but it will become edutainment only when an instructional designer/English instructor assigns it with a task and a guide for learning. This group of instruments could coin a term 'info-edutainment'.

5. Multimedia in Infotainment and Edutainment

To make many of these instruments applicable and attractive for e-learning we need to use *multimedia*. Audio-visualization and computer graphics (animation, 3D graphics, pictures, schemes, infographics, morphosynchron (the term was coined by Leonid Parfenov (Parfenov, 2017)), synchronized photo and video, augmented reality, holograms) help model different objects, environments, and virtual reality (VR). These can create an illusion of communicating to a past, present, future, or imagined world. VR appeals to learning arts, design, construction, graphics, modelling, and many other domains. It can also be helpful in teaching communication in English. A simple example is a drill programmed to help practice using 'standard' English phrases in different life rituals like, for instance, a dialogue with a virtual interlocutor in a small talk, a business meeting, or at a birthday party: standard phrases pop up and a learner must reply as quickly as possible. If a learner replies in the wrong way, the program shows the right one, and the drill repeats. As a result, English learners start using the right phrases automatically.

For asynchronous e-learning, it is important to consider the latest trends in creating video. In 2021, emotional videos are mostly valued; visualization is becoming a language (it is easier to show/see something than tell about it/listen to an explanation); a video must be short, clear and concise (no wordiness), interactive (with a chance to ask a question, do a quiz, like/dislike, or comment). Vertical format videos (for smartphones) and video/audio podcasts are becoming more and more popular (EduTech, 2021). Matthew Pierce, Learning and Video Ambassador, states that, according to a survey conducted by TechSmith Corporation, 20% respondents choose to watch a video because it looks entertaining and 23% stop a video because it is boring/not entertaining (Pierce, EduTech, 2021).

Synchronous e-lecturing also needs a portion of edutainment and infotainment. Videoconferences, video-lectures, video-seminars and webinars are widely used in business and university education. They may be systemic or occasional, frontal or individual, live or recorded. A lecturer can connect to other cities and countries via Skype, Zoom, VoiceBoxer, or any other platform. Large LCD screens create a special atmosphere (an illusion) of exposure. The participants can communicate with each other and the experts live or via chat rooms. The traditional lecturing method can (and often does) combine audio-visual tools, such as videos, infographics, 3D graphics, or VR.

In addition, multimedia environment can virtualize assessment and evaluation of learners' knowledge and skills. E-learning can use multiple online quests and quizzes along with regular peer review tasks, tests, exams, course works or final projects, as well as live online sessions with English instructors. Now, university students and adult learners can create sufficient products for learning and (self) assessment. Learners' portfolios can include themed web pages, quests and quizzes, infographics, short films, blogs, vlogs, and Instagram/ YouTube channels in English.

Thus, informative multimedia and computer software integrated into infotainment and edutainment or traditional approaches can reinforce efficient e-learning. This is another challenge for instructional designers who develop online courses and/or syllabi for synchronous learning.

6. Discussion

It is still a question whether we need such processes as gamification in adult learning. Within the research, I have surveyed 57 adult learners doing an in-house English course at an IT company about their attitudes towards edutainment and infotainment. The survey shows that 26 respondents find it useless to play games and do crosswords to learn English. Once in class, three out of six learners opt-out of taking part in a game or a role-play. The results correlate Randy White's findings mentioned above (White, 2003). At the same time, adult learners prefer downloading applications and play computer games to learn vocabulary or listening to podcasts to develop their listening skills (49 out of 57 respondents).

Many learners (51 out of 57 in this survey) consider watching feature films and documentaries in English, although they often do not know how to make this activity efficient for learning. Passive watching (without vocabulary and grammar acquisition or discussion) is time consuming and in many cases useless. Due to this, developing themed modules based on a feature film or documentary is another instrument of edutainment. An example is a site run by Kieran Donaghy with multiple lesson plans and viewing guides designed for learning English via watching films. A viewing guide includes viewing recommendations, film synopsis with glossary, pre-viewing discussion questions, glossary of key words, phrasal verbs and expressions with phonetic spelling used in the film and example sentences to aid comprehension and vocabulary acquisition, post-viewing discussion questions, and post-viewing writing and videoing tasks (Kieran Donaghy https://film-english.com/).

Another question is whether it is possible to measure the efficiency of edutainment and infotainment. M. Horila and others (Horila, Nokelainen, Syvänen, Överlund, 2002) have developed criteria for evaluating e-learning materials in terms of their pedagogical impact. They are: 1) learnability; 2) graphic appearance and layout; 3) technical requirements; 4) intuitive efficiency; 5) suitability for different learners and different situations; 6) ease of use: technical and pedagogical approach; 7) interactivity; 8) objectiveness; 9) sociality; 10) motivation; and 11) added value for teaching (Cit. ex Walldén, Soronen, 2004). Prima facie, most instruments of edutainment and infotainment meet all the requirements. However, it is not always true. I have tried to adjust Horila's criteria to measure the efficiency of edutainment, infotainment and info-edutainment instruments I use in synchronous and asynchronous e-learning and teaching English to adult learners and university students. As all the instruments seem to be intuitively efficient, learnable, objective and social, I leave these criteria out as met by default. As I previously mentioned, e-learning demands faster pace and more engaging manner of delivery of learning materials to maintain learners' concentration and involvement. Thus, I suggest adding the length and level of engagement of an instrument of edutainment, infotainment or info-edutainment to judge its efficiency in e-learning and teaching to adults and university students.

As it is impossible to analyze all the instruments, I compare the efficiency of feature films and role-playing in e-learning English. In asynchronous e-learning, a feature film seems to be efficient. A film usually features an engaging plot, graphic and sound appearance, and suspense which altogether motivate learners to watch it. However, it is not easy to use film watching as a pedagogical approach: the learner needs a viewing guide and tasks, and organized discussion and assessment, which is often a time-and-effort-consuming burden for the teacher. In addition, not all students will enjoy the film, as it may not suit different learners. In synchronous e-learning, the length of the film (if it is not short film or abstract) and interactivity are questionable. In both cases, the added value for learning is also questionable because much depends on what film it is and how learning is organized.

A role play (pretending to be someone else, especially as part of learning a new skill) also seems to be efficient in e-learning. However, in asynchronous e-learning, it is difficult to use technically. We can either program it (which involves using multimedia to create its graphic appearance) or invite learners to organize it by themselves (for example, to record a video). Thus, it is questionable in terms of engagement, motivation, and interactivity. In synchronous e-learning, role-playing is highly motivating, engaging and interactive. It is easy to organize technically and pedagogically. It may be short and compact enough not to bother learners. It is usually suitable for different learners, although some may be too shy to take an active part in it. Thus, it has a high added value for teaching when well-organized and meets learners' interests. Table 1 shows the results of my approach to assessing the efficiency of feature films and role plays as edutainment, infotainment or info-edutainment instruments in a more illustrative way. My findings rely solely on my own practice and experience in online teaching English to adults at an IT company and students at St. Petersburg University in 2020-2021, and may be subjective.

Table 1 Assessing the efficiency of feature films and role plays as edutainment and infotainment instruments in e-learning

		Feature films		Role play	
		Async. e-learning	Sync. e-learning	Async. e-learning	Sync. e-learning
CRITERIA	Engagement	high	high	questionable	high
	Motivation	high	high	questionable	high
	Interactivity	questionable	questionable	questionable	high
	Graphic appearance	high	high	questionable	no
	Length	may be time-consuming	lengthy	suitable	suitable
	Suitability for different learners	questionable	questionable	questionable	suitable for different learners
	Technical ease of use	easy	easy	difficult	easy
	Ease of use as a pedagogical approach	difficult	difficult	difficult	easy
	Added value for teaching	questionable	questionable	questionable	high

It is clear now that the instruments that we accepted as ultimately beneficial in the beginning may have a questionable added value for teaching. Their efficiency depends on: 1) the format of e-learning (synchronous or asynchronous); 2) multimedia and technical support available; 3) instructional design; and 4) organization.

Thus, assessing the efficiency of edutainment and infotainment is challenging but rewarding. Edutainment and infotainment help organize a lesson or a course in an attractive way, but may turn out to be waste of time in terms of e-learning and/or teaching. This approach to assessment may seem disputable, but it helps rethink the use of infotainment and edutainment and find a better application of these means to e-learning.

7. Conclusions

Edutainment and infotainment are efficient approaches to comfortable adult learning because they rehabilitate unconscious mechanisms of learning and involve improvisation, relaxation, reflection, and creativity. The main advantages of edutainment and infotainment are their engaging nature, interactivity, inclusiveness, and learner-centered design. Possible disadvantages may include fragmented and/or incoherent content, misbalanced learnability and entertaining, lack of feedback, assessment, and evaluation.

Classification of edutainment and infotainment instruments may include infotainment instruments, edutainment instruments, and the instruments that can be either pure infotainment or become edutainment when accompanied with a task and tutorial. Multimedia make edutainment and infotainment even more attractive for e-learning. The instruments of edutainment and infotainment will be developing along with technology. Technological advances contribute to learning languages, as technology has become part of learners' everyday life.

Teaching and learning languages, including synchronous and asynchronous distance learning, need augmenting with elements of edutainment and infotainment because they can diversify traditional formal and informal learning, make education more inclusive and attractive, and meet a new mode of perception and cognition in contemporary learners. It is important to balance education and entertainment within the instructional design of a course in order to make it more learnable, coherent in form and content, and connected to practical knowledge and skills. Assessing a need in edutainment and infotainment and their efficiency in a course may help to avoid wasting teachers' and learners' time and effort.

Further research might explore into how to choose different edutainment and infotainment instruments to meet specific learning challenges in the most effective way. Assessment and evaluation of the efficiency of more edutainment and infotainment instruments in e-learning is another perspective for the research.

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Review research paper

DOG – IMAGE PAREMIAS IN TRANSLATION (BASED ON NIKITA KHRUSHCHEV'S MEMOIRS)

Elena V. Carter

Saint Petersburg Mining University, Department of Foreign Languages, Saint Petersburg, Russia

Abstract. *Animalistic metaphors are widely used in political discourse. The paper deals with the comparative analysis of Russian paremias with the constituent element "dog" employed in Nikita Khrushchev's memoirs and their English translations. The etymology and cultural connotations of the phraseological units are explored as well. The corpus linguistics methodology is used to identify the expressions containing the word "dog." By applying Conceptual Metaphor Theory and frame semantics, the mappings that serve to recreate the author's view of "dog" cognition and communication for the reader are investigated. The research contributes to the study of phraseology and translation as it provides an insight into challenges caused by linguistic and cultural differences while transferring metaphorical expressions from one language and culture to another.*

Key words*: dog-image paremia, memoirs, Nikita Khrushchev, translation*

1. INTRODUCTION

At present, the problem of studying universal features, as well as the specifity of national character and mentality, based on the main concept spheres in phraseology is the focus of attention of both Russian and foreign linguists. It is generally accepted that commonalities and dissimilarities of phraseological units in different languages can be identified by means of a frontal interlingual comparison.

The millenary coexistence of men and animals establishes strong links between them based on the life's experience of endless number of generations and the very individual practice. "The existential reality of animals as biological beings is overtaken by cultural reality in perfect harmony: the animal represents man in a semantic map in their qualities in its virtues and its fault in its dynamics" (Cristea, 2016, 182) which is remarkably imprinted in the storage of paremias about human-like actions and characteristics of animals that are the main sources of metaphors in proverb lore of many languages. Therefore, the analysis of idiomatic expressions with the lexeme "dog," which is a phraseological forming component, seems interesting in terms of including this core element in paremias that reveal the commonality of associations, as well as their differences in languages compared.

It has been noticed that in Russian paremias, a negative overtone is determined by the use of the word "dog" in relation to a person, while in the English language, "the lexeme is

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Corresponding author: Elena V. Carter. Saint Petersburg Mining University, Department of Foreign Languages, 2, 21st Line, St Petersburg 199106, Russia | E-mail: elena.carter@hotmail.com

not utilized as a swear-word, and it does not carry negative connotations" (Kuzmin, 2004, 138). However, as it appears, from the viewpoint of its emotive evaluation, an English dictionary word "dog" can indeed convey one's negative attitude describing a man as "a worthless or contemptible person" (*Merriam–Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, 2003, 369).

It is important to mention that, in Russian idiomatic expressions, along with the expressive-and-emotive lexeme "собака" [dog], two more words can be used to cover the same notion: "пес" (lit. "male dog") and "кобель" (lit. "male dog"). While the word "собака" is applied to a "mean, worthless person, wretch" (Macura, 1999c, 2914), the lexeme "пес" refers to a "cur, wretch" (Macura, 1999b, 2040), and the word "кобель" defines a male as a "highly sexed or oversexed man" (Shlyakhov, Adler, 2006, 122).

Another point to be emphasized is that the evaluation bearers in phraseological texts are not only phrases but their text environment as well, motivating the use of expressions, and, from the viewpoint of its emotive evaluation, a context can be either positive or negative depending on the wish and will of the information author (source). With these considerations in mind, the challenges of adequate reproduction of the emotive-and-evaluative content of the information in the process of translating any proverbial metaphors, and the idiomatic expressions with the component "dog," in particular, seem to be obvious.

2. Previous Research

Metaphors are not only capable of showing the similarity of objects and phenomena but create the resemblance representing these entities in a new light. The fact that our conceptional system is not consciously acknowledged means that the resulting behavior is mostly automatic. What follows is that metaphors have the power to shape our perception of the world and can, to some extent, influence our actions.

Metaphor translatability and transfer methods have been extensively studied within the discipline of Translation Studies (Newmark, 1988; Vinogradov, 2001). The cognitive approach (Lacoff, Johnson, 2003) makes it clear that translatability is not only a matter of words but that is also inextricably linked to the conceptual systems of the source and target culture, since one's conceptualization of reality depends on the language one speaks. Though people have same human experience and observations, imagery wells from different conditions and habitat.

Animals have been frequently present in mythology, religious conceptions, teachings, philosophy, superstitions and customs, the lunar calendar and the allied zodiac. They have participated in the creation of language culture and can be found in art, literature as well as in the treasury of proverbial folk wisdom. Historically, all idioms and phrasemes have been coined to reflect a recurrent and generally shared experience drawing on those words and things that were in the center of such practice and observations. Though specific within the longer framework of phraseology, this holds for paremias, too.

There are a number of reasons to trace animal images of proverb lore. One of them is the possibility to focus on a plentiful source of metaphors in proverbial texts. "The other reason to study animal gallery of proverbs is the observation that there are both local and world-wide features in animal imagery used in proverbs" (Lauhakangas, 2019, 583).

It is impossible to list thousands of proverbial sayings and observations about dogs being widely different in different languages having been coined anonymously or by some famous people letting us know their preference and attitude to this animal. The "people are dogs" metaphor is an interesting case because, undoubtedly, the conceptualization of a man as a dog differs according to geographical circumstances and cultural values. While in the European tradition, the dog, the first animal domesticated by man and his faithful follower to death, is cared, and it "takes on various human traits, austerity of life, the respect and love of neighbor, its value and recognition, their devotion and tenderness for human companion" (Cristea, 2016, 183), in parts of Asia, the dog is bred and killed for its meat (Chase, 2002), thus being considered food for nourishment. As for the Muslim tradition, the dog is sometimes considered impure and, therefore, "a source of moral danger" (El Fadle, 2008, 448). In some cultures, the term "dog" may carry both positive and negative connotations, thus being classified as an ambivalent symbol. For instance, in China, the dog played and still plays an important and chiefly a positive role in the popular spiritual culture of several nationalities. However, due to its lower position on the traditional animal value scale, the motif of the dog is presumably the most suitable among the main domestic animals' motifs "for the purpose of pillorying the mistakes, faults, and shortcomings of man" (Hatalová, 2007, 183).

It is a common claim that translating by target language equivalents is the most productive way of making the rendering of paremias figurative. The presence of figurativeness in translation of proverbial sayings helps to communicate the necessary emotive evaluation. When using this method, translators have to observe that an equivalent is properly selected, viz. the chosen equivalent should be able to convey such target language idiom's indices for interpretation as meaning, usage, overtones, and style. Certainly, "all paremias without exception are situational in the sense that they are not only used in a certain situation, but are models or signs of that situation" (Permyakov, 1979, 136). The meaning of the proverb is very much dependent on the contexts in which it is used, and, hence, it should be analyzed in accordance with it. Similar paremias, irrespective of their language material, are concrete image variants of typical situations, the latter playing the role of invariants with respect to concrete proverbs. It is assumed that translation difficulties usually arise in the cases when there happens to be no corresponding idiom in the target language that can be used for rendition, or when the existing equivalent cannot be employed as it is because, for any reason, its contextual usage may be dubious. As it turns out, this issue is even more complicated in relation to the translation of paremias with the basic component "dog."

Paremias contain plenty of truth, wisdom, and knowledge which they express in a few colorful words. The message of the proverbial expression is communicated quickly and to the point, making it a very useful tool in political discourse. In his uplifting books, internationally acknowledged paremiologist Wolfgang Mieder provided much evidence that quite a number of well–known erudite American public figures were masterful employers of proverbs and, particularly, zoomorphic metaphors in their political speeches and in their writings (Mieder, 2000; Mieder, 2001). Some Soviet/Russian leaders (for instance, Vladimir Lenin, Joseph Stalin, and Mikhail Gorbachev) revealed their inclination for the use of paremias as well (McKenna, 2000; Meščerskij, 1981). There is no doubt that the application of proverbs added significantly to the communicative and emotional quality of such rhetoric to millions of people. As presidents and political figures struggled to find the right words to relate to people of different cultural, ethnic and intellectual backgrounds, they did well in citing of numerous animalistic paremias as sapient nuggets of human wisdom.

Nikita Sergeevich Khrushchev (1894 – 1971), a Russian politician, led the Soviet Union during the period of the Cold War. He served as the First Secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and as Chairman of the Council of Ministers. Khrushchev was responsible for the de-Stalinization of the country, for backing the progress of the early Soviet space program, and for several relatively liberal reforms in areas of domestic policy "during the Thaw" (Podolskiy, Voloshinova, 2019, 700). Ousted from power in 1964, Khrushchev became a pensioner living on the outskirts of Moscow. To keep himself going but also to make sure that his side of the story survived, Khrushchev dictated hundreds of hours of reminiscences. Many of the tapes were smuggled to the West, and in 1970, his first translated "herculean effort that became the centerpiece of his last years" (Taubman, 2003, 631) was published in America. After the collapse of the USSR, the politician's memoirs were finally published in Russia as well.

While Nikita Khrushchev's predilection for the proverbial rhetoric has been noticed and paid some attention to (Burlatsky, 2008; Dautova, 2011), there are relatively few studies that exemplify his contextual employment of ready-made bits of popular verbal genre (Carter, 2016; Carter, 2019), and there does not seem to be any research specifically focused on the use and the translation of the "dog–image" paremias. Thus, the present study is aimed at filling this gap.

The article provides the contrastive analysis of Russian paremias with the constituent element "dog" utilized in Nikita Khrushchev's celebrated recollections with their English translations. The etymology and cultural connotations of the idiomatic expressions are scrutinized as well. Special attention is paid to the discussion of commonalities and differences of the analyzed metaphors in the languages in question.

The comparative analysis of the contextual examples of rendering the Russian zoomorphic phraseological units into English shows that the main methods of their interpretation are the literal translation with the following commentaries and the translation by way of equivalents or analogues lacking in animalistic imagery. Of special interest are the cases when the "dog" component unexpectedly "appears" in the English version, or the adequacy of transferring the negative emotive overtone in certain contexts seems to be disputable.

3. Corpus and Methodology

In the present research, paremias with the *dog* component were examined in the parallel corpus, i.e. "a corpus that contains source texts and their translations" (McEnery, Xiao, 2007, 20), which includes the Russian memoir manuscript of Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev (Khrushchev, 2016a; Khrushchev, 2016b), along with their translations in the English language (*Khrushchev Remembers,* 1970; *Khrushchev Remembers,* 1974; *Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev,* 2004; *Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev,* 2006; *Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev,* 2007). According to McEnery and Xiao (2007, 18), "such corpora can give new insights into the languages compared – insights that are not likely to be noticed in studies of monolingual corpora;" they can be used for a range of comparative purposes and can increase our knowledge of language–specific, typological and cultural differences, as well as universal features. They can be used for a number of practical applications, for instance, in language teaching and translation (Sishchuk, Gerasimova, Goncharova, 2019).

After compiling a parallel corpus, the original texts and their translations were searched for the target phraseological units with the constituent element "dog." Then the subcorpus of text fragments with the phraseological forming component was compiled, and each example was analyzed in terms of conceptual metaphors as well as their possible linguistic equivalents/analogues, thus identifying the commonalities and distinctive features.

4. Analysis

4.1. Traditional proverbial expression "Вешать всех собак"

It is commonly assumed that paremias activate culturally established and accepted mental schemata. The origin of the Slavic phraseological unit "вешать всех собак" (lit. "to hung all dogs") is associated with one of the senses of the word "собака" [dog] that is a burdock, "a plant whose prickly, tenacious cones can easily cling to a person" (Dal, 2014, 92). It was believed that "a burdock hung on the clothes of enemies was a spell to bring them trouble" (Mokienko, 2018, 236). In Russian, this phrase means to unfairly charge anyone for everything. As can be seen from the examples given below, the Russian proverbial text "вешать всех собак" is unquestionably pertinent to the cases dealt with the unjust treatment of people or countries. This expression is thought not to be difficult for Russian native speakers to process and, though it involves a metaphor, it is not in need of any further explanation. However, the suggested literal translation in the first situation ("all dogs were being hung") might raise a question about the relevant mental schema of the metaphor being activated in the minds of the readers of the English–speaking world. But it is highly probable that the receptors could adequately decipher the emotive-and-evaluative content of the Russian transferred metaphor and comprehend it because of the commentary given in the parentheses. As for the other cases, this challenging proverbial text was rendered by way of the analogues lacking in animalistic imagery but certainly covering the meaning:

All the dogs were being hung on *Malinovsky at that time [**that is everything that went wrong was being pinned on him]**.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2004, 471)

Evidence was piling up *against Malinovsky.* (*Khrushchev Remembers,* 1970, 204)

На Малиновского ***вешали тогда всех собак.*** (Khrushchev, 2016a, 346)

All the blame was pinned on me *for this action at that time.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev,* 2007, 570)

На меня и тогда ***вешали всех собак*** *за эту акцию.* (Khrushchev, 2016b, 156)

After all, I remember how the Poles had denounced us in 1956 when the Soviet Union ***was blamed for everything****.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2007, 634)

Ведь помнил, как поляки поносили нас в 1956 году, когда ***всех собак вешали*** *на Советский Союз.* (Khrushchev, 2016b, 211)

Kir had many kind things to say about me, as it was pleasant to hear them at that tense moment when ***all the blame was being placed on*** *our policies and the capitalist press was trying to isolate us.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2007, 252)

Кир высказал много любезностей в мой адрес, и мне было приятно это услышать в напряженный момент, когда на нашу политику ***вешали всех собак****, и буржуазная пресса хотела нас изолировать.* (Khrushchev, 2016b, 593)

4.2. Variation of the universal paremia "Вот где собака зарыта!"

Paremias are not but metaphors, and, for this reason, person always shows his/her creative capacity to transmit any images and reveal to others what does not exist or remains hidden. The proverb "Вот где собака зарыта!" (lit. "this is where the dog is buried") is identified as having general currency in many languages: for instance, "in French (C'est là que le bât blesse), in Spanish (A burro muerto, la cebada al rabo), in Italian (Qui casca l'asino), etc." (Puchcho, 2012, 36). This paremia is definitely in need of historical and cultural explanation. With respect to the origin of this Russian adage, there are different views. As asserted by Mokienko (2018, 236), the Russian proverb "Вот где собака зарыта!" is a literal translation from the German phraseological unit "Hier liegt der Hund begraben." In German, the image of the black dog was associated with the evil spirit guarding the buried treasure. Later, the word "dog" began to be used to denote the treasure itself. An alternative view is that the dog was often the subject of sacrifices, especially during the construction of temples. When some of its pieces had been eaten by priests (who considered to join the divine mind in such a way), "the rest of the animal was buried near the moat" (Makovsky, 1999, 104). As for the paremia, it simply emphasizes that something is the root of the matter", i.e. "what's where the trouble lies" (Macura, 199b, 2914). This is exactly the way the Soviet Premier employed this metaphorical saying in the cases below, but the English renditions of one and the same proverbial saying were not identical in different editions (the literal translation with the following explanation and the analogue lacking in zoomorphic imagery):

*I felt that, most likely, this was **"where the dog was buried," the source of the problem.*** (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2004, 213)

*On the basis of what I was told, I sensed that **I had found the weak spot.*** (*Khrushchev Remembers*, 1970, 122)

*Я почувствовал, что именно **тут зарыта собака.*** (Khrushchev, 2016a, 172)

4.3. Proverbial saying "Собака, кусающая руку, кормящую ее хлебом"

The proverbial expression "Собака, кусающая руку, кормящую ее хлебом" [A dog biting the hand that feeds it] concerns the relationship between people and animals and has a metaphorical meaning. The phrase categorizes a dog's and a dishonorable man's behavior to be the same. Thus, the user of the saying accuses the other one of violating the moral order of the community. Despite many differences between the two languages compared, the highest correspondence of the Russian and the English proverbial metaphors in terms of meaning, structure and function can be observed:

*After his speech the Spanish Communist Comrade Dolores Ibarruri took the floor and responded to Hoxha with indignation. She compared him to **a dog biting the hand that feeds it**.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2007, 502)

*I remember Dolores Ibarruri's impassioned speech in which she likened Enver Hoxha to **a dog which bites the hand that feeds it.*** (*Khrushchev Remembers*, 1974, 268)

*После его выступления говорила товарищ Ибаррури, с возмущением отозвавшаяся о Ходже. Она его сравнивала с **собакой, кусающей руку, кормящую ее хлебом**.* (Khrushchev, 2016b, 102)

4.4. Modification of the proverbial comparison "Выть как стая бешенных собак"

When one needs to describe anybody's behavior not being accepted by the community, animals give stereotypic models for that. "In the Old Testament, the conceptualization of the servant as a dog emphasizes his low status and unimportance" (Waśniewska, 2018, 13). Albeit, it should be noted that at the time, when the Scripture was written, in Israel, dogs were mostly undomesticated and lived in large packs, posing an actual threat to humans. This suggests that, on the one hand, the meaning of the metaphor might have changed in a course of time, as did the attitudes toward the canine; on the other hand, the fear of dogs as aggressive animals who live and hunt in packs could be traced to present day proverbial expressions. One more recent instance of the usage of the "people are dogs" metaphor includes the negative portrayal of the bourgeois print media compared to a howling pack of rabid hounds in the translation of Khrushchev's memoirs published in 1974. It is particularly noteworthy that, in the original, it is not specified which of the canids (i.e. wolves, jackals, foxes, coyotes, or dogs) were making similar sounds in the "proverbial comparison on animal identity" (Krikmann, 2001, 21). Clearly, it comes as no surprise that this expanded English rendition of the Russian metaphor vividly entails the conceptualization of the "enemy" press as a pack of vicious and cruel animals:

*Then, we exploded our atomic bomb, the capitalist press **emitted a heartrending wail**. They said the Russians had gotten this bomb from Kapitsa, that he was a no-good so-good so-and-so, that he was the most prominent scientist living in our country, and that only he could have produced the bomb.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2006, 498)

*After we exploded our first atomic bomb, the bourgeois press started **howling like a pack of mad dogs** about how the Russians must have gotten their A-bomb from Kapitsa because he was the only physicist capable of developing the bomb.* (*Khrushchev Remembers*, 1974, 64)

*А когда мы взорвали свою первую атомную бомбу, **поднялся истошный вой** в буржуазной прессе: эту бомбу русские получили из рук Капицы, вот он такой-сякой, крупнейший ученый, живущий там, только он и мог создать ее.* (Khrushchev, 2016a, 871)

4.5. Proverbial expression "Собачья преданность"

It is widely recognized that through animals, man taught, clarified, revealed truths, being similar to animals. It has been noticed that "the faithfulness or devotion of the dog to his master is used as a metaphor for an ordinary man's devotion and loyalty to his master" (Hatalová, 2007, 167). The following, however, is an example of the "opposite" metaphorization when a positive feature of a dog serves as a metaphor of a negative characteristic of the delegate staff of the labor union representation in the workforce. It looks like the translators have managed to find the way to render the Russian phraseological text by the English full equivalent conveying the same type of overtones as the context of the original does:

*The trade unions didn't want to dirty their clothing by contract with representatives of the Soviet government, and they wanted to make a display of their **doglike loyalty** to capitalism and their hostility toward socialism.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2007, 123)

*Once again, I found myself faced with hostility on the part of American union leaders, who didn't want to stain their clothes by coming into contact with the representatives of the Soviet Union. They were demonstrating their **doglike loyalty** to capitalism and their unfriendliness toward socialism.* (*Khrushchev Remembers*, 1974, 401)

*Профсоюзы не хотели запятнать свои профсоюзные одежды контактом с представителями советского государства, демонстрировали свою **собачью преданность** капитализму и враждебность к социализму.* (Khrushchev, 2016b, 494)

4.6. Proverbial text "Верный пес"

We have some additional examples to illustrate the "opposite" metaphorization discussed above. It should be stressed that an animal in a proverb does not always point out the entire man but common attitudes, strong feelings, any thoughts or traits of character. According to Čermák (2014, 188), "the most common similes based on *dog* (*pes*) are those expressing loyalty." As can be seen in the instance below, although a dog figures as an epitome of loyalty, it surely conveys negative overtones while referring to the politicians of the capitalist countries. The translators of Khrushchev's memoirs used different ways of rendering this metaphor into English (a full equivalent and an analogue with the preserved animal image) to ensure the author's definite evaluation of certain public figures and to eliminate all possible doubts of the reader in this respect:

*I am not even talking about Iraq, where an extremely reactionary government was performing its functions during those same months [of 1957]. It was headed by a man who had been installed by the British imperialist, Nuri Said, a man of **doglike loyalty** to his colonialist masters.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2007, 870)

*Iraq had the most reactionary government of all the Arab states. The government was headed by Nuri Said, a puppet of British imperialism and **a faithful dog** of the colonialists.* (*Khrushchev Remembers*, 1974, 340)

*Я не говорю здесь об Ираке, где функционировало в те месяцы весьма реакционное правительство, возглавлявшееся ставленником британского империализма и **верным псом** колонизаторов Нури Саидом.* (Khrushchev, 2016b, 384)

*Even though I sometimes called Dulles a chained cur of imperialism or **a faithful dog** of capitalism, I knew the day would come when we would find a good word to say for him.* (*Khrushchev Remembers*, 1974, 363)

4.7. Standard proverbial comparison "Как цепной пес"

As mentioned above, animal metaphors suit well to characterize public figures belonging to different political camps. The Russian simile "как цепной пес" (lit. "as a chained male dog") in negative contexts certainly produces negative evaluation. As admitted by Hatalová (2007, 167), "a frequent source of metaphor or even of a symbol of man's incorrect or wrong action is the 'aggressive' behavior – barking or biting of the dog, in fact, only its necessary defense." So, we can observe an objective metaphorization, viz. a metaphorization in accordance with the empirical experience gained from the relationship with the animal or from the observation of the animal when a negative quality (being belligerent in this case) is metaphorized as a negative one in the same manner it is figuratively applied to man. Though it looks like the translators of the memoirs could find the English analogues to the Russian idiom to agree to the necessary overtones, the comparison of someone with a watchdog seems not to be quite the same as the comparison with an attack dog due to the difference of the animal's "duties":

*But blocking the path toward a relaxation of tensions was John Foster Dulles. He was **like a watchdog**, the way he sat down right next to Eisenhower and directed his every action.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2007, 41)

*But that **vicious cur** Dulles was always prowling around Eisenhower, snapping at him, if he got out of line.* (*Khrushchev Remembers*, 1970, 398)

*Но на пути к смягчению напряженности находился Даллес. Он, **как цепной пес**, восседал возле Эйзенхауэра, направляя его действия*. (Khrushchev, 2016b, 437)

*I was sure that Eisenhower understood everything, but he could not acknowledge that we were right, and Dillon was turned loose **as a kind of attack dog**.* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2007, 162)

*Я уверен, что Эйзенхауэр все понимал, но не мог признать нашу правоту, и Диллон был выпущен в качестве **цепного пса**.* (Khrushchev, 2016b, 524)

4.8. Common Russian paremia "Черного кобеля не отмоешь добела"

The identity of a man, namely, what makes a certain kind of man a certain kind of man, and distinguishes him/her from other people, the impossibility or possibility to change his/her identity is the metaphorical meaning represented by groups of paremias in literal meaning statements about the identity of the dog, or of the impossibility, or possibility to change the whole identity or appearance, qualities. "Most paremias within these groups were created only, or particularly for the reason of figurative expression, they originally had no real motivation derived from empirical experience" (Hatalová, 2007, 172). It seems that the Russian proverb "Черного кобеля не отмоешь добела" is one of such paremias.

Interpreters are to take into consideration undesirable connotations based on swear-words and try to avoid employing them. According to Kuzmin (1977, 91), "translators should never use the adjective 'black' with the meaning of 'bad' in relation to a human being – directly or indirectly," because it may cause insulting in English. There have been many attempts to render the Russian proverb "Черного кобеля не отмоешь добела" (lit. "A black male dog cannot be washed white"), concerning the animal identity when an animal retains the somatic features of its species (for example, fur or color) that "cannot be eliminated – changed" (Krikmann, 2001, 20).

Comparing the meaning, usage, and overtones of the Russian adage under discussion with those of the English translations, the point should be made that, though there is no linguistically discernible motivation of the Russian and English proverbs by the "кобель" ("he-dog") and "кот" ("he-cat") component, the suggested interpretations may impose the undesirable connotation on the English-speaking reader. The Biblical proverb "The leopard cannot change its spots" (Macura, 1999a, 1093)/ "You can't make a leopard change its spots" (Kuzmin, 2004, 144) might be the most applicable analogue in this case.

*We tried to whitewash Stalin, to clean him up. We acted contrary to the Russian proverb that says: "**You can't keep washing a black cat till it turns white.**" There's no doubt that he was **a black cat**, but still we were trying to **wash him white.*** (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2006, 212)

*Мы старались обелить Сталина, отмыть, действовали вразрез с русской поговоркой, что **черного кобеля не отмоешь добела**. Нет сомнения, что это был **черный кобель**, а мы его все-таки хотели **отмыть**.* (Khrushchev, 2016a, 646)

*During the Twentieth Congress everyone found out that Stalin had abused power, but we still trembled before the authority that Stalin had held in the past, so much so that we were unable to condemn his atrocities at the top of our voices. In this we were going against the Russian proverb that says, "**You can't keep washing a black cat until it turns white**."* (*Memoirs of Nikita Khrushchev*, 2007, 688)

*В ходе XX съезда все узнали, что Сталин злоупотреблял властью. Но мы еще так трепетали перед его былым авторитетом, что в полный голос не могли осудить его зверства, действуя вразрез русской поговорке, что **черного кобеля не отмоешь добела**.* (Khrushchev, 2016b, 251)

5. Conclusion

In view of the findings, it is clear that one of the themes in Nikita Khrushchev's metaphorical usage in memoirs is the likening of people to dogs. They are compared to hounds in many respects. The analyzed contextual illustrations of *dog*-image paremias are mostly the demonstrations of an objective metaphorization of the dog motif and, in some cases, an opposite one; the main parallels between a dog and a man occur in the abilities to guard and secure. As it appears, for the most part, the metaphorical use of the *dog*-image paremias in the Russian leader's writings is directly related to different policy-makers. The attention of the target audience is particularly focused on their behavior and actions which reveal the author's negative attitude. The repertoire of the animalistic idiomatic expressions by the Soviet politician definitely adds some expressiveness and colloquial color to his recollections occupied with his reflections on different historical and political events.

The English renditions of the Russian contextualized examples demonstrate various means of their realization in the target language: translating by equivalents or analogues. It has been found out that in order to make the English proverbial texts adequate, in the cases, when the target phraseological unit does not convey the meaning of the Russian idiom, the literal translation with the following commentaries and the translation by way of analogues lacking in zoomorphic imagery have been applied.

The discussed cases clearly show the challenges arising in connection with the translation of the "dog" metaphors from the original into the English language due to the obstacles, cultural and linguistic. Though some English analogues, deriving from the same source and coinciding literally, are used in the same figurative sense as their Russian counterparts are, thus not causing much trouble, others are challenging for translation into English. Therefore, translators should be aware of it and exercise great care in using the English metaphorical "dog" while rendering the Russian proverbial text with the same constituent element as it is evident that the emotive–and–evaluating content of the information must not be ignored and should be transferred into the target language as well to make the translation sound proverbial. Considering the fact that the paremias with the basic component "dog" reveal not only commonalities but also dissimilarities based on culture–related specific features, this area certainly demands further attention.

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Review research paper

THE BRAND SEMANTICS CULTURAL ADAPTATION STRATEGIES

Olga Glukhova

Rostov State University of Economics, Faculty of Linguistics and Journalism, Russia

Abstract. *The paper is an interdisciplinary study of brand semantics and the cultural adaptation strategies applied when transferring brand to international or different local markets. The study applies the conceptual approach to brand semantics and aims at outlining the brand semantic cultural adaptation strategies like value-based cultural adaptation and context-based cultural adaptation. The research provides the description of brand semantics in terms of semiotics, cognitive and cultural linguistics proving the brand semantics resemblances to that of cultural concept. The first section deals with brand semantic issues and proposes the method of linguo-cognitive analysis for the brand semantic investigation process. The second section views the brand translation and adaptation approaches in Translation Theories. The last section is devoted to cultural adaptation strategies application to brand constituents when transferring to another culture. Thus, the paper offers a cultural approach to brand translation studies and renders the brand semantics as a series of meanings transmitted by its material (trademark, logo, slogan, advertisement) and non-material (associations, value, uniqueness, inimitable style) constituents that, subjected to linguo-cognitive analysis, enable the application of context-based or value -based cultural adaptation strategy.*

Key words: *adaptation, translation, culture, brand, semantics*

1. INTRODUCTION

The problem of brand translation and cultural adaptation is the subject matter of both General and Specific Translation Theories. The brand semantics is a new field of interdisciplinary study that uses the data of linguistics, marketing, psychology, cognitive science and cultural linguistics. The brand semantics is considered to be of great current interest due to the global marketing processes that enable thousands of companies to represent their brands (goods and services) into the international and local markets that are different linguo-cultural environments.

The majority of language-based research deal with brand in the field of Translation theories offering the translation methods (Dong et al. 2001), linguistic strategies for brand translation based on aim-adaptation (Jiafeng Liu 2017, Hong et all 2002) or pragmatic (Stadulskaya 2014) approach. Though there are some studies that tend to investigate the

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Corresponding author: Olga Glukhova. Rostov State University of Economics, Faculty of Linguistics and Journalism, Bolshaya Sadovaya, 69, Rostovskaya oblast, 344002, Russia | E-mail: olga_glukhova_@mail.ru

«semantic space» of the phenomenon from the psychological (Alexandrova 2017), social (Ovrutskiy 2011) and cultural (Evsyukova et al 2018) point of view. The brand studies in terms of cultural and cognitive fields are few and lack the academic basis.

The paper offers a relevant research of theoretical ground for brand cultural and conceptual studies rendering brand as a series of meanings, notions, ideas and associations in the consumer's mind (that assimilates brand and cultural concept). As far as every culture conveys all mentioned above phenomena in its own way the brand semantic structure decoding process sometimes appears to be unsuccessful. The problem of brand translation and adaptation is to find the means of adequate culture-based translation with meaning significance special attention to all brand constituents.

The aim of the study is to outline the brand semantic cultural adaptation strategies like value-based cultural adaptation and context-based cultural adaptation.

The main method of the study is linguo-cognitive analysis that enables to investigate the brand inner form via the semantic structure that is transmitted by brand material (trademark, logo, slogan, advertisement) and non-material constituents (associations, value, uniqueness, inimitable style).

The main objectives of the paper are: to give the brand semantic studies analysis in different fields of knowledge; to provide an outlook of brand translation and adaptation strategies in linguistics; to describe and analyze the application of cultural adaptation strategies to a number of global brands.

2. Brand Semantics Studies Analysis

Brand semantic studies date back to marketing (Verkman 1986, Barns 2003, Cherchill 2007), linguistics (Stadulskaya 2014, Evsyukova, Glukhova 2011) and translation sphere (Pym 2004) of the past four decades that evaluate the problem of brand semantics in terms of brand name denotative and connotative components.

Nowadays the brand semantics as a complex and sophisticated interdisciplinary notion has become a subject of different investigation fields like psychology (Alexandrova 2017), linguistics (Buler 1993), social communication theory (Ovrutskiy 2011), philosophy (Shmigin 2009), cultural linguistics (Evsyukova, Glukhova 2011, Evsyukova et all 2018). It would be fair to say that every discipline defines brand semantics in its own way, taking into consideration various features of the phenomenon.

As soon as there are still not so many linguistic studies of brand semantics we aim at giving the essential definition for the needs of linguistic, cultural and translational research. For that purpose, the following passages outline the brand semantics view in areas of knowledge mentioned above and provide the basis for cultural and conceptual approach to brand semantic studies.

2.1. The symbolic approach to brand semantics

As symbol is one of the notions studied by cultural linguistics the symbolic approach appears to be relevant for the present research. The symbolic approach tend to refer brands as set of images, semiotic system based on symbols. According to A. Ovrutskiy brands are similar to images in "discursiveness, mosaic structure, atomicity, distancing from the author, heroic character (the product as the hero of brand" (Ovrutskiy 2011). The scientist describes some particular brand features like "universal character of brand's meaning perception". This feature turns out to be quite a disputable one. The experiment held in one of our previous studies showed significant differences in verbal trademark (a material constituent of brand) perception depending on social, cultural and linguocultural identity parameters (Glukhova, Evsyukova 2019). The second feature called "high impact potential" depends greatly on linguocultural environment. The third point is it's "semantics social capacity", which is sometimes very close to a cultural capacity. The next point deals with goods' quality symbolization, meaning identification and image projection potential. A. Ovrutskiy states that brand possesses a number of signs organized in layers, some resources for social involvement (that deals with needs and their satisfaction) and social cognition.

The author points out the resemblance between brand and archetype. But the most noticeable idea of A. Ovrutskyi in terms of the article is rendering brands as semiotic system or a sign language with syntax, semantics and pragmatics as general constituents. The author sees the brand syntax in its metaphorical or metonymical organization explicated in both verbal and visual elements (Ovrutskiy 2011). The brand pragmatics, according to A. Ovrutskiy, is realized by means of either brand identification or brand projection. The identification here is human consciousness equaling to the external image (brand), leading to special behavior models appearance. The projection is the opposite process that grants the features of internal psychological phenomena to the external images.

The brand syntax according to Ovrutskiy reveals in metaphorical and metonymical organization of brand denotative structure. As to the brand semantics, the author denotes it via social meanings like gender, age, social values, political preferences (Ovrutskiy 2011). The most essential for the present study is social value meaning speculation as it implies the axiological vector.

2.2. The psychological approach to brand semantics studies

The psychological approach deals with brand semantics in terms of perception. Irina Alekdandrova offers a unique description of a brand semantic space (Aleksandrova 2017) based on the meaning definition given by Lontyev who renders it as "generalised reflection of reality that has become the property of my consciousness, developed by mankind and fixed in the form of concept, knowledge and even skill as a generalised way of action" (Cit. by Aleksandrova 2017). Hence, the semantic space of the brand is a system of its subjectively significant features formed in the mind of the consumer, determining the specifics of brand perception and acting as an operational model of cognitive structure of consumer's individual consciousness. This definition comes close to the ideas of concept in linguistics and cognitive science.

The author points out that brand image in consumers' mind differs greatly from the brand image implied by the creator. The idea has already been elaborated in our previous paper dealing with cultural differences in brand perception (Evsyukova, Glukhova 2020).

2.3. The brand semantics in linguistic studies

The present brand studies in linguistics render them mainly as semiotic system. Some brand constituents like verbal trademarks were elaborated in works of N. A. Stadulskaya (the semiotic and pragmatic view) (Stadulskaya 2014) and O. Glukhova, T. Evsyukova (the linguocultural aspect) (Evsyukova, Glukhova 2011). L. Fedorova (Fedorova 2019) holds a semiotic analysis of such brand constituents as slogans and credit them with three main functions of any sign: identification, regulation and modeling. In K. Buler terminology sign function are symptoms, signals and sygnals (Buler 1993). The semiotic model correlates the brand and the two aspects of sign: the denotatum (the product or service) and significatum (the image capable of having impact on buyer.

2.3.1. The brand connotations

The connotative meaning of a brand contains suggestion or association of various nature (phonetic, cultural, religious etc.). The framework of the paper provides the cultural connotations issues.

The study is based on the idea of cultural connotations being the semantic components that embody the material and spiritual culture specific features of a particular linguocultural community. This is a heterogeneous semantic component that grounds such generalized semes like "ethnicity", "locality", "historical attribution", "socio-political activity", "sociocultural information", "confessional affiliation". The brand constituents that realize the above mentioned semes are considered to be culturally significant. Thus, trademarks contain various types of toponyms related to national and cultural information.

The use of geographical names makes it possible to transfer the figurative motifs inherent in the area itself to the idea of products. Let us consider some examples: NOKIA - a telecommunications company, from Nokia - a city located in Finland on the banks of the Nokianvirta River; WINSTON is a brand of cigarettes from Winston – Salem - a city in the state of Carolina, a historical center for the commodity sheet processing etc.

Cultural and historical connotations are of great value in the structure of the brand meaning and reflect the referent lifetime in a particular national and cultural community. Here are some examples of brands exploiting the names of well-known people: TUDOR - a trademark in mechanical engineering, associated with the English Tudor dynasty; ERMAK - mayonnaise associated with the Russian national hero.

Some brands use the national ideas conveyed with the help of modern expressive means”. This gives them a special national flavor and compares favorably with the goods of other countries of the world. For example, the English language environment is characterized by the following realities: WHITEHALL - a street in the center of London, and the record trademark; BIG BEN – a famous tower clock that has become a symbol of the city (a trademark of smoking pipes). For Russian culture, the following examples of national culture realities are: RUSSIA TROIKA - chocolate, associated with the traditional team of three horses - a symbol of Russia; TSAR-PUSHKA - beer, reminiscent of the national heritage, etc.

The cultural connotations in the brand semantic structure realize the connection with the national culture and appeal to the most significant phenomena of ethnic value system.

2.3.2. The brand semantics in cultural linguistics

As long as there is still no any sufficient linguistic definition of brand semantics and it is essential in terms of choosing translation and adaptation strategies we bare to offer some speculations on the phenomenon.

Taking into consideration the data of sociology and psychology that render brands as images in consumer’s mind we come close to the idea of cultural concept.

The concept according to Slyshkin G.G. is a “conventional mental unit aimed at comprehensive study of language, consciousness and culture” (Slyshkin 2004). Brand, as it was stated earlier, is a series of meanings, notions, ideas and associations in the consumer’s mind. To present the argument for the idea of brand similarity to concept let us consider the concept structure. Slyshkin G.G. outlines the most important features of linguocultural concepts that we introduce to brands.

1. *The complex character of existence*. It is simultaneously presented consciousness, culture and language. As for the brand it also has different manifestations: verbal, mental and cultural (cultural differences in perception for example).

2. *The mental origin of the concept*. The concept is located in consciousness thus making any investigation of concept to be a cognitive in its nature. The brand semantics studies seem to be similar to that of cognitive analysis.

3. *The concept is limited by the member consciousness*. "Any elements of the concept missing in the person or group consciousness do not implicate the conceptual structure of a person or a group" (Evsyukova, Butenko 201)].

4. *The value character of concept*. Every linguocultural concept foregrounds some cultural value. The value is the core of the concept. Brands like concepts bare values, transmit them and are capable of forming new ones (Evsyukova et al. 2018).

5. *The conventional character and indistinctness of concept*. Brands are also conventional units and all the constituents' meanings intermingle and intersect. Brands as well as concepts are indistinctive in human consciousness. They have a core (a product or a service) and different associative vectors. The most person's significant associations build up the core of the brand for a particular consumer, the less significant – its edge.

6. *Polyappealing character*. The concepts like brands become active in people's minds by means of associations according to "stimulus-reaction" model. The brand image can be "switched on" by different stimulus like word, visual image, picture, sound, smell, surface etc. The conceptual analysis of brand semantics implies the investigation of such stimuli (in other terms signs) semantics.

All stated above leads us to the idea of linguo-conceptual analysis appliance to the subject study.

2.3.3. The linguo-cognitive analysis in brand semantics studies.

The method of linguo-cognitive analysis is the main tool of cognitive linguistics and deals with concepts by means of two types of approach: "from meaning to language", where a certain concept of culture appears as meaning, and «language» is all possible ways of concept verbalization; "From language to meaning" (semantic-cognitive), where a key linguistic unit (word, phrase, paremia) is taken as a starting point and examined for the presence of special semantic features that actualize a "clot of meaning" - a concept (Evsyukova et al. 2020, 113).

The linguo-cognitive analysis of brand semantics implies the both types of procedures. The first way of brand image decoding is used by a creator, who aims to some value and seeks the means verbalizing it in order to make the product or service attractive. The second procedure is used unconsciously by a consumer when bringing brand signs (verbal and non-verbal) into correlation with his own value system.

But when it comes to the translation and adaptation issues of brand both procedures take place one after another.

3. Brand Translation and Adaptation Strategies in Linguistics

3.1. Adaptation studies in Translation Theories

The question of translation and adaptation differentiation is quite a disputable one in nowadays humanities. The traditional science renders Translation as the process (and its result) of accurately rendering the meaning of a verbal expression in natural language 1 in a different natural language 2. Adaptation is considered to be a process that draws attention to its reproductive act and is often understood as free translation (Cattrysse 2018).

In terms of semasiology R. Jacobson differentiates intra-lingual and inter-semiotic translation and the last one is described as transfer from one semiotic system to another (Jacobson 2000). Back to our previous notions of brands being a semiotic system the adaptation appears to be the most effective strategy in exporting brands across the markets.

The Dictionary of translation studies defines adaptation as “any target text in which a particularly (free) translation strategy has been adopted”. The adaptation deals with phenomena that do not exist in a target culture and that need much rewording” (Shuttleworth & Cowie 1997). All stated above leads to the appearance of different adaptation approaches that are to be discussed further.

Garbovskiy N.K defines adaptation as «one of the semantic translation techniques and is used in translation theory to denote such type of transformation that results not only in a particular objective situation description change, but the replacement of the very objective situation» (Garbovsky 2004: 406). The positive property of this technique - to make it easier for the translated text recipient to understand the original meanings.

3.2. Brands’ adaptation strategies

The recent-year Theory of translation witnesses the appearance of new approaches to the translation process like aim-adaptation approach (Lisha Zeng 2014, Jiafeng Liu 2017) and localization (Pym, 2004, Evsyukova, Glukhova 2019) and cultural adaptation suggested in this paper.

The aim-adaptation approach implies the “aim-needs of the clients and the targeted customers as decisive factors, making the translator select part of the intended information in the original text or create new meaning desired by the clients and the targeted customers in the translated version”. The author proves his ideas outlining adaptability as «the property of language which enables human beings to make negotiable linguistic choices from a variable range of possibilities in such a way as to approach points of satisfaction for communicative needs» (Jiafeng Liu 2017).

Jiafeng Liu investigates the pragmatic issues of brand names translation and considers that the «meanings the brand has to convey in the translated name may completely differ from those the original brand name does. As a result, the translating of brands is not a simple decoding and encoding process but a linguistic adaptation of the aim-needs of the clients and the targeted consumers» (Jiafeng Liu 2017). Among all strategies of aim-adaptation approach used for brand-name translation he mentions phonetic, lexical and semantical adaptation.

Mohsine Khazrouni also insists on the importance of target audience translation as extra-linguistic factor especially dealing with cultural or religious themes (Khazrouni 2017).

Thus, adaptation turns out to be the most preferable technique of brand rendering into another language, since the differences in the original value system and the receiving one can be extremely significant, making brand semantic structure be a translator of alien meanings, cause the opposite pragmatic effect and make the brand unattractive.

3.2.1. Brands' cultural adaptation approach

According to L. Chan "adaptations are like domesticated translations, where target values, conventions and norms are superimposed on the source text, cultural differences are erased and the foreign becomes palatable for the local audience" (Chan 2012). The cultural adaptation implies the adaptation of a brand by means of certain procedures to an extremely adequate, «completely corresponding, coinciding, identical» (Garbovsky, 2004: 489) by another culture reader perception.

The cultural adaptation approach used in the research is based on the data of cognitive translation studies (Shreve 2016, 141) that deal with information «processing stages» like comprehension, transfer and production, corresponding to the processes of brand semantic structure linguo-cognitive analysis procedures stated above.

The linguo-cognitive analysis suggests the brand semantic elements conceptual, value and cultural context consideration that leads to the appearance of some basic cultural adaptation strategies.

4. Brand Cultural Adaptation Strategies Application

4.1. The context-based brand adaptation strategy

The contextual adaptation is based on the idea of common knowledge among one culture representatives. This knowledge plays the role of a context, which may not correspond to another culture context in terms of content and capacity. The context manifests in all the constituents of brand semantic structure: visual image, advertising, slogan, trademark. Thus, the package indication "Does not contain GMOs" can have completely different effects on the consumer in different cultures. The European market renders this brand element as a successful, "selling" one, in Russia it was not significant until recent times, as for the developing countries of Africa, in the face of food shortages, the presence or absence of GMOs neither makes difference nor contributes to the brand pragmatic function implementation. Thus, the socio-economic or historical-cultural context, as well as the prevalence of certain concepts, ideas or values, turns out to be decisive when choosing a strategy for brand adaptation in the host culture.

According to G. Hofstede, "the content and the scope of knowledge differs from one culture representative to another" (Hofstede, 2015, 11). The author claims the knowledge content depends on culture basic axiological attitudes like individualism or collectivism and suggests using simplified ("without hints") text versions in individualist cultures, and polysemantic texts with a wide range of associations in collectivist cultures.

The current concepts that activate context layer also differ from country to country. Thus, the cholesterol level issues are important in Russia because it causes cardiovascular system diseases - the first and state level of the discussed cause of death in the country. The product with a low-level cholesterol indicator becomes a key hook in Russian market. Sergey Vykhodtsev, the founder of the Bystrov brand, for example, is building the positioning and advertising campaign of his products on the use of fiber contained in soy (Vitaven) - a panacea for cholesterol1. In United States, where the problem of cholesterol is not so popularized, the key word is "calorie" and vitamin content. For example, Kraft Foods' Tang Fruitrition brand is advertised in the US as containing vitamin E, in the Philippines as a source of iron.

The next example is the iWatch slogan by Apple “You. At a glance. " The slogan was interpreted in Russian as follows - “Скажут о тебе все и сразу» (They will say everything about you at once). This interpretation of the slogan was unfortunate in Russia. The fact is that shortly before the release of the Apple watch in Russia, the Yarovaya package was released. It contains two bills, one of which obliges to store information about all negotiations that are conducted by means of network and telephone. These bills caused a flurry of negative comments. Moreover, people began to worry about their "virtual life" security. Also, this slogan is associated with the phrase of the Russian writer Mikhail Zhvanetsky: "Usually you want everything at once, but you get nothing gradually." This statement means that it takes effort to achieve goals, but some people are lazy and impatient because they want instant results. The fear for one's "virtual life" in conjunction with this statement had an extremely negative connotation. Apple did not consider these facts when implementing the product. The product could not fully adapt and localize. It was this slogan that contributed to the low sale and distribution of new watches on the Russian market.

4.2. The value-based brand adaptation strategy

The of value-based brand adaptation strategy implies the set of basic culture values analysis and the target group set of value attitudes (as even within the same culture there may exist subcultures with an extremely polar worldview), a set of concepts that appeal to certain values, concepts verbalization means, associative fields of linguistic units that actualize the identified concepts.

The brand values may not always suit the taste of another culture representatives. In value-based adaptation process we should take into account such culture characteristics like: the hierarchy of society, democratic relations in society and in the family (Hofstede 2015: 23).

Let us see some examples. The EA Sports computer games manufacturer sells the products in the US market under the slogan “Challenge Everything”. When the advertisement was transferred to the Eastern Europe countries with a high level of hierarchy and non-conflict orientation, the slogan caused a lot of protests.

The other example is one of McDonald's slogans: "We love to see you smile". The slogan, when adapted for the Russian market, was translated by tracing. But, in the end, it tuned up to be imperceivable in Russia, that is, the slogan failed to successfully localize. This problem is related to the mentality peculiarity. The fact is that Russians smile in public very rarely, compared to people from other countries like England, United States, Spain, etc. That is, a smile is a national feature of these countries. This feature became an adaptation error. Therefore, in this case, the tracing method turned out to be an unsuccessful strategy for the successful Russian market localization.

The slogan of the American company Burger King "You're the boss" - which in Russian reads as follows - "Ты здесь главный” (You are in charge here) is a good example of value-based adaptation. An equivalent translation was used in Russian translation. The word "boss" is not perceived in Russian culture as someone in charge and has some negative connotation, so it is not preferable. Consequently, the word was replaced during translation. Dahl's Explanatory Dictionary of the Russian Language gives the following definitions with the word “главный": 1. Basic, most important; 2. Senior in rank; 3. Leading something. That is why, when translating into Russian, an acceptable word for Russian culture was chosen. This product continues to gain popularity in Russia among people of any gender and age.

The slogan "Love London Style" by British cosmetics brand Rimmel London is another example. The slogan is translated into Russian as "London Style". This translation, point at the propensity to borrow as the feature of Russian culture acquired over time. The very openness to everything foreign in the Russian mind is a value. Ever since the time of Peter the Great, Russia began to import European clothing and technology, adopted a way of life and ideology. “Peter the Great took state forces, supreme power, law, estates from old Russia, and borrowed technical means from the West for the organization of the army, navy, state and national economy, and government institutions,” wrote Russian historian Vasily Klyuchevsky in the beginning of 20th century. Until now, there is an opinion in Russia that “foreign means the best”. Moreover, nowadays there is a widespread “hipster” style of London among young people, which is shown by models in Rimmel's advertisements. This slogan is also aimed at the overwhelming number of buyers of this product, that is, young people. Using an associative dictionary, you can find out that one of the main associations with the word "style" is the adjective "youth". That is, this slogan, aimed at the younger generation, evokes native associations and thereby "incites" them to make a purchase. This strategy was the right decision and that is why this cosmetic company is successful in the Russian market.

7. Conclusion

The problems discussed in the paper deal with the global phenomenon of brand and correspond to the modern trends of interdisciplinarity in humanitarian knowledge. Despite the great number of brand translation strategies studies there can still be seen some challenges when locating in different cultures. The study exploits the cultural approach and renders the brand semantic structure as a series of meanings transmitted by its material (trademark, logo, slogan, advertisement) and non-material constituents (associations, value, uniqueness, inimitable style), which could be studied by means of linguo-cognitive analysis.

The basis for the stated ideas lies in a complex brand semantics character that turns out to be a sophisticated interdisciplinary notion and has become a subject of different investigation fields like psychology, linguistics, sociology, philosophy. The study of brand semantics social, psychological and linguistic observation rendering it as set of images, a system of its subjectively significant features formed in the mind of the consumer or semiotic system correspondingly supports the conceptual view of brand semantics. The characteristic features of concept like complex character of existence, the mental origin, the value character, polyappealing character and others match those of brands and enable the linguo-cognitive analysis. The linguo-cognitive analysis suggests the brand semantic elements conceptual, value and cultural context consideration that leads to the appearance of some basic cultural adaptation strategies

The contextual adaptation is based on the idea of common knowledge among the culture representatives. The of value-based brand adaptation strategy implies the set of basic culture values analysis and the target group set of value attitudes, a set of concepts that appeal to certain values, concepts verbalization means, associative fields of linguistic units that actualize the identified concepts. The importance of culture-oriented approach is illustrated by brand name adaptation examples and leads to more profound studies of the subject.

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Review research paper

TRASH TO TREASURE: INTEGRATING ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS INTO UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM

Polina Vasileva, Vadim Golubev, Ildar Ibragimov, Svetlana Rubtsova

St Petersburg University, Russia

Abstract. *Over the last decade, educators around the world have paid increasing attention to raising public awareness of the need to make concerted efforts to provide a sustainable future for this planet. Many scientists and eco-activists have done a lot to develop public environmental consciousness using different educational tools. This paper discusses integrating environmental awareness into academic curriculum. It analyses the introduction of an environmental component to the English for the Media course offered at St Petersburg University. The experimental study was conducted for three semesters: in the spring semester of 2019 (February - May 2019), the fall semester of the same year (September - December 2019) and the spring semester of 2020 (February - May 2020). It involved 65 first - and second-year journalism students. Media professionals are responsible for changing the way people look at the environment. Project-based learning helps students to expand their environmental repertoires such as shaping public perception of 'green consumerism' as a fashionable trend. The growing awareness of environmental issues requires shaping consumer's mindfulness about obliteration and depletion of natural resources through irresponsible activities. The trash-to-treasure and eco-comics projects are lightweight, exciting and effective tools of raising environmental awareness in future media practitioners and enhancing their scientific writing skills. Using these skills journalists can make their environmental messages accessible to a broader public.*

Key words: *project method, ESP, environmental education, multi-disciplinary approach, eco-comics, critical thinking*

1. INTRODUCTION

The environmental challenges of humanity caused by climate change and the fast rate of industrialization require implementing transformative strategies for establishing green, resource-efficient and low carbon communities.

In 2015, the UN drafted the resolution on sustainable development "Transforming our world: The agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development". The paper established 17 sustainable development goals including 169 associated targets which are drafted for stimulating initiative, monitoring performance and levering compliance.

Goal 13, which is called "Take urgent actions to combat climate change and its impacts," sets the following objectives: "Improve education, awareness-raising and human

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Corresponding author: Polina Vasileva. St Petersburg University, Russia | E-mail: p.vasilyeva@spbu.ru

and institutional capacity on climate change mitigation, adaptation, impact reduction and early warning" (UN 2015, p.23).

In this regard, one of the most powerful tools for increasing global environmental consciousness is to adjust environmental policy based on environmental education.

Increasingly, universities are encouraged to contribute to the sustainability of the planet. Thus, St Petersburg University (SPbU) in Russia launched its first Green Campus sustainability initiatives in 2015. Based on sustainable development principles, the university's environmental strategy includes research and academic activities aimed to raise environmental awareness in students and academic staff.

The main principles of the University's environmental policy include the following:

- the system approach to developing educational courses, carrying out research, fulfilling current and long-term objectives of the University;
- implementation of interdisciplinary and international projects aimed at studying the relationships within the "nature-society-man" system (SPbU, 2015).

It is stating the obvious that the University authorities are concentrated on creating new training interdisciplinary courses and integrating them into university curriculum to prepare future generations for a green society. In our previous publication, we examined the relationship between public awareness, attitude and environmental behavior of journalism students through eco-comics (Vasileva, Golubev, 2019). In the current paper we focus on implementing the project method as an effective educational medium for integrating environmental consciousness projects into academic curriculum. Eco-comics as well as the project method are examples of inquiry-based approaches enhancing future journalist scientific environmental knowledge and professional writing skills.

In our experimental study we implemented the trash-to-treasure project work concerning students' environmental behavior and consumption pattern, willingness and readiness to accept new sustainable fashion trends and green consumerism. The trash-to-treasure project in English is tightly connected with artistic skills development as it promotes students' creativity with recyclables. It can be regarded as a powerful instrument to boost the idea of zero waste consumerism and students' personal contribution to it on a global scale.

2. The Project Methodas a Progressive Educational Paradigm

The project method is often defined as a symbol of progressive education in the European and American pedagogical literature. The name of the American scholar William H. Kilpatrick has known worldwide as "Mr. Project Method" after publishing his famous essay "The Project Method" in 1918. Kilpatrick's ideas were based on the authentic comprehensive and coherent educational theory of J. Dewey who promoted a child-centered approach in education. In fact, the project method has rather long and fascinated history grown out of the architectural and engineering education movement that began in Italy during the late 16^{th}century. Later in the 1970s, the idea of the project method was rediscovered and received its third wave of its international dissemination as Michael Knoll marked (Knoll, 1997).

It is noteworthy that project method as a teaching tool has evolved from the pragmatism philosophy based on the principle that the usefulness, workability and practicality of ideas, policies and offers are the criteria of their merit.

We can find a great variety of teaching approaches, strategies, methods and even theories of cognitive structures based on the fundamental ideas of the progressive educational movement of the early 20th century. For example, the concept of the constructivism theory is distinguished as “an approach to learning that holds that people actively construct or make their own knowledge and that reality is determined by the experiences of the learner” (Elliot, 2000).

In the 1970s the outstanding Soviet educator Lev Vygotsky developed his psychological theory on sociable constructivism. According to the theory, learning is a collaborative process and knowledge develops from individuals’ interactions with their culture and society (Vygotsky, 1978).

According to our strong belief, such teaching approaches as inquiry-based learning and project-based learning, case-study and problem-solving methods, discovery or expeditionary learning can be regarded as derived notions of the original term “project method” with almost identical meaning. W. Kilpatrick defined the concept as “whole hearted purposeful activities” focused on acquiring practical skills and putting them into practice. Thus, the key target of any project task is to move learners towards getting some practical skills needed to be performed. Project method practitioners promote the idea of implementing learning through acting and experiencing.

Having reviewed on the project methodology, we can determine five distinguishing characteristics of the project method:

- learner-centered and content-based learning focused on providing problem-solving teaching strategy;
- encourage acquiring practical knowledge and its natural integration of skills;
- mastering the ability to group-work, cooperation and responsibility for one’s own work;
- motivational benefits and developing critical thinking skills and ability to look for non-standard solutions;
- require teachers and students to assume new roles and responsibilities; teachers serve as resources, facilitators and guides along the learning process.
- Summarizing the value of using project method in the classroom, we can distinguish the following drawbacks:
- it is only supplementary educational approach, not all subjects and whole subject content can be taught by it;
- it does not provide clear instructions for teachers how to plan and execute projects within the frame of academic curriculum.

In our experimental study we took into consideration the highlighted disadvantages. But we tried to give freedom to our students to create something new that could be really powerful and influential to follow the ideas of green consumerism through the trash-to-treasure project work. We provide the review of the students' projects in the next section.

2.1. Using the project method in the ESP classroom

Various educational fields have successfully used project-based learning as an effective educational tool to foster learner’s motivation and new knowledge acquisition related to the real world. There are a number of scientific papers covering the issues of the project method application at the level of pre-school, early-school and secondary school education.

Educators have highlighted numerous benefits and assumptions of using the project-based learning approach in applying it for teaching foreign languages. Firstly, it assumes a shift from teacher-centered memorization to student-centered investigation. Thus, it provides development of learner's ability to cooperate and enhancement of students' critical thinking and writing skills. Students are engaged in dealing with real-world tasks and materials.

Secondly, the key value of the project method concept is to give freedom from the traditional teaching approach which motivates students to learn through acting and experience as well as problem-solving activities.

Currently, project work is a crucial element for academic curriculum of tertiary education, as it provides interdisciplinary link between language acquisition and professional skills whatever field it can apply for. Particularly, it promotes developing professional journalist writing skills. As some researchers stress (Bolsunovskay, 2015) the main strength of the method is that students immediately turn to the specialty no matter which year of study they are in.

The other Russian scholar E.S. Polat (Polat, 2001) distinguished five main types of project work, in terms of dominating activity, relevant to teaching foreign languages: research, informative, creative, role-playing, practice-oriented. All the determined project types are applicable in the ESP classroom.

As we have previously noted, the project method fosters students' ability of collaboration and team work performing various functions: duty-holder, initiator, expert and researcher.

Last but not least, being involved in team work students make their own contribution to a shared work that motivates them for further development of their professional toolbox. This advantage of implementing projects in academic curriculum was highlighted by the British educator D.L. Fried-Booth in his publication covering the issue of project work (Fried-Booth, 2002).

3. Results

3.1. Discussion of experimental study

We have been tackling the issue of shaping environmental consciousness of students by interactive teaching methods in the English classroom since February 2019. The experimental study was conducted during the following three semesters: in the spring semester of 2019 (February - May 2019), the fall semester of the same year (September - December 2019) and the spring semester of 2020 (February - May 2020). It involved 65 first- and second-year journalism students.

During the first stage (February 2019 -May 2019) we ran an experimental project at the School of Journalism and Mass Communications of St. Petersburg University in public environmental awareness through eco-comics. The experimental study involved 38 first-year students. The second stage was in the fall semester of the same year (September - December 2019) and it was held in 2 groups involving 27 first-year students of journalism. In both cases the key target of the project was to motivate and inspire students to create their own eco-comics covering a diverse range of the environmental issues. Our research hypothesis was that eco-comics could be used as an effective educational tool for developing environmental awareness in students of journalism. While it seemed to be working in the classroom, we received devastating results at the evaluating stage of the experimental teaching. Three weeks after presenting their eco-comics projects the students were asked to do a questionnaire that consisted of seventeen factual questions about climate change. The purpose of the survey was to identify the respondents' awareness of climate change and reveal their perception of global warming. Unfortunately, about 30% of the respondents did not find the issue of climate change personally important to them even after having learned of its serious implications for the planet.

Nevertheless, getting a negative result of using eco-comics in the ESP classroom inspired us to continue our project-based teaching. During the spring semester of 2020 (February - May 2020) we asked the students to complete a new project entitled *Trash to Treasure*. The target was to shape ecological consciousness of students of journalism via developing their recycling skills. We decided to change our teaching strategy a little and appealed more to the students' experience with sustainable (eco) fashion and green consumption trends.

The trash-to-treasure project consisted of four stages: the introductory stage, the analytical stage, the activity-oriented stage, and the evaluating stage.

Initially, taking into consideration our previous rather negative experience of shaping environmental consciousness of students via comics we did not ask students to study voluminous materials from English textbooks or to read numerous texts from the media related to environmental issues paying particular attention to thematic vocabulary prior to their project work as we had done in the eco-comics project. Instead, at the introductory stage the students were offered to watch several exciting short YouTube videos presenting the trash-to-treasure conceptas a creative way of giving old things a new life. The students were easily hooked by the idea. It was a good beginning for further constructive discussion about the consequences of climate change and how they could contribute to climate change mitigation on a daily basis by conducting a zero waste lifestyle. Then they were offered to read some blogs promoting the zero waste concept as a real attempt to reduce one's carbon footprint in the world. Through reading, discussion and translation the students learned environmental vocabulary.

As we pointed out in our early paper (Vasileva, Golubev, 2019) environmental vocabulary contains many special terms which meanings are not always clear to the students (e.g. carbon dioxide emissions, greenhouse gases, energy efficient, industrial waste, toxic fumes, wastewater treatment, recycling, upcycling, low carbon, fossil fuels, urban sprawl, carbon footprint, illegal dumping, manmade disasters, landfills, sustainable fashion and sustainable development). Building up mind maps for better memorizing new words is one of the most effective approaches which we often apply in our teaching practice. Another method to boost students' memory capacity is creating association links. A student proposed a fascinated scheme explaining the zero waste concept stressing the connection of "4R rule" (Fig.1). It can be used as a training hand-out.

Fig.1 Zero waste concept

Due to the Covid-19 lockdown, students were taught online in the spring semester of 2020 (February - May 2020). It required effective training methods that would help the students learn new vocabulary on the topic. The game-based learning platform Kahoot we used for this purpose allowed us to create, share and play learning games. This platform was originally created to teach English as well as other subjects to children. However, its competitive spirit made it a good tool for the ESP classroom. The students were given the task to build a vocabulary list in the form of a Kahoot quiz game. This approach is known as edutainment. A number of researchers and educational theorists have adopted the principles of edutainment learning in the university teaching practice (Zorica, 2014; Vasileva, 2017).

The analytical stage of the experiment was concentrated on reading texts, watching YouTube videos and discussing ecological and social issues that have been caused by the rapid development of fast fashion over the last two decades. The students studied materials on the concept of sustainable and ethical fashion. Some of them prepared short presentations about the devastating consequences of fast fashion. In their presentations they pointed out such problems as human rights violations, the rate of consumption, chemical pollution, water and textile waste. Some students made posters against the global mass market (Fig. 2) revealing the real cost of cheap garments produced by H&M, Zara, BeFree etc.

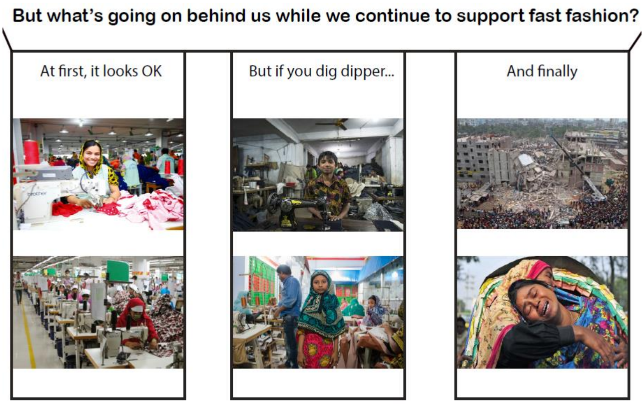

Fig.2 Mass market and human rights violations

At the third stage the students presented their project work that demonstrated their commitment to sustainable future. They were not limited in the choice of issues to be covered and ways of shaping public environmental consciousness. Many students were highly inspired to do project work based on their personal experience. As a result, they created fascinating upcycling products. The fashion industry is notorious for its massive waste problem; the big business is frequently called out for being one of the largest polluters globally. It is a remarkable thing that the restrictions imposed by the pandemic have led to raising popularity of upcycling fashion. Some students shared their personal upcycling experience (Fig.3, Fig.4). They made new prints for old garments and trendy shoppers with authentic print from old-fashioned clothing items.

Fig.3 New print on old garment

Fig. 4 Authentic print for a hand-made shopper

Most students devoted the projects to hand-made crafts or recyclables for decorating home interiors or countryside spaces. Vintage objects create atmospheric interior design (Fig.5, Fig.6). They seemed to be inspired by short YouTube videos watched at the first stage of our experimental study.

Fig. 5 Recyclable for decorating home interiors or countryside spaces

Fig. 6 Vintage-style recyclables

In the Russian pre-school and primary school, children often learn crafts to develop their practical skills. A student proposed a brilliant idea to create a puppet theatre with toilet paper tubes as one of the ways of promoting public environmental consciousness at an early stage of education (Fig.7).

Fig. 7 Children's handicraft recyclables

We believe that the trash-to-treasure creative ideas were best implemented in the Russian countryside setting (Fig.8).

Fig. 8 Gardening recyclables

Overall, we can see that the project method is a powerful educational instrument for shaping the environmental consciousness of students.

3.2. Evaluating results

Due to the pandemic lockdown the final – evaluating stage of the experimental work took place in October 2020. Almost a half a year later after doing the trash-to-treasure project work St Petersburg University students were asked to do a sustainable fashion survey, which consisted of a series of questions placed in an online Google form. In order to prove or disprove our research hypothesis whether the project method was an effective educational instrument for shaping the environment consciousness of students in the ESP classroom, we decided to involve not only the students of journalism who had participated in the trash-to-treasure project (the first group of respondents), but also students of journalism, mathematics and computer sciences who had not participated in the project (the second group of respondents). The first group consisted of 19, while the second of 201 students.

The purpose of the survey was to identify the respondents' environmental consciousness and their willingness to reduce their carbon footprint on a daily basis. The sustainable fashion survey consisted of 11 questions having subdivided into small groups of topics, but all of them appealed to green consumerism and clothes shopping habits. The questions focused on the concepts that had been discussed during the trash-to-treasure project. For example, we asked the respondents if they planned their shopping trips and wardrobe carefully or to what extent they agreed with the statement that wearing good clothes was part of leading the good life. The questionnaire included a group of questions revealing respondents' desire to learn about where the materials used in their products come from, what fashion brands did to minimize their impact on the environment or protect their workers' human rights, what issues were important to respondents that fashion brands tackled in order to reduce their long-term impacts on the world: global poverty, climate change, protection of the environment or gender inequality. Finally, the polled students indicated how supportive they were of sustainable fashion and what features best defined it. All the sustainable issues presented in the survey had been discussed in the classroom.

Some results of the survey could be said to have disproved our research hypothesis. As we can see from the pie charts (Fig. 9, 10) the first group of respondents plan their shopping trips and wardrobe more carefully than the second group. But more than 50% of respondents in both groups think that wearing good clothes is part of leading a good life. Thus, we can make a conclusion that the desire to look fashionable influences their consumer choices and both groups disagreed with the statement that fashion in clothes is just a way to get more money from the consumer.

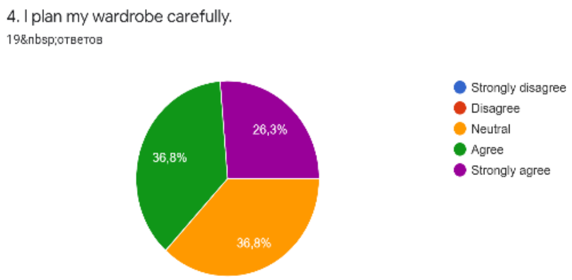

Fig.9 Students' attitude to planning wardrobe (group 1)

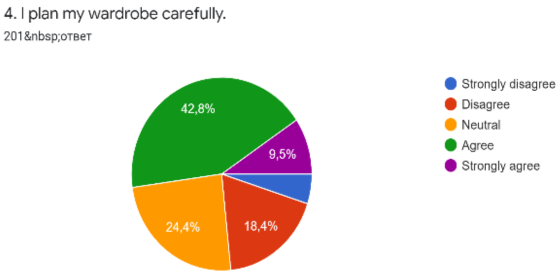

Fig.10 Students' attitude to planning wardrobe (group 2)

In terms of the respondents' interest in learning about social issues (human rights violations) and the efforts fashion brands made to minimize the environmental impact, the first group revealed a higher percentage of strong agree answers (Fig.11, 12) while the second group did not show much inspiration. We believe that this could be explained by the impact of the project-based teaching and the students' active social position as many of the first group respondents were females who supported feminist ideas. There is no wonder either why a half of the first group respondents stressed the importance of global poverty, which the fashion industry must address.

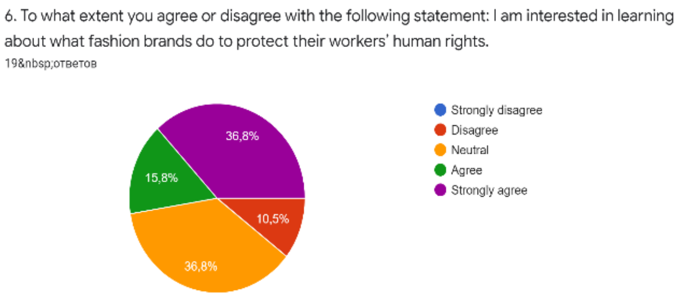

Fig.11 Students' attitude to human rights violations (group 1)

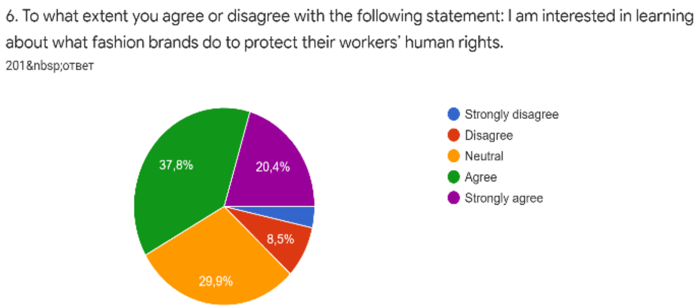

Fig.12 Students' attitude to human rights violations (group 2)

To our great surprise we did not find much difference in the respondents' perception of sustainable fashion between the groups. Almost half of the respondents indicated support for sustainable fashion (58% in group 1 and 45 % in group 2).

4. CONCLUSIONS

Developing environmental awareness in students is crucial if we want hand over this planet to future generations. The project method lends itself well to developing students both English skills and environmental consciousness. Through speaking, listening, writing and, more importantly, creating their own artwork in English journalism students learned English environmental vocabulary and developed their professional skills as environmental educators who promoted a low carbon footprint lifestyle and green consumerism.

The most promising result of the Trash to Treasure study is that the respondents from group 1 revealed a higher percentage of environmental consciousness and personal interest to green consumerism. For example, about 47,7% of polled students from group 1 marked the importance of using recycled packaging whereas it is only 31% in group 2. They also determined harmless environmental production as the key factor of their consumer choice. Unfortunately, the respondents of both groups did not point out the importance of developing locally produced fashion brands. Nevertheless, it makes us optimistic about the integration of the trash-to-treasure project work into academic curriculum.

We feel optimistic that the project will contribute the educational mission of journalism to provide the public with quality information about various matters including the environment and social injustice.

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Review research paper

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES IN RUSSIAN AND ENGLISH DENTISTRY TEXTS

Ivan Grigoriev, Svetlana Rubtsova

St Petersburg University, Russia

Abstract. *The paper compares two corpora of Russian and English research articles in dentistry to identify differences between texts as regards evaluative language and other language tools to pursue politeness strategies. Positive politeness strategies are understood as a part of the positive evaluation process having the pragmatic function not to offence each other’s desire to be approved of. The study aims to define the politeness strategies that are most commonly used in Russian and English medical journals and to focus on the possible reasons for differences in Russian and Anglo-Saxon academic writing cultures that underlie the choice of politeness strategies. The analysis of the data shows that Russian research articles rarely employ politeness strategies if compared to their English counterpart preferring negative politeness strategies to positive ones. This study also provides some methodological advice for developing a syllabus in academic writing. Conclusions made on the basis of two compared corpora can also provide insights into both translation and contrastive studies.*

Key words*: politeness strategies, evaluation, discursive pragmatics, corpus, mitigation devices*

1. INTRODUCTION

In the modern multilingual environment, texts produced by L2 scholars significantly outnumber research written by L1 scholars (Hyland, 2016). Inevitably academic texts written in English become the battleground for different written discourse practices originating from different disciplinary norms and different linguacultural traditions. The situation presupposes the constant need to research into the factors that influence L2 scholars linguistic and discursive choice (Shchemeleva, 2019; Tusting et al., 2019) and the upsurge in the amount of research into different aspects of written and oral academic communication.

Evaluation is a very important and a commonly shared feature of academic research. The term ‘evaluation’ was initially interchangeably used along with ‘modality’, ‘appraisal’, ‘stance’, and ‘evidentiality’ (Thompson, Hunston, 2000), which overlap more or less in the research of different authors, being sometimes used as synonyms. Until recently, one of the most popular terms has been ‘epistemic’ and ‘attitudinal stance’ by Conrad and Biber [16]. Without going into the detailed analysis of the history of theoretical approaches to the evaluation, after Mauranen (2002: 270) and Thompson &

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Corresponding author: Ivan Grigoriev. St. Petersburg University, Russia | E-mail: i.grigorev@spbu.ru

Hunston (2000) evaluation for us is a 'broad cover term for the expression of the speaker's or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions'. We agree to consider stance as a broader term that encompasses the notion of evaluation (Alba-Juez, Thompson, 2014), which is a 'verbal realization or manifestation of stance'. Thus evaluation should have explicit manifestation at the lexical, morphological, syntactical or semantical level. Moreover, we consider modality as a subcategory of evaluation and not as a separate category (Giannoni, 2005). The evaluation is not only considered to show the opinion of the author towards the propositions that are expressed in academic texts, but it also presents the axiological scale of academic views and beliefs that underlie this opinion.

2. NEGATIVE AND POSITIVE EVALUATION

In general, evaluation, even if taking into consideration the definition we provided in the previous passage, is considered to be a blurred term for linguistic research because it cannot be attributed to a fixed collection of linguistic devices (Mauranen, 2003). However, some approaches to its conceptualization seem to be a part of every research in a certain field as it is considered to be a 'ubiquitous feature of human interaction and, despite its apparently impersonal facade, central to academic writing (Alba-Juez, Thompson, 2014). In a broad sense, evaluation is understood as a personal attitude of the author displayed by different language tools in the text and, traditionally, two major domains of evaluation may be determined. First, the domain of opinion that is expressed towards something expressed by the author indicating the degree on the axiological axis "bad-good". The second domain covers the degree of credibility or evidentiality that is invested into the truth value of the proposition. Expressing the opinion is a complex act that includes the creation of a value-system, which in turn, reflects the personal beliefs in a certain field, the values of a professional group and is considered to be discipline and genre oriented or oriented towards a different discourse community.

Naturally, both domains demonstrate an axiological hierarchy ranging from negative to positive evaluation. Both perform different functions that go beyond the establishment of the truth value of the proposition of the statement thus contributing to the creation of new knowledge. Positive evaluation, we believe, seems to have additional functions of creating rapport with the academic community, presenting a personal opinion and interacting with the readers (Kunyarut, 2014: 159). Positive evaluation seems to be more explicit than negative evaluation [1, 13]. However, this situation according to Mauranen (2002) may result in blurring the real pragmatics of evaluation, for example, when the task for the novice is to find out what is really wrong with the research.

The research into the evaluation of written academic discourse is not scarce and demonstrate quite a long history (Hyland, 1996; Hyland, Diani, 2009; Hood, 2010) with very little done as regards oral academic discourse (Mauranen, A. 2002). Hence discourse and argumentative functions of evaluation are no longer a ground for academic debate. 'New' developments tend to involve a comparative study of English with other languages: Spanish, French, Thai, Norwegian, Bulgarian and Japanese (Vold, 2006; Moreno, Suárez, 2009; Kunyarut, 2014; Salager-Meyer et al, 2007; Itakura, Tsui, 2011; Itakura, 2013.; Vassileva, 2001). For the most part, research involves the creation of comparable corpora with sub-corpora for compared languages.

The conceptualization of evaluative acts or units which are understood not as grammar or lexical units but as functional units serving the purpose of presenting critical comments to academic texts gives us two simple categories often described as praise and criticism or negative and positive evaluation or negative vs. positive critical comments (Thompson, G., Hunston, 2000). It is only natural that the axiological evaluation presupposes that there are different degrees of positiveness or negativity that are essential to the units to which an axiological pattern can be applied and there is a hierarchy in axiological dimensions (Alba-Juez, Thompson, 2014). However, all the degrees of negativity and positiveness are grouped into two categories which are researched separately or simultaneously with regard to the chosen linguistic and discursive reality, with negative evaluation attracting more attention than positive (Principle, 2000; Giannoni, 2005). The reason why research in negative evaluation outnumbers that of a positive one is likely to be stated by Navarro who asserted that negative evaluation is a fundamental element of academic discourse (Navarro, 2016).

Rhetorical tendencies, disciplinary and discursive differences constitute the major part of research in the field. Moreover, it is now universally agreed that there tends to be a cultural difference in expressing praise and criticism in different linguistic cultures (Itakura, 2013). However, the research in this field is still scarce and mostly concentrates on Anglo-American socio-pragmatic conventions.

Rhetorical tendencies are studied to find out how different evaluative acts distribute along different academic genres and across different writing cultures (Moreno, Suárez, 2009; Yakhontova, 2002), quantitative contrastive analysis of moves structure in terms of evaluative acts distribution through the moves of the academic work of different academic genres is performed (Fortanet, 2008). We found a lot of research on finding disciplinary differences in discursive strategies arguing for example that when reviewing previous research linguistics are inclined to express much more criticism than economists and historians (Diani, G. 2009).

The use of evaluative acts in pursuing discursive strategies is another important field of research. One of the most important strategies for academic written discourse is the strategy of being polite, thus producing rapport with the reader.

3. Politeness Strategy

Following Brown and Levinson (1987), the notion of face was developed which is considered to be 'the universal feature of communication' (Brown and Levinson, 1987), otherwise stated, not to offend each other's desire to be approved of. The notion of 'pragmatic politeness' then was categorized into 'negative face – the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others and positive face – the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others' (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 312). The author also came up with the typology of politeness strategies or preferences in terms of language devices they employ. Academic research that follows this publication (Walko, 2007; Shaw, 2003; Gil-Salom, Soler-Monreal, 2009) examines both positive and negative politeness strategies with the help of corpus analysis of a particular language, their balance in academic texts under investigation, particular mitigation devices and cumulative effect in combination of these strategies. Positive politeness strategies include maintaining common ground and the sharing of feelings, emotions, limitations and difficulties, and expressing solidarity with the readers, assuming collaboration, seeking agreement. Among negative politeness strategies, the most important strategies to mention: vagueness and depersonalization that reduce the writer's commitment to claims (Gil-Salom, Soler-Monreal, 2009: 188).

There is yet little research comparing and contrasting politeness strategies in academic discourse. Following Brown and Levinson's typological approach Kunyarut (2014) researched Thai students conventions in 'the use of politeness strategies in discussion sections of research papers' (Kunyarut, 2014: 159) finding which of them are most preferable. The study not only found patterns and regularities in the use of two strategies but also concluded that discourse regularities in the use of politeness strategies result from the wrong understanding of academic writing as a presenting 'collection of facts', without considering the reader as a part of discourse (Kunyarut, 2014: 165). We believe these teaching implications are very important not only for English language teaching but in a broad sense for understanding better any language – to – language transposition. According to Z. Walko (2007) the authors employ different sets of politeness strategies in different genres of academic research. Even inside one genre authors tend to use different arrays of strategies. These strategies are grouped by the author according to the following model: 'establishing conceptual framework (introduction, rationale, methods), describing the setting and the participants; data analysis; conclusions and implications' (Walko, 2007: 16). For each stage employed politeness strategies are described. Gil-Salom, and Soler-Monreal (2009) agree with the general typology of politeness strategy of Brown and Levinson applying them to discussion sections of engineering research articles. However, the regularities that were found during the analysis does not have statistical support thus not allowing the reader to understand the discursive strategies of their use.

Detailed investigation in different aspects of politeness strategies include Harwood's (Harwood, 2005) investigation into the pragmatic functions of pronouns in academic texts as part of stating 'common ground' strategy or 'common quest for scientific truths' (Harwood, 2005: 346); research of the use of epistemic modality markers as a mitigation device for a researcher to avoid imposition (Myers, 1989: 9; Yang et al., 2015); research of the impersonality structures (Martinez, 2001: 227) that allow authors to disassociate themselves from the information they present, in other words, to express negative politeness strategy.

4. Research Question

As an academic text requires that the writer should present his claim and contradict to the previous research, the face-threatening act towards the chosen opponent is unavoidable. Consequently, to maintain academic communication respect and recognition are to be demonstrated. Depending on general academic, disciplinary specific and broad discursive community culture there can be found many linguistic tools (realizations) of mitigation policies i.e. politeness strategies. The main area of applying the evaluation and its pragmatic use in pursuing politeness policies is the discussion section in research articles, which is intended to uncover the soundness of the research and justification for new knowledge.

Previous contrastive research that involved few languages into the research studying cultural, disciplinary and language differences mostly concentrate on this section. Other areas with the extensive use of politeness strategies are literature review, introduction and conclusion. However, in the overall picture of the strategies employed, it is important to understand the national writing conventions, disciplinary national writing conventions and possible solutions to overcome writing manners that contradict international academic writing conventions for the research to be published in English and to prevent cultural misunderstanding and misjudgment.

We found only a little research into different languages that try to give a comprehensive picture of pragmatic politeness strategy used in a certain language. Pragmatic strategies of evaluation were rarely investigated in Slavonic languages in general and in Russian academic discourse in particular. However, linguacultural features of Russian academic texts due to the long history of language isolation from international academic landscape seem to be important to understand regularities in violation of academic conventions.

RQ1: Research question: Are there differences in the distribution of politeness strategies in Russian and English dentistry journals?

RQ2: Are there statistical differences in the distribution of positive and negative politeness strategies?

RQ3: What are the possible reasons for differences in Russian and Anglo-Saxon writing cultures that underlie the choice of politeness strategies?

5.Methods and Data

As a source material, we randomly selected 37 journal research articles in English and Russian published in mainstream English and Russian medical journals during the last 15 years. The corpus consists of 116,351 words. Following Brown and Levinson's (1978, 1987) models of politeness strategies adopted in the later research by Getham, Walko and Salom we compiled the list of strategies and sub-strategies. We annotated the corpus and marked up language devices for each strategy and sub-strategies. Then to avoid imbalance of sub-corpora we calculated the number of occurrences and normalized raw frequency per 1,000 words as the standard length of medical papers differ for the languages under research. English papers show an average of 4051 words and Russian papers – 2504 words. Further statistical evaluation was made according to the mean value and standard deviations.

6. Results

The comparative frequencies of English and Russian politeness strategies are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1 Averages of positive politeness strategies

	English Sub-corpus		Russian Sub-corpus	
Sub-strategies	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Speculative claims	.03	.20	.09	.27
Certainty adjectives	.19	.42	.11	.30
Modifiers	.24	.21	.23	.22
Total for the first sub-strategy	.22	.39	.18	.36
Stance adjectives and adverbs	.06	.14	.07	.41
Instructing the reader	0.7	.24	.05	.28
Total for the second sub-strategy	.09	.48	.03	.34

Positive politeness strategies showing that the writer shares the same ideas with the reader are represented by two sub-strategies:

First sub-strategy ‘showing common views, attitudes and opinions’ by the use of:

A. Modifiers assuming common ground like important, significant, key, vital, topical:
   V sovremennoj koncepcii ortodontii ustranenie esteticheskih narushenij yavlyaetsya vazhnym rezul'tatom effektivnogo lecheniya. (RAS3-r, 1)
   ‘According to the modern concept of ortodontiya the elimination of aesthetic defects is an important result of efficient treatment.’
   Poisk metodov, pozvolyayushchih kolichestvenno ocenivat' eti yavleniya, ostaetsya aktual'noj problemoj stomatologii. (RAS19-r, 22)
   ‘Finding methods that allow to quantitatively assess these phenomena problem of dental science continue to be the topical problem of dentistry.

Here we find approximate parity in the use of modifiers – 0,24 vs. 0,23.

B. Certainty adjectives like ‘clear, obvious, definite’ and others are used much more often in English corpus than in Russian with the ratio 0,19 to 0,11:
   Na stepen' razvitiya zabolevaniya, ochevidno, okazyvayut vozdejstvie i drugie faktory, takie kak soputstvuyushchaya somaticheskaya patologiya. (RAS6-r, 390)
   ‘Evidently other factors like concomitant somatic pathology’.
   Conventional complete maxillary dentures undoubtedly remain a viable and preferred therapeutic option. (RAS4-e, 283)
   For periodontal maintenance, it is also established that the risk of clinical attachment breakdown is not fixed or absolute. (RAS5-e, 198)

For Russian corpus *izvestno* (is known) accounts for the majority of all the cases.

C. Speculative claims expressed by the words like assumption, assume, speculate, speculation or equivalent phrases:
   Imeetsya predpolozhenie, chto Porphyromonas gingivalis, Prevotella intermedia produciruyut KCZHK. (RWAS4, 68)
   ‘There is an assumption that Porphyromonas gingivalis, Prevotella intermedia produciruyut KCZHK.’
   The authors speculated that this increase in composite resin… (RAS4-e, 309)

English sub-corpus shows much less of such expressions if compared to Russian corpus: .03 vs .09.

The second politeness strategy ‘creating rapport with the reader by showing personal attitude’ is followed by:

A. Instructing the reader by the use of imperatives:
   Neobhodimo otmetit', chto znacheniya pokazatelej indeksa SZHK. (RAS18-r, 150)…
   ‘It is necessary to note that values of SZHK index …’
   Sleduet takzhe ob- ratit' vnimanie na to, chto bol'shinstvo odnokomponentnyh adgezivov VI pokoleniya. (RAS7-r, 18)
   Note that a history of periodontal disease increases the levels of peri-implant mucositis and periimplantitis. (Ras4-e, 333)

The English corpus provides few examples of imperatives use, slightly outnumbering occurrences of imperatives in Russian sub-corpus.

B. The use of stance adjectives and adverbs that can be found only in English corpus:
   Interestingly, the effect of PM recall interval on periodontal health has been studied in the past. (RAS5-e)

It is noteworthy that adherence of RPD patients to oral hygiene and denture hygiene instruction. (RAS9-e, 716)

Russian writers would much prefer to present 'common ground in the form of common attitude, opinions and views' just by presenting the fact as a matter of course and formally having no traces of any politeness strategy:

V poslednie gody poyavilis' novatorskie tekhnologii – razlichnye metodiki napravlennoj regeneracii tkanej. (RAS15-r, 9)

'Innovative techniques have appeared recently including different methods of controlled tissues regeneration.'

In Russian corpus, this strategy of constructing common ground with the reader by presenting the fact as certainly true without any modality or stance markers occurs three times more often than the same strategy in English corpus. Moreover, in English tradition, if compared to Russian, these sentences are very likely to be followed by citation marks. Active construction is preferred very rarely, with the subject denoting the live actor of the research:

Vse chashche vrachi i issledovateli ispol'zuyut termin "galitoz" (halitosis). (RWAS4, 68).

'Doctors and researchers are now increasingly using the term *halitosis.'*

Table 2 shows the distribution of negative politeness strategies in sub-corpuses.

Table 2 Averages of negative politeness strategies

	English Sub-corpus		Russian Sub-corpus	
Sub-strategies	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Hedging by modals	8.9	4.8	1.7	.5
Hedging by reporting verbs	.9	.23	.34	.26
Total for the first sub-strategy	.23	.28	.38	.27
Attribution of responsibility	.06	.14	.01	.31
Depersonalisation	2.7	.13	5.6	.17
Total for the second sub-strategy	8.3	.32	13.4	.16
Personalisation	.14	.37	.20	.36

Negative Politeness Strategies showing that the writer attempts to reduce his commitments to claims are represented by two sub-strategies. The first strategy 'showing that claims are provisional or temporary by hedging' is pursued through:

A. Modals or equivalent expressions (conditionals, phrases like 'be likely, probably'): *V kachestve primera mozhno privesti formirovanie faktorov.* (RAS17-r, 82)

'As an example, one may mention the formation of factors.'

Na osnove matematicheskogo modelirovaniya dannyh ekspress-skrininga vrach poluchaet vozmozhnost' postavit' diagnoz. (RAS17-r, 91)

'Basing on mathematical modelling of the data of express-screening the doctor seizes an opportunity to make a diagnose.'

Well-localised lesions without previous embolisation are therefore ideal, as they are likely to have smaller feeder vessels. (RAS-e 6, 486)

Hedging by the use of non-infinitive forms of modal verbs is quite rare:

But could be important given that adequate nutritional intake is particularly important in people with diabetes. (RAS9-e.717)

English corpus demonstrates the use of modals that occurs more than five times as often as the use of modals in Russian corpus, the range of modal verbs being very diverse (may, can, should, need, must) compared to Russian *mozhno* (can, may). Hedging by the use of conditional was found only in EC (English corpus):

Given that profilometry is the most frequently used in vitro *method of reporting surface change, plotting a bearing area ratio curve from existing profilometric data would perhaps produce a more meaningful description of the surface.* (RAS10-e, 189)

B. The use of reporting verbs with the difference lying in the ratio of their occurrence in corpora, which accounts for 2,5:1 with English corpus containing two and a half times more reporting verbs.

The following reporting verbs were found:

Russian corpus: schitat' (think) – believing, konstatirovat' (note, state) – presenting, predlagat' (propose) rekomendovat' (recommend) – suggesting, vyyasnyat' (find out) – concluding, ukazyvat' (indicate, specify) – presenting, priznavat' (accept, recognize) – agreeing. English corpus: show, reporting, stating, reveal – presenting, suggest, theorizing, postulate – suggesting, consider, evaluate – evaluating, highlight – emphasizing, question – disagreeing, agree – admitting, conceding, confirm – agreeing.

Russian authors do not tend to use reporting verbs with the meaning of evaluating, emphasizing, and disagreeing. At the same time, we can see that Russian reporting verbs express only neutral position.

The second negative politeness strategy shows 'you do not want to impose' includes the following sub-strategies:

A. Attribution of responsibility to the objectivity of the results presented by other authors by the use of the following phrases: these observations suggest, these results imply, or, for Russian tradition, appealing to the overwhelming opinion of majority:

Odnako po mneniyu mnogih issledovatelej izmeneniya. (RAS8-r, 483)

'However, according to (in opinion of) many scholars, changes…'

Such reference to the opinion of the majority is quite rare as it surpasses the boundaries of tentativeness and requires from the author further reasoning.

Na osnove matematicheskogo modelirovaniya dannyh ekspress-skrininga vrach poluchaet vozmozhnost' postavit' diagnoz. (RAS17-r, 91)

'Based on mathematical modelling of the data of express-screening the doctor seizes an opportunity to make a diagnosis (diagnose).'

Although recent advances and improved multidisciplinary approaches to care suggest this can be much improved upon in the future. (RAS8-e, 482)

B. Depersonalisation by the use of passive constructions without an agent:

V hode issledovanij bylo vyyavleno, chto v organizme delenie kletok ... (RAS15-r, 10)

'In the course of research, it was disclosed that the cell division in an organism …'

For direct restorations, USPHS or Ryge criteria were published, with modified versions still being used today to assess various features of restorations. (RAS8-e, 482)

This strategy is most commonly used in both corpora with citation marks being more often used in English corpus.

Standing apart is the negative politeness strategy of "Personalisation" that attributes all responsibility to the author or authors of the research by utilizing exclusive first person pronouns or expressions which we feel as equivalent to the expression of personal pronoun (authors):

V svyazi s etim dannyh pacientov my otnesli k gruppe riska razvitiya KPL SOR. (RAS18-r)

'Accordingly, these patients were classified as a risk group for the development of *KPL SOR.*'

It is the authors' view that although obliteration of the nidus through embolization may prevent revascularisation, guaranteed curative intervention must include… (RAS8-e, 486)

In this review, we have considered only those trials that compared osteotomy with the piezoelectric device and osteotomy… (RAS10-e, 1077)

The statistics show the slight predominance of the strategy in Russian corpus over English.

7. Discussion and Limitations

We tried to build up comparable corpora of two languages: Russian and English, with English corpus consisting of world-leading dentistry journals indexed in Elsevier. However, the counterpart national academic landscape is still in the process of adapting itself to international publishing conventions. As a result, only limited number of Russian publications in dentistry are available from internationally recognized sources, which could influence the results of the calculations.

The present study was designed to determine the distribution of politeness strategies across two languages. Seemingly, the differences in the distribution of politeness strategies in Russian and English dentistry journals are quite clear, which is also true for the differences in the distribution of positive and negative politeness strategies. Comparing positive politeness strategies in two languages showed the big difference in their distribution and the use of linguistic means to express them. English academic texts demonstrate the wider palette of devices covering all the sub-strategies that were selected for the analysis. The only exception is the first sub-strategy 'showing common views, attitudes and opinions' by the use of modifiers assuming common ground (important, significant, key, vital, topical) which shows the same distribution for both corpora. Possibly this represents the universality feature of medical academic discourse.

Quite evidently, significant differences in discursive strategies we found in our research of negative politeness strategies. An illustrative example here is the distribution of modals and reporting verbs in the English corpus. Interestingly, the modals occur more than five times as seldom as they occur in Russian corpus; with reporting verbs occurring two and a half times as seldom as in Russian corpus. The ideal that might underlie this is that Russian researchers may not be so interested in presenting the shades of their opinion due to the inheritance of national writing conventions.

The results of this study are in line with the conclusions made by Yakhontova (2006) and Shchemeleva (2015) who show significant differences in Anglo-American and Russian traditions of research writing. The research follows the tradition of the research in 'culture-specific' and disciplinary differences of academic texts indicating that the process of globalization has not yet and possibly never will erase the cultural specificity of presenting research in English. However, the major weakness of similar research that yet a lot is to be done to separate all the influencing factors including language, culture and disciplinary traditions.

8. CONCLUSION

Our research has shown statistical distribution of politeness strategies in English and Russian dentistry corpora. Some of the regularities (the use of impersonal constructions) presumably have universal nature for academic genres in English and Slavonic languages. Others, like the use of non-evaluative language in establishing common ground with the reader, seems to be very oriented towards national genre traditions and presumably will hamper the publication process in international academia.

In terms of pedagogy, introducing L2 writing into the academic classroom by showing students rhetorical strategies, in our case – politeness strategies, of academic writing gives way to 'examining how the evaluation process, particularly as a window into the social process by which knowledge is created, can be taught by developing a series of evaluative materials' (Bloch, 2003). Still, we can find only few research to that effect.

We also might conclude that for universal integration of academic cultures for a L2 researcher it is vitally important to adopt traditions of evaluation and the paradigm of politeness strategies through understanding not only the pragmatics of targeted academic discourse but also local written conventions of academic discourse in their own language. Contrastive studies are likely to serve as an effective tool to demonstrate that in order to reach endorsement or approval of the readers.

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Review research paper

DEVELOPING ARGUMENTATIVE LITERACY AND SKILLS IN ESP STUDENTS

Kira V. Gudkova

St Petersburg University, Russia

Abstract. *The paper deals with the problem of argumentation literacy in the field of university ESP teaching. It presents the analysis of arguments that university students put forward while writing argumentative essays as part of their final English tests. The analysis concerns essays written by students at various levels of command of English, namely B2 and C1 levels. The analysis is aimed at showing connection between students' language ability and their argumentative ability. The findings obtained stress the necessity to develop in ESP students argumentative literacy, that can be considered as one of the main soft skills needed in all spheres of professional and academic life.*

Key words*: argumentative literacy, soft skills, levels of command of English*

1. INTRODUCTION

The modern world is changing at a very high speed and thus the adaptation to the changes is needed from both educationalists and students who have to critically review their approaches to teaching and learning. This is especially important in the field of teaching English for specific purposes that has become one of the prominent areas of teaching English in Saint Petersburg State University. Namely, the ESP English has become the main priority at the Faculty of Foreign Languages that provides instruction in foreign languages for the students of all faculties at the university. It should be noted that ESP teaching goes beyond teaching just language, it also involves teaching skills, stresses the importance of writing for the audience, and the developing students' awareness of communicative strategies involved in the activities that they will undertake. (Dudley-Evans 1998). The ESP main point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world, instead it is integrated into their world, it is integrated into the areas important to the learners. Thus, ESP English concentrates on language in context, students are taught how to use English in the areas related to the majors, how to use English in order to perform job-related functions. These functions cover a wide range of areas such as business, medicine, law, management, computer science, engineering, tourism. The students are taught how to employ English as an instrument to help them in

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Corresponding author: Kira V. Gudkova. St Petersburg University, 11 Lieutenant Shmidt Emb., St Petersburg 199034, Russia, Russia | E-mail: gudkovakira@bk.ru

their future professional lives. In this way some soft skills such as communicative skills, team working and others are formed.

The document that emphasizes the importance of skill-and-competence oriented approach to teaching is The Common European Framework that provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, etc. across Europe. It describes in a comprehensive way what skills language learners have to acquire in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop to be able to act effectively. According to the CEFR, language use, embracing language learning, comprises the actions performed by persons who as individuals and as social agents develop a range of competences (CEFR 2001).

Competence-based teaching has got its further developments in soft skills development-oriented approaches that are being employed by modern educationalists. The soft skills are defined as the skills that shape how you work on your own and in a team of colleagues. The basic soft skills that are considered to be of great importance in modern life are the following: effective communication, teamwork, creativity, open-mindedness, critical thinking, problem-solving. All these skills might be necessary in many professional areas such as medicine, law, journalism and many others.

One of the important soft skill that is needed in all spheres of our life is the ability to express one’s point of view and present proper arguments to defend it. These abilities lie in the domain of argumentative literacy.

2. Argumentative Literacy

It is not an overstatement to say that people express their opinions and try to persuade other people both in their academic and professional life. Whether students try to persuade their teachers to let them hand in the essay past the deadline or they need to prepare a presentation on a certain topic they employ argumentation even if they do this naturally without thinking about the rules and theoretical aspects of arguing. Doctors employ argumentation when they try to persuade their patients to take a certain course of treatment, business people use argumentation when they negotiate with their partners and competitors. Literally in every sphere of life people employ argumentation as naïve arguers in the sense that they do so without thinking much about the theoretical grounds of arguing. But not only do people employ argumentation to persuade other people they are also exposed to other people’s arguments.

But persuading other people is not limited to the academic and professional spheres. English is also used as a means of communication and consequently as a means to express one’s views and ideas in social and personal spheres.

That is why we think that it is of great importance to develop in ESP students not only language proficiency but also argumentative foreign language literacy that comprises the ability to present a view point in a foreign language (English in our case) drawing on linguistic devices, to put forward arguments for or against a particular standpoint, to sequence arguments in a logical way and to present arguments organizing them in argumentative structures. Argumentative literacy also involves the development of a range of soft skills such as: analysis, observation, reasoning, persuasion, decision-making.

It should be noted that many students already possess some or all of these skills and employ them to cope with the problems in everyday life. However, as S. Cottrell notes the more advanced the level of study, the more refined these skills need to be'. (Cottrell 2011). The better skills are crucial in dealing with complex problems and projects both in academic field, professional, personal and social areas of life.

It can be said that practical argumentative literacy has mostly been developed and practiced in legal and business schools. Foreign languages in most cases have served as a subsidiary instrument used for verbal socializing. Moreover, the model of the adult world reflected in the language is connected with certain stereotypes, which should be taken into account and are relevant for argumentation literacy (Goudkova, Tretyakova 2014).

Second and foreign language teaching is often based on the assumption that learners have already acquired some knowledge of the world sufficient for the purpose of participating in argumentative dialogue. This is, however, not always the case and we think that is definitely not the case when we are talking about argumentative literacy of the learner of a foreign language. It is really difficult to put your message across to other people in a foreign language and far more difficult to convince them.

The learner may well argue in his/her mother tongue and we tend to extrapolate his/her ability into a foreign language. Understanding the stereotypes and the fact that people communicate and listen differently is a part of argumentation and language teaching.

As J. Harmer noted 'language teaching…reflects the times it takes in. Language is about communication…Teaching and learning are very human activities; they are social just as much as they are linguistic' (Harmer, 2011, p. 9)

2.1. Argumentative literacy criteria

In order to understand how well students can argue in English we carried out the analysis of arguments that university students put forward while writing argumentative essays that are an obligatory part of their final test in English. The essays written by the students with different levels of command of English (B2 and C1) were analyzed and comparative analysis was conducted in terms of the arguments that were provided. The findings obtained demonstrate some common patterns and reveal the fact that there is a link between the argumentative competence and language proficiency.

First, let us look at the criteria for two levels (B2 and C1) that focus on argumentative competences.

CEFR criteria at the target levels B2 and C1 are the following:

B2 students can write an essay or report, which develops an argument systematically with appropriate highlighting of significant points and relevant supporting detail. They write an essay or report which develops an argument, giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view and explaining the advantages and disadvantages of various options. They can synthesize information and arguments from a number of sources. They possess a sufficient range of language to be able to give clear descriptions, express viewpoints and develop arguments without much conspicuous searching for words, using some complex sentence forms to do so.

C1 students can select an appropriate formulation from a broad range of language to express him/herself clearly, without having to restrict what he/she wants to say. They can write clear, well-structured expositions of complex subjects, underlining the relevant salient issues. They can expand and support points of view at some length with subsidiary points, reasons and relevant examples.

Thus, according to the CEFR argumentative literacy is required at both levels of command of English but the requirements differ. Some important distinctions of argumentative competences at C1 level are that unlike B2 students C1 students should be able to produce complex argumentation (to defend not only the standpoints but to support arguments with sub arguments) and to argue about complex concepts.

2.2. B2 students' argumentative ability

Let us look first at argumentative ability demonstrated by B2 students. The analysis shows that students presenting their essays at B2 level demonstrate some argumentative abilities and competences. They can indicate standpoints and support them with arguments. They employ the limited range of language to express standpoints. The examples of the expressions are the following:

In my opinion, I personally think, I agree, I consider, I believe, I think, I feel, as far as I am concerned, my personal opinion is, from my point of view.

The results demonstrate that the most common way to indicate a standpoint at this level of the English language proficiency is to indicate the standpoint explicitly by using personal pronouns and explicit linguistic markers as can be seen from the given examples.

The analysis also shows that at this level of language competence students largely employ two main types of arguments: the first type covers mainly personal or utilitarian, and beneficial arguments. The arguments are utilitarian and beneficial in the sense that the students make an appeal to the concepts of "usefulness and benefit", to the things that will be useful and beneficial for them. Thus, it should also be noted that the arguments are closely connected with the personal life experience of the arguer.

Let us look at the examples of such arguments. The standpoint that is defended is expressed explicitly with the clear linguistic marker. To defend the standpoint three arguments are put forward. It can be seen that All arguments cover issues that are personal and connected to the students' life experience.

Standpoint: In my opinion, people should communicate face to face.

Argument 1. A human will feel himself better if he communicates really not with Internet.

Argument 2. Live communication will help us to understand other people, their problems, interests.

Argument 3. By this way you can find friends easier and faster.

The second type of arguments provided includes arguments to popular opinion, to what is accepted in society and that is why is considered to be good. This type of arguments can be illustrated with the following examples:

Standpoint: The Internet is very useful thing.

Argument 1. It can help us to find information,

Argument 2. It connects people around the world, we can chat how much we want.

The important conclusion that can be made is that given examples show that at this level of English proficiency the students argue from their own experience. This inability also reveales itself in the concepts to which they appeal: the concepts such as life experience, independence, success, self-confidence that present some verbal stereotypes that belong to their picture of the world.

All these examples of utilitarian argumentation reveal that at B2 level students (in the majority of cases) cannot alienate themselves from their personal foreign language experience and put forward arguments that are closely linked to their knowledge of the world. Thus, they draw heavily from their knowledge of the world that was formed mainly by their environment (school, family, friends etc.). B2 students prefer to express their standpoints explicitly or present a certain standpoint as a generally accepted idea such as ‘some people think’. B2 students act as ‘naïve’ arguers and make use of the tools they would have used arguing in their mother tongue, for it seems safer to stick to generally accepted ideas.

2.3. C1 students’ argumentative ability

The arguments employed by C1 level students differ from those used by B2 students in several aspects. Firstly, the conducted analysis of the essays written by C1 students shows some definite ability of C1 students to alienate themselves from the personal experience and produce more abstract and impersonal arguments. Secondly, these types of arguments are presented in a more orderly way and they are more explicit. Thirdly, standpoints are becoming more varied and the point of view is expressed more eloquently. Although the functional register of verbal stereotypes is still egocentric as in utilitarian argumentation, the indicators reflecting introductory level of argumentation show the language confidence of the speaker. Some of the examples of the linguistic markers that are employed to introduce standpoints are: I cannot deny, I would like to say, that’s why I am sure etc.

It should be noted that C1 students more often than B2 students introduce the standpoints without explicit verbal indicators. And C1 students often employ compound sentences to formulate standpoints. The example of such a way of presenting a standpoint is given below.

Nowadays globalization not only affects world economy and culture but also changes people’s everyday experiences.

The analysis also reveals that like B2 students C1 students employ utilitarian arguments but these arguments differ from those provided by B2 students. C1 students also make an appeal to the usefulness but to the usefulness for the community and society in general rather than to the usefulness for themselves. Thus, at this level it can be noted that utilitarian arguments become more impersonal. This can be illustrated with the following examples:

> One more argument for globalization is that it benefits everyone, not only big corporations but also people in developing countries, as it provides them with job places.
>
> It (globalization) offers new opportunities for travel, work and education and of course for communication.

In terms of logical sequencing of arguments, the analysis shows that C1 students demonstrate the ability to use regressive presentation, that means that the speaker puts forward arguments and then expresses his/her opinion (which is not the case with B2 students’ argumentative ability who prefer the progressive presentation that is to express the standpoint first and then support it with arguments). The example of a regressive structure is provided below.

> Companies tend to become more productive and competitive thereby raising the quality of goods, services and the standards of living, that’s why I am sure that term globalization is definitely about progress.

It also should be noted that C1 students often employ opposite concepts to present their arguments thus directing the vector of argumentation to the positive concepts when defending a standpoint and to the negative concepts when putting arguments against the standpoint. Here are arguments that students put forward arguing for and against globalization.

Arguments for:

When the nations have “one world, one vision”, the same political and economic interests, it helps them to live in peace – appellation to the concept of “peace”.
Globalisation encourages better standards for the environment – appellation to the concept of “environment protection”.

In both arguments the students make an appeal to positive concepts such as “peace” and “environment protection”. If we look at the arguments that were employed to argue against globalization, we will see some negative concepts.

Argument against:

Globalisation results in destruction of cultural diversity.
The negative concept to which the arguer appeals is the concept of destruction.

Thus, we can specify the following features of C1 student’s argumentative ability: a regressive presentation of argumentation, alienation from personal experience in utilitarian argumentation scheme, a greater number of verbal expressions reflecting introductory level of argumentation and the use of opposites as a specific pattern.

The analysis of B2 and C1 students’ essays shows that students writing in English may know the basics of argumentation but they cannot use arguments properly, as they are not proficient enough in the L2 language. They start using proper arguments when they become more skilled in the language and the results show that that is mainly achieved at C1 level.

It can also be noted that students act as naïve arguers because they lack some basics of argumentation literacy. They produce their arguments for the most part on intuition, drawing heavily from their knowledge of the world, which tells more about the writer than about effective arguments.

Taking everything into consideration it should be stressed that the development of argumentation literacy should be incorporated into the ESP curriculum to provide students with basic concepts and argumentative practices. Argumentative ability appears to correlate with innate properties of the student’s mind and the language proficiency. The more advanced in the language (English) students become the more independent from their personal experience they grow and the more impersonal their arguments become. Thus, the higher language competence is the more abstract arguments are used.

3. Argumentative Literacy Skills to be Developed

New requirements for English as a foreign language have recently been adopted for university students in SPbU. According to these requirements all university graduates should possess B2 in English. Thus, the target level for university graduates is upper-intermediate. To officially confirm this level of language proficiency students are supposed to sit the final test that includes several parts. One of the writing parts is the opinion essay. The speaking part of the final test includes the task to take part in an argumentative dialogue or a debate on a given topic with the examiner. Here is the example of the exam speaking task.

You have to discuss which one programme of the City Development plan would be the most important for young people today. You have three options to choose from:

- free Wi Fi in public places,
- volunteer litter clean-up events,
- communal public bikes.

The students are supposed to discuss all options with the examiner and come to the conclusion. One of the skills to be tested is the ability to support the opinion with arguments. The assessment criteria take into account the quality of the arguments provided by the students and logical organization. Thus, all university graduates are supposed to possess argumentative literacy and be able to produce proper arguments both in written and in oral forms.

Thus, it seems of great importance to develop argumentative literacy in students and to incorporate some argumentative practices into English courses.

Argumentation is a two-way process, a kind of dialogue between you and those whose beliefs and behaviour you want to change. One of the definitions states that 'argumentation is a form of… communication relying on reasoning… to influence belief or behavior through the use of spoken or written messages (Rybacki and Rybacki 1991). Like other forms of communication, argumentation is a matter of choosing what to say and how to say. In other words, it is a matter of using some knowledge about arguing and employing argumentative skills.

At this point it should be noted that there are two important domains in which argumentative skills should be taught and developed. The first domain covers the skills to build correct arguments, to understand what arguments are, to distinguish arguments from other statements such as explanations, descriptions and from supporting ideas, to link arguments in a logical way. All these skills are necessary to provide a good line of reasoning both in academic and professional spheres.

The other domain covers the abilities to understand other people' s argumentation. And the skills to be taught are the following: detecting bias, identifying the flaws in people's reasonings, understanding other people's opinions. These skills are also of great importance in building the resistance to manipulation. If we can identify that the wrong arguments are being put forward and the biased language is employed in communication, if we can detect the flawed structure of argumentation (whether the speaker or the writer does so intentionally or unintentionally) we are immediately able to detect that we are being manipulated, that is we are able to detect the biased argumentation.

3.1. Skills to build the correct argumentation

As D. Walton emphasizes argumentation is a practical skill that needs to be taught through the use of realistic examples of arguments of the kind that people encounter in everyday and professional life. (Walton 2006). But argumentation is also a critical attitude that is most useful when we are in a situation where we need to make a thoughtful decision.

The most common applications of argumentation occur in situations where the ideas to be implemented need some support from other people. Thus, we need not only to communicate the idea but also to provide good reasons why this idea should be accepted.

That is why ESP students should be taught to phrase the opinion, to link arguments in a logical way, to analyze the target audience.

Argumentation theorist indicate that there are basic structures that are normally combined in various patterns, which happens in real life argumentation (Eemeren and Grootendorst 1992). All the main structures are characterized by linguistic indicators that point out a certain line of reasoning (Eemeren, Houtlosser and Henkemans 2007). It might be useful to include practicing these structures and thus to develop argumentative skills.

3.2. Skills to evaluate other people's argumentation

The other domain of arguing involves the analysis of other people's argumentation. One of the skills to be taught (that is also important while building one's own line of reasoning) is the distinguishing arguments from non-arguments. When considering an argument, it is easy to be distracted by surrounding messages such as description, explanation, summary that can be confused with arguments.

Another important skill to be developed in ESP students is the identification of flawed arguments in other people's reasoning. There are two situations in which people can use flawed arguments. First, the simply do not recognize that the arguments they put forward are flawed. And this happens very often. Second, people use flawed arguments deliberately for they want to manipulate other people, to make them change their behaviour so that it will suit the purposes of the manipulator. Whichever the case, knowing the common flawed arguments will help students to be alert to flawed argumentation.

Argumentation theorists identify many types of flawed reasoning (Ivin 2007, Walton 2006, 2008, Walton, Reed, and Macagno 2008, Eemeren and Grootendorst 1992, Eemeren 2010) that can be grouped according to their nature. One very important group of flaws relates to the way language is used.

The language flaws include the use of emotive language, loaded terms, vague concepts that can be interpreted in many ways. The use of loaded terms and emotive language is one of the main techniques employed by people in modern post-truth reality. Emotive language use words that make us respond in an emotional way. As people tend to trust their emotions, it is particularly important to choose the right wording especially if the topics of the communication are emotive, such as national pride, religion, parents, motherland etc. Thus, it is important to develop in students language sensitivity, to attract their attention to emotive language, to teach them to choose the proper words.

4. CONCLUSION

Taking everything into consideration, it is important to underlie the importance of including argumentative practices into ESP courses. The ability to present one's own ideas in a logical orderly way, to support the opinion with proper and correctly build arguments, to recognize flaws in other people's argumentation are the basics of argumentative literacy and also are useful and practical skills that might be of great help in all spheres of life: academic, professional, social, private. Moreover, it might help to make more informed decisions. The ability to identify flaws in other people's arguments might help to formulate better counterarguments and what is more important to avoid being manipulated by other people whether they manipulate you deliberately or not.

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Review research paper

FORMULAIC LANGUAGE IN AERONAUTICAL ENGLISH – FRIEND OR FOE

Vanya Katsarska

Bulgarian Air Force Academy "Georgi Benkovski", Bulgaria

Abstract. *The paper discusses formulaic language, its classification, function, and its role in Aeronautical English. On the one hand, using idiomatic expressions in aviation communication may lead to ambiguity, confusion and communication breakdown. On the other hand, teaching formulaic expressions to student pilots and air-traffic controllers can have positive effect on their fluency and help them develop their interactive communicative skills. Despite the fact that research on formulaic language acquisition has been modest, the paper suggests that it should be incorporated in an aeronautical English syllabus.*

Key words*: formulaic language, aeronautical English, aviation English, ESP, fluency*

1. INTRODUCTION

Words are powerful tools which can wreak havoc, negotiate peace agreements, inspire and motivate, destroy and challenge. In aviation context words can mean the difference between life and death. In 1993 "Pull up, pull up" warning triggered by the Ground Proximity Warning System alerted the pilot of the Chinese Flight 6901 but the pilot could not understand the message and failed to correct their excessive rate of descent. While the pilot and co-pilot were discussing in their native language the meaning of "pull up" the airplane crashed killing 12 and injuring 60 people. Miscommunication has caused a lot of aircraft accidents and incidents all over the world with no discrimination of aircraft type and size or pilot's race, age, and country of origin. That is why International Civil Aviation Agency (ICAO) has established and nowadays regulates standard rules that govern the exchanges between pilots and air-traffic controllers (ATC.) Amendment 164, added to Annex 1 of the ICAO Language Proficiency Requirements (LPR) stated that all civilian pilots and ATCs must prove their language proficiency by reaching the Operational Level 4 of the ICAO Language Proficiency Rating Scale (Annex 1:1.2.9) Without achieving this minimum level of language proficiency, civilian pilots and ATC are not be licensed and are not be able to perform their job. The radiotelephony phraseology is an organized system for transmission of information, instructions, requests, clearances and advice. It defines what needs to be said in a particular situation, as well as where and how it is said. This is a restricted and coded sublanguage where

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Corresponding author: Vanya Katsarska. Bulgarian Air Force Academy "Georgi Benkovski", 5855 Dolna Mitropolia 1 "Sv. sv. Cyril and Methodius" str. Bulgaria | E-mail: 4vanya@gmail.com

each word and phrase have a precise meaning that is often exclusive to the aviation domain. This radiotelephony phraseology is standardized and together with the plain English, used by pilots and air-traffic controllers in aviation context, it is called aeronautical English by the scholar Anna Borowska (2017:65)

2. DEFINING FORMULAICITY

Some linguists such as Peter Howarth, David Wood, and Alison Wray draw our attention to the extremely important fact that words do not act individually but as parts of lexical or grammatical chunks in interconnected discourse. Despite the fact that language is creative and people can choose a wide variety of words for their oral or written speech, studies of corpora reveal that in any language there are some kinds of linguistic patterns and in many cases there are restrictions in word combinations. Due to the new computerized methods of corpus research, the focus on formulaicity has gradually increased in the 21st century. Researchers have been able to establish frequencies and identify concordances of specific words, to find out pronounced tendencies of collocations in specific professional contexts. Although studies in defining formulaicity still differ, for the last few decades we have witnessed growing consensus regarding the concept. Nevertheless, Alison Wray (2002:9) found about 55 terms which researchers use to talk about formulaic language: set phrases, formulaic sequences, idioms, idiomaticity, collocations, formulas, ready-made utterances, prefabricated routines and patterns, chunks, lexical phrases, lexical bundles, multi-word units, etc. Actually, we need to point out that Wray emphasized that these are not only different terms for one and the same phenomenon – "a full appreciation of what formulaic language is requires us to recognize that we are not dealing with a single phenomenon but rather with a set of more and less closely related ones, across different data types." Formulaic language is not one entity with uniformed characteristics, it is not a "single category" as Howarth puts it, but a category which covers "all significant features of word combinations" (1998:25)

Britt Erman and Beatrice Warren (2000:31) make the distinction between prefabricated and non-prefabricated combinations and provide the following definition for the prefabs: "A prefab is a combination of at least two words favored by native speakers in preference to an alternative combination which could have been equivalent had there been no conventionalization". However, they themselves admit that "the identification of prefabs is difficult". Alison Wray prefers the name "formulaic sequence" because "formulaic" is associated with "unity" and "habit" while "sequence indicates that there is more than one discernible internal unit". The definition which she offers is "a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated: that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar" (Wray, 2002:9).

The dominant characteristics specified by the formulaicity guru David Wood (2015:3) are:

1. multi word form;
2. have a single meaning or function;
3. be prefabricated or stored and retrieved mentally as if a single word.

It seems that being one whole is the notion common between different perspectives about formulaicity. The idea of wholeness is pretty clear in idioms and phrasal verbs while some other chunks are more difficult to identify as being members of the formulaic family.

Regardless of the name and the emphasized characteristics, formulaic language is omnipresent with its various forms in everyday speech, in literature, in technical and professional documents. Contemporary researchers choose specific corpora and identify the percentage of prefabricated chunks of language. Erman and Warren (2000) found out that 52-58% of texts in corpus are formulaic.

The communication between pilots and ATC is extremely standardized for all routine and a lot non-routine situations. The reason behind this is to enhance safety, to minimize the potential for misunderstandings and to make the exchanges more efficient. The standardization can be found out at different levels: the level of communication strategies - e.g. the use of readback; the level of vocabulary – fixed phrases; the level of grammar – e.g. standard patterns such as "Climb flight level 180 – Climbing flight level 180; Hold position – Holding). This standardized phraseology reflects the restricted semantic and syntax relationship used within the particular aeronautical domain. Formulaicity has seeped into the routine radiotelephony phraseology: multiword forms which do not tolerate anything else but a single meaning, fixed expressions which are used by all speakers of aeronautical English, standardized grammar patterns. Further research in the area of aeronautical English corpora is needed. However, scholars should first agree upon different criteria to identify formulaic sequences and then there will be consistence and reliability of different results.

3. Classification, Formulaicity and the Aeronautical English

As far as the classification of formulaic language is concerned, Wood (2015:37) offers the following categories: collocations, idioms, lexical phrases, lexical bundles, metaphors, proverbs, phrasal verbs, n-grams, concgrams, and compounds.

Collocation is the tendency of two or three words to go together in discourse more frequently than in other word combinations or as Wood formulates it "a syntagmatic relationship among words which co-occur" (2015:38.) The interrelation between the words can be fixed or slightly more flexible; the meaning is literal, rather transparent to everybody. Taking into consideration solely their structure, collocations fall into two categories: grammatical and lexical. A grammatical collocation consists of a key word, a noun, a verb, or an adjective and a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause. Collocations are popular in both plain English and radiotelephony phraseology. In aviation context we can often hear sentences/phrases such as "The airplane is at two o'clock," "They have the permission to do it," "on the alert," "at your own discretion," etc. Lexical collocations consist of nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs. Noun phrases for example are: level change, departure information, transition altitude, slot time, etc. Collocations which consist of an adjective and a noun are: active runway, blind transmission, reporting point, final approach, downwind leg, etc. Some examples with a noun and a verb are: bleed to death, plant a bomb, start up the engine, etc. Melcuk cited by Wood (2015:40) classifies collocations in another way based on the relations between the components. One type is "collocations with "light" delexicalized verbs such as do a favor." Some other delexicalized verbs are do, have, take, go, give, get, make; their meaning is defined by the noun they go with: take a turn, make a comment, make a decision, etc. These collocations are somewhere on the continuum between idioms and free combination of words.

The concgrams, in which the components of a phrase are separated by other words in the sentence, are more difficult to be discovered and software assists the process. Lexical bundles are generally a "combinations of three or more words that are identified in a corpus of natural language by means of corpus analysis software programmes" (Wood, 2015:45). Lexical bundles occur in texts within a specific corpus; that is the reason for their existence exclusively in a single discipline. In another example explained by Wood (2015), lexical bundles frequently occur in published academic papers such as journal articles. Biber (2006) realised through his research that the use of lexical bundles in academia is different; natural and social sciences use them more than the humanities. They serve special discourse functions but they do not carry specific meaning. Studying aviation corpora and finding out lexical bundles could assist aviation English trainers into drawing students' attention to them.

Phrasal verbs, verbs which go with a preposition, a particle, or both, are widespread in terms of everyday usage but in many cases non-native speakers are reluctant to use them. Aviation English trainers should not disregard them because they occur often in routine and non- routine radiotelephony situations: push back, start up, touch down, take off, run up, wear off, jack up, etc. The specific characteristic is that in aviation context the rule is one phrasal verb – one meaning in order to eliminate ambiguity and misunderstandings.

What is the difference between 'disc brake – brake disc', 'flight level – level flight'? Compounds combine minimum two words, one of them being the head word and the other one classifies it. They can be written together, hyphenated or separately. Compounds occur frequently in aviation technical English and the process of forming these combinations is productive: spark plug, cast iron, combustion chamber, relief valve, fuselage-mounted multibarrel 20 mm gun, head-up display, etc.

In the aviation environment there are formulaic sequences which convey the meaning of whole sentences: Ready for immediate departure; Traffic in sight; How do you read?; Cleared via flight planned route. Moreover, a single word can convey the meaning of a whole sentence: Wilco equals "I understand your message and I will comply with it"; Unable equals "I cannot comply with your request, instruction or clearance"; Out equals "This exchange of transmissions is ended and no response is expected."; Acknowledge means "Let me know you have received and understood this message."

The aeronautical English avoids all linguistic complexities such as polysemy or impreciseness, as well as idioms, proverbs and metaphors because they could lead to hazardous consequences in the aviation context due to a lack of correctly transferred information. Metaphors are figures of speech, in most cases fixed, which link the concrete and the abstract or compare two items indirectly. Their meaning is not quite transparent but in many cases it can be guessed by the context. Idiom is a fixed expression whose meaning is nonliteral and opaque, it cannot be interpreted from the meanings of its components. There are many idioms which are connected with the aviation, meteorology, and technologies such as 'on cloud nine', 'ahead of the curve', 'a straw in the wind', 'the redeye flight', etc. Despite the fact that these expressions have their etymology in aviation, aviation personnel are not encouraged to use them. Exchanges between pilots and air-traffic controllers should not cause ambiguity or confusion. Aviation English must be clear and unambiguous. A well-known rule of thumb for both native and non-native speakers is not to use any idiomatic expressions during flight. That's why it is pretty strange that the ICAO rating scale states that in level 5 "vocabulary is sometimes idiomatic". It seems the ICAO descriptors just followed the trend in general English scales and for a moment ignored the basic rule in aviation English for clarity, simplicity and direct, appropriate and concise language. Hopefully, in the next edition of the rating scale the vocabulary section will be revised and changed according to the aviation guidelines.

On the other hand, there are some expressions which people consider idiomatic but actually they are professional jargon or standard phrases in aviation. 'Party line communication' refers to communication when pilots listen to all radio exchanges in the area i.e. their own as well as of the other aircraft; 'zulu time' is GMT; 'sterile cockpit' rule states that during critical phases of flight such as takeoff and landing, all non-essential activities are forbidden; 'pushing the envelope' means that the aircraft is about to fly beyond its designated altitude and speed limit; 'glass cockpit' features sophisticated digital flight instrument panel, etc. During communication on the ground one could also hear the technical idiom 'belt and braces', or the notorious among cabin crew members 'bottle to throttle', or to read articles about the 'bleeding edge technology', i.e. deviations from the completely transparent non-idiomatic language.

Fernandez-Parra (2005) claims that "formulaicity is a rather fuzzy phenomenon" and "… the boundaries of formulaicity are very blurry and that it will not be possible to establish very clear dividing lines between formulaic expressions and non-formulaic expressions or between the various classes of formulaic language." Setting the boundaries of the formulaic language in aviation speech, oral or written, is not an easy task. The classification of the formulaic language assists researchers but it is foggy sometimes which expression to which category fits best and as Wood summarizes "the classifications are in some ways arbitrary" (2015:50). Which expressions are terms and which ones are formulaic sequences; which ones are collocations and which ones lexical bundles; which ones are straightforward and which ones could be ambiguous – questions which need further investigation and research.

4. Formulaic Language and Fluency

Recently linguists have been studying the correlation between formulaic language and fluency, especially for foreign language learners, and have found out that the increased use of formulaic language facilitates the production of fluent speech. As Wood puts it "From the current stage of knowledge about fluency, it is apparent that formulaic sequences are key elements in fluency development, along with automatization of processing." (2010:222) Formulaicity makes speech faster, more natural and more fluent, in most cases more accurate, too. ICAO English language proficiency requirements emphasize fluency as an obligatory element of pilots' and air traffic controllers' communicative competence. Formulaic language is spread through aviation English. A big percentage of the radio-telephony phraseology for routine situations is formulaic language. Initially formulaic language helps aviation English students to start communicating, later it boosts their language learning and improves the quality of the language output. The automatic use of formulaic language in aviation English has a number of advantages: it provides standardization, it helps avoid confusion and misunderstanding in pilot-ATC exchanges, it frees up memory and processing resources thus leaving the pilot or ATC to do their primary tasks. Wray supports this, though in general context, by saying that "native speakers use formulaic sequence as an easy option in their processing or communication" (Wray, 2002: IX).

The basic function of the formulaic language in aviation context is functional. Numerous radiotelephony phases are aimed at triggering an action and this is the core of the communication – these are orders, requests, offers to act, giving advice, permissions, approvals and undertakings. Such phrases are for instance:

- Request start-up. (Request)
- Immediately climb to flight level 210. (Order)
- Unable to maintain rate of climb. (Refuse to act)

Some other phrases deal with sharing information about the present, future and past events or are concerned with the necessity and feasibility of the orders:

- Changing to N Control on 127.3.
- Unable to approve touch and go due to traffic. Make full stop landing. Runway 27. Cleared to land. Surface wind calm.

Another set of phrases are concerned with the pilot-controller relation and they contain phrases such as confirmations or corrections.

- Confirm reducing speed two five zero knots.
- Correction, changing to frequency 127,575.
- Negative, hold short runway 29L.

Pilots and air-traffic controllers have very distinct roles and some communicative functions are relevant only for pilots, others – only for air-traffic controllers. For instance, only controllers can advise or give orders; however, other functions apply to both of them – for example giving information or asking about necessity. This distinction can be taken into consideration for the teaching context in a very narrow-angle course design: not all the functions need to be taught for both production and comprehension.

Another function is social interaction in professional life. For example, pilots leave ‘a gripe sheet’ to aircraft mechanics with the problems encountered during flight. During non-routine situations like emergency, accidents or incidents pilots and air-traffic controllers exchange information for a limited time. Language should be clear and concise, no doubt formulaic to a certain extent. In addition to this formulaic language plays a major role in developing pragmatic competence. Situation-bound utterances are pragmatic units which occur in standardized communicative situations. Aeronautical communication has numerous predetermined by the situation phrases and formulaic sequences.

A questionnaire, administered to 25 (19 male and 6 female) Bulgarian officer-cadets in the specialties military pilot and air-traffic controller, reveals that they have difficulties with some of the formulaic sequences regardless of their level of language proficiency: A2, B1 or B1+. One of the reasons is the idiosyncratic nature of collocations – e.g. powerful and strong are synonymous in general English contexts but the collocation is ‘powerful engine’; speed, rate and velocity might be the same in general reference but to aviators velocity is a vector, defined by two parameters speed and direction. There is a native language interference due to direct translation: ‘hit wave’ instead of ‘shock wave’; ‘end point’ instead of ‘final approach fix’. Another reason is the difference in collocation use across languages - e.g. in Bulgarian we say ‘силен вятър’ and ‘силен дъжд’ while in English ‘strong wind’ and ‘heavy rain’. Sometimes Bulgarian pilots and controllers encounter difficulties understanding their counterpart’s radio-telephony message because they deviate from the prescribed standard phraseology and they do not use the expected standard phraseology. It is interesting to note that pilots do not blame lack of background knowledge of standard procedures; they blame lack of knowledge of correct radiotelephony phraseology in English. No doubt formulaic language plays a key role into the aeronautical language; however, this role has not been researched well yet. Another important question, which has no clear answer yet, is how aviation English trainers can efficiently teach formulaic language; how the research work can be applied into classroom practice.

5. CONCLUSION

The communication of pilots and air-traffic controllers features sophisticated technology, high-workload and task-oriented context. The radio-telephony phraseology is characterized with clear, concise language and smooth, unambiguous sentences. The acquisition of formulaic sequences develops the fluency of aeronautical English students, thus, their communicative competence. As mentioned above, according to the ICAO language proficiency scale, fluency is highly required and it determines the language level of the aviation personnel. Our goal is to help aviation English students to produce fluent language which reflects the particular aviation topic on one hand, and encompasses the natural English sentence structure on the other hand. That's why formulaic language studies should be incorporated in an aeronautical English syllabus. The ways to do it is a matter of further research.

Aviation words and phrases are words of power. Idioms, proverbs and opaque expressions can lead to misunderstanding and jeopardize the safety of flights. Collocations, compounds and lexical bundles are important because they constitute a large part of the aeronautical language and provide fluency and natural accuracy. Formulaic language and students' communicative competence are interrelated. The formula to success in aviation communication is to analyze, study, teach and practice formulaic language. Let's go for it!

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Review research paper

INTERSUBJECTIVE APPROACH TO PRE-TRANSLATION ANALYSIS OF ARCHITECTURAL CRITICISM: REACHING AFTER THE BALANCE

Svetlana Latysheva

Irkutsk National Research Technical University, Russia

Abstract. *The study discusses a new approach to translation of architectural critical materials focusing on the stage of source texts analysis. Architecture synthesizes science, technology, art and social sphere resulting in the heterogeneity of translatological characteristics of texts representing architectural phenomena. They combine the parameters of institutional and personal discourse possessing the features of specialized texts, such as the predominance of cognitive information and a high degree of conventionality, and artistic texts with their emotional, aesthetic and axiological aspects. This functional ambivalence limits the use of traditional methods based on genre or stylistic analysis. This research is an attempt to develop a new approach to pre-translation analysis of architectural texts yielding adequate translation methods for architectural nominations and contributing to the retainment of original text identity. The study views intersubjectivity in pre-translation analysis as conceptual coordination within the discourse of the expert community carried out in the process of interaction between authors of source texts and addressees of translation texts through interlingual mediation. The developed method allows translators to reveal relevant cognitive and discursive parameters of nominations of architectural phenomena at various language levels. In addition, it reveals the translation dominants that assist both to preserve the sufficient level of translation text conventionality within the institutional discourse of architecture and to transfer personal meanings and values implied by source text authors within their personal discourse.*

Key words: *pre-translation analysis, intersubjective approach, architectural criticism, translation strategy*

1. INTRODUCTION

Most translation theorists and practitioners recognise the importance of source text analysis, and they admit that any skilled translator should develop a professional competence of specific perception and understanding of source texts. This aspect of translators’ profession discussed in a significant number of works leads to one basic idea shared by the majority of researchers and expressed in Robinson D. (2012: 208) “It probably goes without saying: the ability to analyze a source text linguistically, culturally, even philosophically or politically is of paramount importance to the translator.” At the

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Corresponding author: Svetlana Latysheva. Irkutsk National Research Technical University, Str. Lermontov, 83, Irkutsk, Russia | E-mail: lasveta1@yandex.ru

same time, the assessment of essential features at this relevant stage in translation process is quite ambiguous, and this causes terminological variations in its description: translation analysis of source text, pre-translation analysis of source text, translation interpretation of source text, hermeneutical approach to translation. More options arise when correlating this activity with the phases of translation process: a component of translation strategy, a method of formation of translation competences, a stage of preparations preceding translation or translation itself.

Alternative approaches to translator's cognitive activity in the process of his or her interaction with original texts result not only from the variability of translation models, but also from the fact that translation studies are interdisciplinary. Therefore, this activity overlaps with many scientific fields, such as pure linguistic analysis, comparative analysis, contrastive language studies, literary analysis, literature studies, cultural analysis, logical analysis, psychological studies, etc.

However, there is a common approach typical of all mentioned analyses: text fragmentation, its division into semantic and / or structural components. After that, various functions arise derived from relations established between components, such as layers of meaning built up by various text units (Komissarov 2018), communicative outcomes (Latyshev 2016), illocutionary acts of translation, intentions (Nord 1991), types of information (Alekseeva 2008), genre and stylistic characteristics (Brandes & Provotorov 2011), registers (Ballard 1980). Then, scholars rank these categories according to their influence on translation process in order to distinguish predominating ones. Finally, they develop translatological classifications of texts based on dominant categories linked with translation operations. The list of these categories and their relations vary; consequently, it results in a variety of classifications. The principles of their functioning are if not common, but at least not opposed to each other (Ayupova 2014). On this basis, scholars generate a list of recommendations, a nomenclature of interlingual matches or an algorithm of translation specified by types of source texts, that is a kind of translation matrix.

When put into translation practice, this matrix influences the choice of a translation strategy that is a high-level plan to achieve translation goals. In accordance with this, most researchers differentiate between the two basic strategies determined by target and source languages' ideology and culture, i.e. domestication and foreignization strategies (Kemppanen, Jänis, & Belikova 2012).

Within the domesticating strategy, translators prefer to create texts that are more in compliance with the target culture in terms of lexical collocations, language structures, ethnic features, social practices, and symbols (Yang 2010). Consequently, domestication employs translation techniques imitating various features of the target culture and neutralizing the characteristics of the source culture. They are semantic and functional techniques of translation, focused on transferring semantic and pragmatic components of the source text. For example, functional replacement is the method expressing source text concepts by language units of the target text that differ from the language forms of the source text. The method known as specification transfers source language units with general meanings by means of target language units with more specific meanings. The method of generalization expresses source language units with specific meanings by means of target language units with more general meanings. The translation technique called explication transfers language units of the source text by giving definitions to them in the target text, and the method of meaning differentiation conveys source language units following the rules of target language collocations and employing target language units with similar, but not corresponding meanings.

Applying the foreignization strategy, translators demonstrate the opposite approach, as their translation techniques preserve source text elements recognized as foreign to the target culture (Yang 2010). In this case, translation methods are form-dependent, as they transfer formal characteristics of the source text to the target language. For example, the technique known as original form preservation employs foreign source text signs in the target text. The methods of transcription and transliteration transfer formal characteristics of words of the source text expressed in sounds and letters, respectively, by means of alphabetic or other signs of the target text. The technique called loan translation occur when language units of the source text appear in the target text borrowed by literal, word-for-word or root-for-root translation.

Despite the variety of approaches to the problem of pre-translation analysis, two major trends determine strategies and techniques of source text translation. The first tendency, conventionally called objectivist one, puts into focus impersonal characteristics of source texts, separating, as a rule, their linguistic and extralinguistic parameters, and emphasizing their typed properties based on language facts and attendant verifiable circumstances. This approach supports the idea that text content is invariant, so it is possible to establish the relations of equivalence between source text and target text, presupposing that their subject matter does not depend on individuals who deal with it. Therefore, it is independent from individualities of source text author and translator, as well as any other specific, not stereotyped text properties. In this case, studies focus on functional styles, as they prescribe parameters of text formation in the original language and form a translation matrix predicting transformations in the target text determining the features of a similar typed text in the translation language. The key to success for a translator in this case is to follow the pattern of functional style or genre and to select correspondences based on its rules (Oyali 2015).

The second approach, by contrast, is subjectivist, as, within this framework, pre-translation analysis considers an alternative determining factor primarily influencing translation techniques. It is individual text design based on specific characteristics of its formal and semantic components described in terms of a subjective position of its author, his or her personal meanings and individuality. These characteristics regulate the ways and methods of translation, since the predominant purpose in this case is to preserve and / or to compensate in the target text all the individuality of the source text. Accordingly, all translation actions become heuristic rather than rule-based, so translators construct texts, but not reconstruct them (Gennaro 2011).

It is essential that both trends are traditionally associated with different fields of translation: the objectivist approach has more effectiveness when applied to technical translation, and the subjectivist approach is more in demand for the purposes of literary translation. These approaches also differentiate the roles of translators, who just perform algorithms having no impact on target text, in the first case, or who generates individual product creating translation text, in the second case.

In the case of architectural criticism as a source text, both subjective and objective approaches to pre-translation analysis appear problematic because such texts convey interpretative process of assessment aimed at diverse practices of architecture; therefore, they combine both individual and stereotyped parameters (Raman and Coyne 2000) that would form mutually exclusive tactics of translation within the framework of subjectivist and objectivist approaches. Consequently, the pre-translation analysis of source text in this case requires additional integrating methods provided by discourse-cognitive paradigm and intersubjective approach.

2. Research Methodology

The research is a case study of pre-translation analysis performed by the students of Architectural Department of Irkutsk National Research Technical University that was a part of their specialised translation course project. The source text was a book entitled ‘The Architecture of Community’ written by Leon Krier in 2009 in English. The author is known as one the most provocative architects and urban theoreticians in the world whose core audience includes architects, city planners, and academics. In this book, he confers with them about his thinking on how to make sustainable, humane, and attractive villages, towns, and cities. The text has distinction as the author’s strong personality and academic authority create a system of original ideas expressed by means of extraordinary nominations that can be viewed both as terms and metaphors occurring in the context of technical descriptions.

The research was conducted according to the following procedure: 1) establishing the theoretical framework of the research, 2) collecting empirical data in the process of pre-translation analysis of the source text, 3) analyzing the data collected, 4) developing translation strategy and presenting the findings.

3. Theoretical Backgrounds

In the broadest sense, pre-translation analysis provides an understanding of the original text. At the same time, the objectivist and subjectivist tendencies treat the process of source text understanding differently, i.e. as analysis (extraction of meanings) and synthesis (creative thinking, construction of meanings), respectively (Zlateva 2000). The specificity of architectural texts is the result of integration of these two trends. To understand architectural critics, a translator should act not only in the context of algorithms and interlingual matches, but to be a source of creation, a subject of cognition, a researcher, an author, synthesizing the results of scientific and aesthetic understanding of the world.

Traditional methods of pre-translation analysis involve correspondences belonging to various language levels. These approaches inevitably lead to an endless fragmentation of original texts, as described below: during the process of understanding the source text, the translator firstly identifies the meanings of words and their relationships starting from the sentence level, then in paragraphs and selected segments of the text and finally throughout the entire text (Seresová & Breveníková 2019). Analytical approaches contradict the essential qualitative characteristics of texts that are coherence and integrity. This is particularly challenging in written domain-based translation, which reveals individual and social responsibilities of translators, and where the time of interaction with texts is less limited. The effectiveness of translators’ cognitive interaction with structured knowledge represented in scientific texts, and the ability to correlate these structures with the conceptual apparatus of a particular branch of science or domain, comes to the fore.

As noted in (Alekseeva 2010), when translating a scientific text, a translator generates knowledge structures, so his or her efforts are not exclusively dependent on translation of a separate term viewed as a particle of information. Working with specialized texts, translators create a potentially dynamic intertextual space. In this sense, the methodology of scientific text translation becomes macro-centric. Accordingly, any scientific text is a part of the matrix of scientific knowledge accumulated by a given period of time (regressive intertextuality) and the basis for the further development of a certain field of knowledge (progressive intertextuality). These characteristics contribute to the didactic potential of specialized text translation (Latysheva & Shchurik 2015), as all implied knowledge that is not articulated in the source text becomes evident through the text continuum of a specific domain.

Intertextuality, described in most studies as a stylistic device that increases the effectiveness of communication, represents communicative interaction in the framework of the theory of discourse, c.f.: texts that draw upon incorporate and decontextualized dialogues with other texts (Paiva 1969). Engaging discourse and cognitive paradigms as a complex tool of analysis allows translators to examine the links between cognition and human factor and study similarities and differences across cultures (Qassem & Gurindapalli 2019).

Text communicative interaction correlates with the idea of internal dialogism or polyphony discussed in (Bakhtin 2010). This philosophical and literary analysis gives the understanding of a text as a phenomenon representing many different voices that reflect personal relations or various subjective positions. According to this, in a text, the relations occur through the location of particular authors in their spatial and temporal context, so they construe the meanings together in the inter-connection with each other. Similarly, the interaction between personalities or subjects in (Volosinov 1973) is qualified as a basic factor that contributes to understanding of language phenomena. Therefore, any utterance is a part of a continuing cognitive speech interaction. Within the framework of the modern discourse-cognitive paradigm, the concept of intersubjectivity helps to explain grammatical phenomena in terms of texts' cognitive and communicative parameters (Latysheva, Sivtseva, & Fetisova 2017).

Thus, this research makes a hypothesis that the intersubjective approach to the pre-translation analysis of the architectural criticism will neutralize the opposition of objectivism and subjectivism. Consequently, this approach will contribute to the development of an optimal translation strategy in making scientifically grounded translation decisions.

4. Source Text Analysis

At the first stage of analysis, we applied intertextual approach to identify general characteristics of the source text that are essential for knowledge generation of the field. Belonging to the field of architectural criticism, the text employs complex semiotic structures that involve space arrangements and environment in their connections with individuals and social groups. The text represents material world meant for life, and it transfers messages by means of cultural codes belonging to the world of ideas and values. Thus, it refers not only to engineering and technical studies, but also to sociological, philosophical, cultural, and semiotic research generating knowledge of several domains.

The first feature entails the second characteristic of the source text typical of architectural criticism that is pragmatically complicated, as it performs the tasks of orientation, structural identification and classification, historical and cultural recognition. It is also semantically ambiguous because it combines signs with the reference both to material objects studied by hard sciences like geometry or physics, and to figurative and symbolic entities found in arts and humanities. For example, the descriptions of architectural forms can combine technical characteristics (shapes, assemblies and details, materials and technology) and figurative expressions based on associations, metaphors, comparison and symbols.

The third essential feature of the source text is its historical perspective that results from a specific character of architecture which objects reflect historical and cultural context of civilization. This means that the symbolism of traditional architectural forms and its modern interpretations may refer to ideas and values associated with specific historical and cultural events. Therefore, architectural objects become landmarks for interpretations helping to 'read' the skyline of a city.

Architectural signs and symbols denote the utilitarian functions of constructions and connote their symbolic meaning. They are inseparable being a context for interpretation for each other; thus, both meanings are essential for translation. This makes pre-translation analysis within the traditional framework problematic. On the one hand, according to objectivist approach, the analysis is based on the idea of knowledge structures represented in scientific texts.

As a scientific field, architecture employs notions to represent its knowledge about the reality. On the other hand, as an art form related to subjectivist approach, it generates symbols to convey messages and influence emotions. Linguistic analysis puts language units that performs these tasks into different categories. It associates notions with terms and symbols with epithets, metaphors and similar literary techniques. Analytical approach to pre-translation analysis also separates them, as methods of their translation differ.

According to all mentioned above, the pre-translation analysis of the source text revealed two translatological poles influencing further translation decisions. The first pole attracts translators to the sphere of 'hard science', where such parameters as accuracy, objectivity, visibility, materiality, logical structure, lack of emotional colouring, explicit meanings, and unambiguity dominate (Krein-Kühle, 2011). In this case, translators develop a strategy for dealing with terminology that employs the objectivist approach, though the choice of translation methods transferring industry-based terms may depend on individual preferences of translators, as shown in (Timofeeva & Potapova 2019). Depending on the cognitive and discursive parameters of terminological units, they apply either domestication resulting in semantic and functional techniques of translation or foreignization leading to form-dependent methods of translation (Latysheva 2019).

The second pole, on the contrary, activates the sphere of 'soft science', where translators analyse metaphorical and emotionally coloured vocabulary, implicit and evaluative notions, ambiguity of personal meanings and axiological modality (Boase-Beier, 2014). Under these circumstances, source text nominations obtain the status of artistic techniques, such as metaphors, epithets, oxymoron, comparison, etc. Consequently, translators' decisions are made within the framework of subjectivist approach in order to reveal and transfer the author's individuality. As a result, source text nominations fall into the categories presented in Table 1.

However, the traditional approach opposing objectivist and subjectivist methods discloses a number of composite nominations of the source text that do not belong to either of the categories, as they arise between the two poles with hybrid features that complicate their categorisation. The example in Table 2 illustrates the case.

Table 1 Translatological poles of the source text

Hard science pole (terminology)	Soft science pole (artistic techniques)
urban planning settlements suburbs structures prefabricated tower blocks mass housing business park	historic tragedy ensuing tyranny of compulsive commuting civilizing and emotional qualities (of buildings) insatiable drive for autonomy tabula rasa approach hodgepodge appearance mistrust of modernism

Table 2 Hybrid source text nomination(s)

ST nomination(s)	Meanings and functions	Variants of translation into Russian, strategies and translation techniques	Opposition of objectivist and subjectivist methods
Skin and skeleton	These nominations are terms; the author develops a system of notions viewing architectural objects in the context of organisms' existence and sustainability	внешняя облицовка и конструкции (vneshnyaya oblicovka i konstrukcii); domestication; meaning-based translation conveying knowledge structures	Hard science pole (terminology)
	This nomination is a metaphor; the author makes a comparison relating building envelopes and structures to vertebrates (living organisms with skin and skeleton) in order to create a vivid image	кожа и скелет (kozha i skelet); foreignization; form-based translation conveying the author's individuality	Soft science pole (artistic techniques)

With the traditional approach opposing objectivist and subjectivist methods and results of pre-translation analysis, it is problematic to differentiate between the two translatological poles. Accordingly, it is difficult to identify the appropriate translation strategy resulting in different translation techniques. Therefore, it is necessary to take an alternative approach.

5. Intersubjective Approach and Translation Strategy

The peculiar features of architectural criticism discussed above make the process of source text understanding simultaneously related to both translatological poles. Under these conditions, the translator should synchronously act as a knower, a researcher, and an author synthesising scientific, aesthetic, and value paradigms that represent architectural field.

In accordance with this, at the first stage of pre-translation analysis based on intersubjective approach, we rejected the traditional division of terminology and expressive means of language in the source text and introduced one common category for all the general, specific, neutral, and connotative expressions related to architectural field qualified as architectural nominations.

After that, using the concepts of intersubjectivity and intertextuality, we assumed that the translator creates frames and knowledge structures. Doing so, he focuses the efforts not on a separate term, metaphor or any other meaningful unit, but on the cross-linkage between the architectural nominations of the source text and the dynamic intertextual space leading to the macro context of architectural field. To establish these links, the translator should design the strategy that is in accordance with the matrix of scientific knowledge having been instituted by the time of translation to make progress in the further development of architectural criticism. Thus, the predomination factors that influence the trajectory of interpretation and determine the translation strategy are discursive and cognitive parameters of architectural nominations.

In the framework of intersubjective approach, pre-translation analysis of architectural criticism obtains a supplementary determinant in discourse analysis expressed through varied discursive roles or different types of subjects that interact with each other and reveal internal dialogues within the boundaries of institutions and unlimited creation of individuality. The meanings arise from communication between different traditions, alternative subtexts, and various ‘voices’ of architecture or discursive roles and practices.

Studies confirm that different types of discursive practices come into operation within a time span, as people take various roles and behave according to culturally determined expectations (Karasik & Gillespie, 2014). Institutional discourse organizes society making people fulfill their functions or imposing specific behaviour patterns on them. There are agents who embody the institution, and clients who address them. Agents are entitled to lead the discourse, to give expert opinions and recommendations, to express explicit evaluation, etc. (ib.).

In this perspective, institutional discourse is associated with power that institutions need to maintain themselves and to perpetuate their influence. For this purpose, they are obliged to maintain institutional values, meanings and positions (Thompson, 2009). For a translator, this means a high level of conventionality and interpretation of architectural nominations as if they were term or notions. The translation strategy, in this case, is to convey the consensus of authorities by creating terminology in the target text, as shown in example 1:

(1)

Original sentence: *The nickname is the most definitive and devastating criticism that a building can receive because it does not err. It is a revenge of language in general, and of words in particular. The nickname is the correct name for a* <u>*kitsch*</u> *object*.

Translated into Russian: *Прозвище – самая определенная и разрушительная критика, которую может получить здание, потому что оно безошибочно. Это месть языку вообще и словам в частности. Прозвище показывает действительно подходящее название для* <u>*китч-объекта*</u>.

In this passage, the author takes the role of an agent in institutional discourse, as he establishes institutional values by expressing expert’s opinion, giving recommendations and creating notions. His discursive practice articulates his authority. Under the influence of this discursive parameters, the underlined architectural nomination conveys the conceptual part of its meaning and loses its expressive content. As a result, by means of foreignization strategy combined with the method of word linking, the nomination becomes a unit of terminological system in the target text (*kitch-ob"ekt*).

Institutional discourse is opposed to personal discourse. Having self-reflective properties, expressing sentiments and giving individual opinions, personal discourse employs pluralism as a leading discursive practice. This means that the translator does not have any interpretation constraints, so the level of conventionality can decrease. As a result, there is a variability in discursive roles. They appear in interactions with institutional discourse, for example, members of oppressed groups, subordinate individuals. As a result, architectural nominations obtain an alternative function. They do not work as notions but convey implicit negative assessments in order to lessen the power of institutional authorities, as shown in example 2:

(2)

Original sentence: *These may be the first concrete demonstrations of a form of modernity that is not alienating, <u>kitsch</u> or aggressive but serene and urbane.*

Translated into Russian: *Выше перечисленные объекты лишь первые конкретные примеры формы современности, которую не нужно сторониться, ведь она не <u>безвкусная</u> и агрессивная, а спокойная и изысканная.*

In this context, the similar architectural nomination is translated differently as the author takes a different discursive role. Using the modal verb of possibility, the negative form of the verb and the construction of concession, he stops being authoritative and employs the connotative meaning of architectural nomination. In this case, the translator's aim is to convey the negativity of given estimation. Therefore, the target text displays domestication strategy with the meaning-based translation method resulting in the use of the Russian epithet *bezvkusnaya* which means *tasteless, inellegant*.

6. Conclusion

Intersubjective approach to pre-translation analysis of architectural criticism gives an opportunity to expand the possibilities of discourse-cognitive justification when choosing strategies and methods of translation. The developed approach makes it possible to neutralize the contradictions between the objectivism and subjectivism in pre-translation analysis of architectural criticism, providing the tool for understanding that depends on the roles and nature of interaction of discursive subjects. Further application of this approach will provide a more detailed study of the varieties of discursive roles and intersubjective relations, as well as the identification of the relationship between the types of knowledge and translatological characteristics of the source text. Matching the parameters listed above with discursive practices, a description of relevant translatological parameters of architectural nominations will justify translation decisions simultaneously increasing the level of conventionality within institutional discourse and the specifics of personal meanings of the source text author within personal discourse.

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Review research paper

TEACHING NOUN-PHRASE COMPOSITION IN EAP/ESP CONTEXT: A CORPUS-ASSISTED APPROACH TO OVERCOME A DIDACTIC GAP

Maria Malakhovskaya[1], Larisa Beliaeva[1], Olga Kamshilova[1,2]

[1]Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia, Russia
[2]Saint-Petersburg University of Management Technologies and Economics, Russia

Abstract. *Attributive noun phrases, namely noun + noun constructions (NNCs), is an essential typological characteristic of academic style. However, errors in their production and use are not uncommon even in the writing of advanced Russian users of academic English. As such errors slow down reading and, in some cases, lead to misinterpretations, they may be a hindrance to the publication of research results in international journals. Aiming at facilitating NNC instruction, the study focuses on linguistic and didactic aspects of this construction. It highlights NNC complexity and a lack of consensus among researchers as to their linguistic status and semantic nature. The research demonstrates that NNCs do not find proper interpretation in EAP/ESP teaching literature, which results in their misuse by non-native English contributors to international scientific journals. Based on some published practice and personal experience in teaching academic skills, the research lays down a corpus-assisted approach to teaching students to master the grammar and use of NNCs in their own discipline texts. The principal advantage of this approach is that it provides students with patterns of NNP expert use and aids EAP/ESP instructors to develop discipline-specific didactic materials based on reliable and up-to-date facts on generating NNCs.*

Key words: *noun phrase (NP), noun+noun construction (NNC), corpus technologies, syntactic complexity, English for Academic purposes (EAP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP)*

1. INTRODUCTION

Ever since the role of English as a lingua franca was generally recognized in international scientific and academic communication there has been a boom in the field of educational literature on academic English (EAP) and English for specific purposes (ESP) studies. This inspired a growing research interest in the processes of teaching academic writing and academic literacy skills. Academic literacy skills involve working on two "parallel but related levels", which were defined as discursive literacy and linguistic literacy (Liu and Li 2016, 49). Discursive literacy is the ability to create a scientific text in accordance with the logical, structural and stylistic requirements that

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Corresponding author: Maria Malakhovskaya. Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia, 48 Moyka Embankment (Naberezhnaya r. Moyki) St. Petersburg, 191186, Russia | E-mail: lmalakh2001@mail.ru

have developed in each discipline for texts of various genres and types. Linguistic literacy implies adequate lexical and grammatical skills. Teaching discursive literacy is axiomatic, especially for academic and scientific communities whose national scholarly writing traditions differ from today's international discursive practices. However, some research findings indicate that non-native English (L2) writers of scholarly texts see their problems rather at the linguistic level (i.e. they are concerned about a lack of skills in using proper vocabulary and syntax to express their ideas), than at the global, discursive level (Qian and Krugly-Smolska 2008; Liu and Li 2016). These findings cannot be neglected and the linguistic component of an academic course curriculum should include discipline-specific lexical and grammatical constructions.

One such construction is a multi-word noun phrase (multi-word NP), a syntactic construction with one or more nominal premodifiers, that is $N_1+N_2+\ldots+N_n$ constructions (NNCs hereinafter). As we will later show, this construction, common as it is in scientific text, has not been properly addressed in academic English courses. As a result, even texts by advanced L2 users of English are not deprived of errors in multi-word noun phrase composition. Such errors can significantly affect the perception of their texts by readers, including reviewers of international academic journals.

The focus of the paper is on complexity of NNC syntax which disables ESP/EAP learners and writers for international journals both to understand and compose multi-word NNCs. We claim that NNCs are text-dependent and discipline dependent units. Hence, one way to deal with them in EAP / ESP instruction is to develop discipline-specific teaching techniques based on the use of linguistic corpora. This study will outline some approaches to developing such methodology.

2. NNCs in Scientific Texts: Syntactic, Didactic and Contextual Aspects

2.1. NNCs as a marker of scientific text syntactic complexity

The well-known classical work of Biber et al. (2007) states that 30% of all noun premodification structures in academic texts are NNCs, their presence in texts of other register/style being considerably lower (ibid., p.589). It means that this construction is an essential typological characteristic of scientific style. Therefore, it should be properly represented in the EAP / ESP curricula. However, due to the complexity of the semantic and syntactic nature of NNC, the development of teaching materials on this topic would not be possible without a careful consideration of the didactic and linguistic aspects of this phenomenon.

A large number of recently published studies concentrate on didactic aspects of NNCs. Most of them follow Biber, Gray and Poonpon (2011), who assumed that the level of academic literacy correlates with the choice of language tools that students choose to express attributive semantics: students of a beginner level would most frequently use adjectives and relative clauses as attributes, and later, as they improve in academic writing, they start using more complicated syntactic structures based on multi-word NPs.

The hypothesis was later proved by numerous researchers, who showed that texts of authors who are more advanced in academic writing, regardless of whether English is their first or foreign language, are characterized by a much denser use of complex NPs than those of less experienced authors (Parkinson and Musgrave 2014; Ansarifar et al. 2018).

It is well known that syntactic complexity is one of the requirements for academic writing (Ansarifar et al. 2018). It is perceived as an indicator of the writer's belonging to the academic community both by readers and peer reviewers. That is why teaching students how to create syntactically complex texts is a most important task facing teachers of academic writing.

NNCs play a special role in writing syntactically complex scholarly texts for two reasons. Firstly, the use of nominal premodifiers is a common way to produce new terminological units (e.g., *climate change, sex education, identity formation, assertion component, responsive web design*). Secondly, the implicit semantic structure of such terms is not always transparent and needs to be explicated through the context in which NNCs are used in each subject area. Hence, good skills in NNC use will indicate a student's progress in the subject area (Elliott, 2019).

Thus, it is both the frequency of NNC in academic text and its syntactic complexity, that leads us to a conclusion that this structure should be seriously considered in EAP/ESP curricula. It is all the more necessary as these syntactic complexes present problems in instruction due to their controversial grammatical status and complicated semantic nature. Our teaching experience gives much evidence of how challenging NNC grammar is for Russian ESP /EAP learners and how short of relevant didactic support the teachers are.

2.2. NNCs in ESP/EAP instruction

Although much research has been done on the patterns of NNCs acquisition by non-anglophone academic writers, so far very few studies have highlighted the errors L2 authors tend to make in composition and use of these constructions and the problems teachers face when teaching them (Peter Strutt's Detlta Pages 2015). We analyzed various types of NNC misuse in academic texts, written by researchers and postgraduates of Herzen University (Saint Petersburg, Russia). The authors' pretested language proficiency was B2–C1. The analyzed texts were records of English lecture courses and draft versions of articles intended for publication in international scientific journals. The analysis revealed the authors' awareness of NNC role in a scientific text, though composition of NNCs in their texts was very often incorrect, unnatural, and, as a result, incomprehensible for the reader. Here are most frequent mistakes:

1) Globalization affects *culture life* in our country вместо (instead of *cultural life*);

2) Now we have to consider the *countries differences* (instead of *difference between the countries*);

3) *Children literature* is of great importance in preschool education (instead of *children's literature*).

4) (in the title) *Three design theory* (instead of *The theory of three designs*).

The illustrations show, that Russian ESP/EAP learners tend to overuse NCCs, prefer a noun component as a premodifier even if there is a suitable adjective, and use plural nouns as premodifiers. Similar tendences are found in academic texts produced by speakers of other languages (Peter Strutt's Detlta Pages 2015).

One may assume, that to minimize such mistakes a teacher should support the students with a clear and coherent system of different forms expressing attributive relations, including both prepositive structures (NNCs and possessive nouns) and postpositive attributes with prepositions. Such a system might help them understand their functional and context differences and, in particular, indicate restrictions on NNC compositions and use. But as it turns out, the teacher has almost nothing to rely on for two reasons which we will address in the next sections.

2.2.1. NNC and other noun modification constructions in coursebooks and grammar reference books

A survey of most popular courses on teaching English for general purposes revealed that some of them do not focus on grammar of attributive relations at all (New Cutting Edge, New Inside Out), others would give most general commentaries, limited to a page or two (Straightforward, English File). A more detailed exposition of this topic can be found in advanced grammar books and grammar reference books (Oxford English Grammar in Use Advanced, Advanced Grammar in Use by Martin Hewings). But even there no explanation is given of NNC place among other means of expressing attributive relations and no guide for their use or possible limiting rules. Besides, the prescriptions given there either differ from real language use, or cannot be followed because of students' lack of language and cultural experience. A prescription of that type is found, for instance in (Hewings 2008, 86). It recommends using NNCs only for naming "a well-known class of items". For instance, according to the book, a compound nominal construction *income tax* is quite natural, while a combination like **children's clothes tax* is not and needs turning into a postmodifying prepositional construction *tax on children's clothes.* This lapidary comment undoubtedly does not give much help and only makes the rule on NNC use less clear. Even if NNCs were nominations of well-known classes of items alone, the prescription would be of little use for ESP/EAP learners, since, being speakers of other languages, they could hardly know which classes of objects are well-known and shape integral concepts in native speakers' world picture.

Coursebooks on academic English do not give this topic due attention, either. For instance, Oxford grammar for EAP considers only a very limited list of semantic relations between NNC components and there is no comparison of NNC with other ways of expressing attributive relations. They advise to use it widely but there is no comment on its possible misuse: "It is a technique you should consider using wherever you can" (Paterson and Wedge 2013, 32).

The fact, that a grammar topic so important for academic writing is scarcely mentioned even in specialized coursebooks, explains the numerous mistakes students make in NNC production. The NNC grammar is not taught to students, whatever proficiency level is concerned. Means of expressing attributive relations are fragmentary, not systemic, being neither compared, nor contrasted to each other (Peter Strutt's Detlta Pages 2015). The relation types of NNC components are rather superficially analyzed. As a result, a learner is convinced that they can produce NNCs by mere placing nouns in a line.

2.2.2. NNC grammatical status and semantic interpretation as a challenge in ESP/EAP instruction

These gaps in ESP/EAP curriculum may be explained by the fact that NNC is a highly complex language phenomenon, and even today its linguistic description demonstrates neither a complete understanding, nor a consensus of opinions.

Firstly, NNC grammatical status remains undetermined. Many linguists argue that it is impossible to strictly differentiate two-component nominal structures from free word groups. They state that NNCs are on the cusp between morphology and syntax (Bauer 1998; Fernández-Domínguez 2010). Hence, NNC terminology varies from *nominal compounds* to *noun-noun combinations*, or *noun+noun sequences,* etc. (see Linh 2010). This may objectively reflect problems in NNC linguistic interpretation, but in terms of teaching, it is nothing but a handicap, a hindrance that leads to unconvincing recommendations of the kind we discussed above.

Semantic relations between NNC components is another point of doubt and controversy. Lists of defined semantic relations between NNC components differ both in number and types. Thus, Biber speaks of 15 types of semantic relations between two nouns in a 2-component NNC – composition (*leather coat*), purpose (*war fund*), source (*whale meat*), time (*summer holiday*), location (*heart disease*), etc. (Biber et al. 2007). Other linguists present nomenclatures either shorter or longer than that (see Fernández-Domínguez 2010), and still others claim that such classifications have no sense at all (see Linh 2010). Teaching NNC grammar might be more effective if a teacher had a reliable classification of semantic relations within NNC structure. If they had one, it would be possible to use it as a guide for NNC production and advise students to discard the constructions that do not fit the classification patterns.

One more difficulty in NNC learning and teaching is the lack of morphological elements that could mark the syntactic dependency between the head word and the modifiers. The NNC external simplicity is misleading and most often an NNC meaning can be defined only by its context (Fernández-Domínguez 2010). NNC semantic ambiguity is often illustrated by *a woman doctor* (*a doctor for women* or *a doctor who is a woman*).

So, teaching NNC to ESP/EAP students must become an issue of serious didactic concern. Since acquiring skills in its use and composition is such a challenging task due to its informational density, variety of semantic and syntactic relations between its components and its potential ambiguity (Elliott 2019), it is crucial that it should be a significant component of ESP/EAP curriculum.

2.2.3. NNC variation across various subject areas

In recent years, a number of studies have been published that reveal significant discrepancies in the use of language tools in texts belonging to different disciplines, genres, and types. Some researchers argue that language characteristics of academic texts depend, to a greater extent, on the subject area or discipline, than on the author’s native language and cultural background (Adel and Romer 2012). NNCs have also become objects of comparison across different subject areas.

Elliott (2019), for instance, analyzed the NNC use in The Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers (MICUSP). He came to a conclusion that NNC frequency is in direct dependence on the discipline the text belongs to. The highest frequency was found in texts on hard disciplines, while the lowest is characteristic of soft disciplines. He also demonstrated that NNC frequency depends on whether the discipline is pure or applied. Applied disciplines show more NNCs than pure ones. Besides, he found that the length of noun strings is also discipline dependent: the soft-pure disciplines show significantly fewer noun strings with two or more nouns as premodifiers than the hard-applied ones.

On the whole, research like this highlights the value of a discipline-specific approach to teaching noun+noun sequences to ESP/EAP students. We suggest that such approach can be provided with corpus technologies, which may be used in class or individually, on the one hand, and as a resource for new teaching materials, on the other.

3. Corpus Technologies in NNC Study and Practice

The rise of corpus technologies provides new possibilities both for research and education The use of text corpora and corpus tools have proved effective enough in helping the learner to enrich their vocabulary and master the grammar and style of their own discipline texts. Basing on some published practice (Linh 2010; Anthony 2019) and personal experience we attempt to describe some corpus-assisted practices that may be applied to teach students to deal with NNCs in texts of their subject area.

Following our claim that an NNC is rather a unit of syntax, not lexicon, and that its syntactic organization is much related to the context, we suggest to overcome learners' difficulties with NNC use and production by referring to text corpora, both well-known and original, built by the learner and including texts of their own discipline.

3.1. Method

The methodology is based on the use of computer tools for text analysis, namely AntConc, which is a free and reliable corpus manager, a toolkit with a number of useful instruments for text processing. The choice of the tool is determined by a number of reasons among which are the tool availability and reliability, and a relatively small volume of the processed corpus. Corpus processing mainly involved such instruments as Word List, Concordance, Clusters/N-grams, and the procedure included the following steps:

Step 1. Collecting and normalizing texts in learner's own discipline: titles and non-text elements (figures, pictures, hyperlinks, etc.) are to be deleted, txt-format is recommended to load the text in the instrument;

Step 2. Generating the corpus Word List. Scrolling down and exploring the data (after the stopwords are deleted[1]) finds most frequent meaningful words, that can be sorted by Frequency, Word (alphabetical order) or Word end;

Step 3. Concordancing. Examining a word in its immediate context; the tool is useful for establishing the length of NNCs and the position of a word in an NNC (head or modifier)

Step 4. Extracting Clusters/N-Grams. The tool helps to extract bi-Grams, tri-Grams, etc. and determine their frequency in the text. It also demonstrates gradual growth of an NNC within a text.

Interpreting the corpus findings (N-Grams, clusters and concordances) helps to judge upon the role of text in interpreting syntactic relations within an NNC and its meaning.

3.2. Procedure: searching NNCs in a corpus

Collecting data. A learner of ESP/EAP may find helpful searching web-based corpora, such as RCPCE collection of profession specific corpora[2] as well as national corpora and corpora embedded in online text analysis tools like Sketch Engine[3]. For instance, RCPCE collection contains corpora from 39 disciplines which can be processed by a number of tools that allow search for individual words/phrases or two or more associated words/phrases and

[1] Stopword lists and lemma lists can also be added to the tool, for example, PubMed's list of 132 stopwords. Many such lists exist for reuse on the internet and the choice depends on the context of the search - McGill Library – URL: https://www.mcgill.ca/library/

[2] Research Centre for Professional Communication in English – URL: http://rcpce.engl.polyu.edu.hk/rcpce/index.html

[3] Sketch Engine – URL: https://app.sketchengine.eu/

concordancing. It is also possible to add texts that a learner can find on their own. Working with AntConc is exclusively aimed at their individual choice, that means the collection may be restricted to learners' specific discipline and include articles written by experts in the field, which is more effective according to recent studies (see section 2.2.3). The illustrations below are based on searching a small corpus of text on terminological studies.

After the collection has undergone normalization stage it is added to the tool, previously set for proper character encoding, text by text. AntConc can read several text formats: .txt, .html, .xml, .ant. We recommend .txt file as most suitable.

Word List. Scrolling down the Word List helps to find most frequent nouns which, in most cases, are terms or term components describing the subject area. A high frequency noun can be actualized in the text either as one-component NP or as the head noun in a multicomponent one, that is why every noun with frequency 2 or more shall be fixed and analyzed in its immediate context. Let us consider *segmentation* as a candidate for an NP (NCC) component, as its frequency in a processed text on terminological issues is 6.

Clusters/N-Grams. This tool finds clusters with the search word, words immediately adjoining it in the text. The length of n-grams with the search word is set in the box "N-Gram Size" in accordance with research goal. The tool output for *segmentation* is 6 different tetra-grams with *segmentation*. The noun is used in the text as one-component NP only once, in 4 other cases it is part of a premodified NNC: *segmentation rules* (3) and *segmentation rules exchange* (1). There is one more combination in the output – *segmentation (tr# 29 grapheme boundaries* – to define the status of which, as well as of the other 4, the Concordance tool shall be applied.

Concordance. Concordance is a tool that shows how the NP/NNC is used in real text, demonstrating its immediate context. The context analysis confirms that *segmentation* is a noun-premodifier in *segmentation rules*, the latter premodifies *exchange* in a 3-component NNC *segmentation rules exchange*. To decide on the status of *segmentation (tr# 29 grapheme boundaries* the concordance line is not enough, for that purpose it is necessary to use File View tool.

File View. Clicking File View box provides the researcher with a broad context, a text fragment that allows to see, as in the case in question, that one of the tetra-grams for *segmentation* cuts a chank that is not a grammatical sequence at all, since there is a boundary marked by a bracket introducing a syntactically loose part: *segmentation (tr# 29 grapheme boundaries).*

Thus, a researcher or student may find actually and expertly used NPs of different composition and length in texts of their specific discipline. Corpus tools provide reliable facts on generating multi-component NPs and NNCs, give patterns of their expert use and, in that way, may help to compensate the deficiency of didactic materials that we discussed in 2.2.1.

NNC analysis within the text space leads to establishing procedures of coining novel NNCs from those featuring in the text and to recognizing the compressed sentence structure in a concise form of an NNC.

4. Discussion

As it has been shown, NNCs present a challenge for L2 authors and require a careful consideration in EAP and ESP instruction. In this regard, corpus methodology might be a useful tool due to its potential to provide non-native English speakers with information they need to identify and unpack these constructions in scientific texts as well as to use them in their own texts. However, when teaching this topic, it is necessary to emphasize the dual nature of this construction, i.e. the fact that its conciseness, which is so effective in scientific texts, is achieved at the expense of explicitness. The resulting ambiguity "places an increased burden on readers" (Elliott 2019, 12). This may not be much of a problem for the specialist audience, but given the current interest in multidisciplinary research, authors should consider the difficulties that less experienced readers are likely to face when trying to extract information from noun + noun premodification sequences. This consideration is especially important when it comes to supporting L2 authors in their efforts to prepare manuscripts for publication in international journals. As Wallwork noted, it is often the case that papers are reviewed by referees who are not top experts in the field, so the best strategy is to "write in a way that a non-expert or less experienced person can understand" (Wallwork 2013, 13-14). Obviously, texts overloaded with informationally-dense but ambiguous noun phrases cannot meet this requirement.

The potential ambiguity in noun premodification should be taken into account in teaching academic writing. Students need to be instructed how to achieve a balance between informational density and clarity. It means that they have to be aware of other ways of noun modification in academic English.

Some researchers suggest that one of the sound strategies used by proficient academic writers to create dense information structure while establishing explicit relations between NP components is using complex post-modifying prepositional phrases (Biber and Gray 2016, 191). Not only does prepositional postmodification enable the writer to transmit information clearly and efficiently but it also contributes to the syntactic complexity of the text: some types of post-modifying prepositional phrases are associated with the highest developmental stages for noun phrase modification proposed by Biber et al. (2011). Therefore, it is important that L2 writers' repertoire of noun modification be expanded by post-modifying prepositional phrases.

5. Conclusion

NNCs are an essential typological characteristic of academic style. They are the instruments of information density and markers of syntactic complexity, so the ability to produce correct NNCs indicates a high level of the writer's academic literacy. However, our analysis of NNC use in scholarly texts written by Russian researchers and postgraduates has revealed that even advanced users of English make numerous mistakes in coining NNCs, generally tending to overuse them. As a result, noun sequences in their texts are often incorrect, unnatural, and incomprehensible for the reader. This confirms the findings of some other researchers, which demonstrate that the use of NNCs is challenging for non-native English writers.

A critical survey of popular coursebooks and reference books has proved that they give no explanation of NNC place in the system of noun modification and no guide for their use or possible limiting rules. The study also has highlighted the complexity of the NNCs and a lack of consensus among researchers as to their linguistic status and semantic nature.

The fact that a grammar topic so important for academic writing is scarcely mentioned even in specialized coursebooks urges ESP/EAP teachers to develop their own educational materials. We suggest that one way to support learning about NNC composition and use is to apply corpus technologies with respect to NNC specificity in different subject areas.

Our methodology is based on the use of reliable computer tools for text analysis, such as AntConc. We have worked out a four-step procedure which can be adjusted to learners'/researchers' individual needs. It means that the collection of data may be restricted to learners' specific discipline and include papers written by experts in the field. Following this procedure, a researcher or student may find actually and expertly used NPs of different composition and length in texts of their specific discipline.

Corpus tools provide reliable facts on generating multi-component NPs and NNCs, give patterns of their expert use and, in this way, may help to compensate for the deficiency of teaching materials in NNC instruction. They also enable users to establish procedures of coining novel NNCs from those featuring in the analyzed text space.

This methodology may open a pathway to those concerned with the gap in ESP/EAP curricula as regards NNC instruction. The suggested procedure may enable them to create discipline-specific teaching materials and provide students with both well-structured and consistent information on the use of this construction and a system of relevant practical activities.

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Review research paper

HOW CAN AND SHOULD TRANSLATION TEACHERS BE TRAINED?

Olga Petrova, Vadim Sdobnikov

Nizhny Novgorod Linguistic University, Russia

Abstract. *The need to train a large number of translators necessitates the training of professional translation teachers. At present, translation is taught either by translators having no pedagogical education or by teachers of foreign languages with no degree and often no practical experience in translation. Both categories need additional training that would supplement their education. The existing system of short-time professional development courses is not adequate to the task of filling in the gaps in professional education of translation teachers. The article discusses a conceptually new approach to retraining and training translation teachers that presupposes developing and introducing several type programs. They are extensive retraining programs for those who currently teach translation and two types of master’s degree programs for students having a bachelor’s degree either in translation or in teaching foreign languages. In both types of programs, the pedagogical and translation components of education will supplement each other, so that graduates will acquire competences necessary for being good translation teacher. Special emphasis should be laid on translation didactics which so far has not been taught either in translator training programs or in teacher training programs of any type or level. The authors discuss principles of designing and developing such programs.*

Key words*: translation trainers, competences, translation didactics, translation mentality*

1.INTRODUCTION

The number of international interactions has grown dramatically in the global environment, which requires interlingual and intercultural mediation effected by professional interpreters and translators. It has entailed the need to train those who can serve as mediators in cross-cultural communication. Education systems of many countries, including Russia, have faced the challenge and tried to adapt to it rapidly and in the most effective way. The effectiveness of the changes can be measured, at least, in the growing number of educational institutions that train translators/interpreters in specific countries. The trend has spread even to the regions that previously have managed to do without extensive translation services provided by nationals. An example can be adduced: Faryab University (Afghanistan) has made a decision to introduce translator training as an educational program addressed to Afghani citizens, and has established relations with Higher School of Translation (Linguistics

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Corresponding author: Olga Petrova. Nizhny Novgorod Linguistic University, Minina 31a, Nizhny Novgorod, Russia, 603155, Russia | E-mail: o.v.petrova.nn@gmail.com

University of Nizhny Novgorod) in Russia. It will be the first translator training program in Afghanistan ever.

Development of translator training at universities has given an impetus to the development of translation didactics. Many scholars have contributed to it. A general review of translation didactics development has been offered by Amparo Hurtado Albir (Albir 2017). Chakib Bnini (Bnini 2016) and Douglas Robinson (Robinson 2007) have formulated general principles of training translators and interpreters. Maria Brander de la Iglesia and Jan-Hendrik Opdenhoff (Brander de la Iglesia, Opdenhoff 2014) followed Daneil Gile (Gile 1995) in specifying the competences which an interpreter should possess. Franz Pöchhacker (Pöchhacker 2004) has reviewed the most common models and methodological approaches in the area of teaching court and hospital interpreting. Jorge Diaz Cintas (Díaz Cintas 2008) has outlined the foundations of didactics of audiovisual translation. Cristina Lara Plaza, among others, views Translation Studies as an interdisciplinary field and on this basis considers multicomponential models of translator competences (Lara Plaza 2016). Other scholars have developed methods of teaching various types of translation (Jordan-Núñez 2014; Kubanek, Molnar 2012). This is a very short list of contributors to translation didactics development.

With translator training being developed quantitatively and, we hope, qualitatively, another challenge has emerged: the need to train those who are best qualified to teach translators, i.e. translator trainers. Although many educators and education managers pretend to ignore the challenge and do little to respond to it, the need to create a system of training translator teachers does exist and, moreover, is urging. As has been said, little is being done to this effect so far. Meanwhile, life itself and the needs of educational institutions make us search for the answers to the questions: who trains translators now? What is their path to the translator trainer profession? What competences are required from translator trainers?

Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to analyze the situation in the field of training translator trainers in Russia and other countries, the ways and methods of training translator trainers used now (if any) and to propose possible and probable formats of training them.

2. Various Ways to Become a Translator Trainer: Situation in Russia and Globally

The general perception of the situation in the field of translator trainers training is mainly based on empirical evidence and, therefore, in not exact, especially in the Russian context. A rare example is a survey conducted by a research team from Linguistics University of Nizhny Novgorod which reveals certain trends in and particulars of the translator trainer education. Although the need to investigate into the ways of how people become translation teachers has not been unnoticed by Western translation scholars; hence, some works (though not numerous) dedicated to the problem.

2.1. Translator Trainer Education in the Russian Context

It so happened historically that there are no specialized programs for training translation teachers in Russia. Unlike teachers of other disciplines, who are trained at pedagogical colleges or whose professional training in a chosen field at a university is supplemented with the additional qualification “"Higher School Teacher", translation trainers are never trained to teach translation. A survey of the current situation at the translation and interpreting schools and departments shows that people teaching there either have a degree in translation, but have never been taught to teach anything and have no knowledge of translation didactics, or have a degree in education and have been trained to teach foreign languages, but have no professional training in translation. There are no people having a degree in teaching translation.

In the 90-s, when Russia was suddenly confronted with the necessity to translate a huge amount of information, there appeared a need for many translators who had to be trained in as many universities and colleges as possible. Translation teachers were scarce in the country, so the task was assigned to teachers of foreign languages. Educational authorities believed that all you needed for translation and teaching translation is being fluent in a foreign language. So teachers with no education in translation, often being sure that translation consists merely in replacing signs of one language by signs of another, entered the translation market themselves and simultaneously began teaching this amateurish approach to translation, at the same time feverishly educating themselves with the help of randomly chosen, often incongruous translation manuals. With such eclectic self-education, they couldn’t possibly give students any integral, comprehensive idea of translation. A considerable part of these teachers continue to train students. Moreover, some of them look upon translation classes as an aspect of teaching a foreign language. The survey shows that today nearly 50% of translation trainers have no degree in translation.

At the same time the other half is people who have graduated from translation schools and departments. The question of how and which type of translation they were taught should be discussed separately. What is relevant here is that, having no education in translation didactics, they began reproducing the way they themselves had been taught – and some still keep doing it. There is nothing basically wrong about the method of teaching based on copying one’s own teachers. The question, however, is whether those teachers were professional enough.

The situation is aggravated by the fact that the translation market has changed radically lately, in terms of quantity, quality and time limits, as well as in terms of the tools used. It is noteworthy that translation and even interpreting have turned into an immensely technological activity, which requires special skills and knowledge from translators/interpreters and translation teachers. Moreover, it can be said without exaggeration that technologization of the translation activity changes translators’ professional mentality and their approach to translating a text. The fact has been emphasized by Yves Gambier who argues that a new paradigm has appeared in the Translation Studies, specifically, the one “which reflects the platforms and mediums through which the activity of translation is now carried out” (Gambier 2019 : 357).

In order to train translators capable of meeting the new requirements instructors have to be aware of these requirements, and the knowledge previously acquired is now obviously insufficient and obsolete.

True, many translation teachers feel that their teaching methods are obsolete; some of them realize that they need more learning to cope with the new challenges. For that reason, many short-term professional development courses are organized by Russian universities, translators’ associations and even translation companies for those who feel the imperative to develop as educators. Unfortunately, the practice of short-time professional development courses (usually limited to 72 hours with no more than 36 of them being contact classroom hours) is not adequate to the task of preparing highly qualified translation trainers. They can only help in solving some particular problems that the teachers are confronted with in class. For example, methods of teaching various types of translation or interpreting seem to be the most popular topic. Another topic suggested for discussion by those who want to be trendsetters in translator trainers education is, of course, the application of information technologies in translation and interpreting. By all means, the topics are valuable in themselves but not sufficient to train translator trainers. The short-term development courses are not sufficient.

Thus, it can be noted with regret that the formats of training translator trainers offered by the Russian education system are not consistent with the goal. One can justly say that the system completely lacks any effective format of translator trainer education.

2.2. Translator Trainer Education in the Global Context

The situation in other countries, particularly in the West, is somewhat different. As has been mentioned above, attention to the problem has been devoted to the problem of training translation trainers or, at least, to enhancing the competences translation teachers should possess. Investigations have been made into the matter, which resulted in the lists of translation teacher competences. E.g., Dorothy Kelly argues in her most appraised book that “the different areas of competence or expertise required to be a competent translator trainer are: professional translation practice, Translation Studies as an academic discipline, teaching skills” (Kelly 2005 : 151). It is worth mentioning that the latter is treated by her as the most important competence, and is subdivided into “subcompetences: organizational, interpersonal, instructional, contextual or professional, instrumental (Ibid.). The same list is provided in Kelly’s other book (Kelly 2008 : 105-106). It can be supplemented by another classification of translator trainer competences developed by EMT Expert Group. It includes: Field Competence, Interpersonal Competence, Organizational Competence, Instructional Competence, Assessment Competence (The EMT Translator Trainer Profile 2020). It is obvious that the two classifications overlap, which can be easily explained: after all, they are based upon a similar vision of the tasks being solved by a translation teacher and of the practices used in teaching. To these we can add still another classification elaborated by Russian scholar Dmitry Shlepnev. He differentiates between Translation Competences subdivided into general and specific, Common Didactic Competences and Special Didactic Competences also subdivided into general and specific (Sdobnikov, Shamilov, Shlepnev 2020). What comes to the front is the special attention to didactic competences not mentioned explicitly in EMT and Kelly’s classifications. True, they are implied in both of them. One can say that they are dissolved in other competences while Shlepnev makes them a focus of his attention.

Given the space limitations for this paper, we shall not dwell on the essence of each competence in detail. Moreover, the matter seems irrelevant to our discussion. What matters here is the question: how these competences can be obtained by those who want to become competent translator trainers?

Many investigators strongly believe that to do so one should have professional experience, i.e. experience in translating or interpreting or both. The idea has been voiced more than once both in Russia and abroad. Donald Kiraly is exceptionally straightforward in expressing it: “It cannot be expected that language instructors without professional translation expertise will have a professional translator self-concept themselves or that they will be able to help their translation students develop one" (Kiraly 1995 : 3). No one doubts that professional experience is the essential prerequisite for successful teaching. It might follow from this that it is sufficient to engage in translation activity professionally or not quite professionally, as the case might be, to develop "a professional translator self-concept" (to use the terminology of Kiraly), to acquire the profound understanding of the essence of the translation activity and to master the ways and means of solving the problems encountered in the process of translation. We might expect that those professionals who have decided to dedicate themselves to teaching translation might have an idea of acquiring some knowledge of Translation Studies as required by Dorothy Kelly and, maybe, of translation didactics, though it is unclear what sources of information they would use. But, coming back to professional experience, we believe that it is not irrelevant how it can be acquired.

Daniel Gouadec gives the answer to the question which he thinks to be a simple one: teachers on a translator-training programme should spend one month in all three of the following situations: working in a translation firm (either as a translator or a reviser or a terminologist); working in an in-house translation service (same as above); being a free-lance professional (same as above) (Gouadec 2003 : 13). It seems that Gouadec is over-optimistic in his belief that it suffices to have three months of translation experience to achieve the goal formulated by Kiraly. The minimal knowledge of how the translation market is organized can be obtained but not the profound understanding of the profession itself.

Anyway, the old idea that training in translation schools should be done by practitioners seems to be die-hard. But now it is not the only guidance for education administrators. Marc Orlando writes that "many trainers and scholars … recommend that professional practice be carried out simultaneously when teaching in T&I programmes. Consequently, many T&I training institutions have chosen to employ professionals for the vocational classes – these instructors sharing their experience without paying much attention to theory – and academics with expertise in T&I Studies who share their scholarly knowledge but have limited or no experience in T&I practice" (Orlando 2019 : 4). Yet, Orlando remarks that "being an experienced T&I professional, or a widely published and well-regarded academic, is no guarantee of pedagogical competence and teaching skills" (Ibid.). One can hardly counter this claim.

We see that the situation globally is similar to that in Russia. Academics teaching translation and interpreting can be divided into two categories: those who have vast experience in T&I and those whose practical experience is limited or equals to zero. Practitioners recruited by translation schools to teach T&I usually have no knowledge of T&I methodology. And both groups have never been taught to be translator trainers.

What helps them perform their duties with some degree of efficiency? At least, they can copy what their own teachers used to do in class. It is hardly the best way to acquire all the competences mentioned above.

It logically follows from the above that there is a need for the development of programs aimed at professional training of translation and interpreting teachers.

3. New Approach to Training Translation Teachers

3.1. Why do We Need a New Approach?

It has already been stated that the existing system of short-time professional development courses is not adequate to the task of filling in the gaps in professional education of translation teachers. Limited to one week, such programs cannot provide any courses, either theoretical or practical, that would be more or less comprehensive. Unless people have a degree in translation and their skills and knowledge need only brushing up, 36 classroom hours can hardly be of much use to them. With all the variations from university to university an average course in Translation Studies in the specialist's degree program is about 200 hours long. An average course in practical translation is at least ten times longer. Of course, one cannot expect any professional development course to provide as many class-room hours as a specialist's degree program, but the existing short-time courses do not stand up to any comparison with even the shortest variant of the courses offered by bachelor programs that offer at least 36 hours of Translation Studies and 700-800 hours of practical translation. A typical short-time professional development course consists of 36 classroom hours divided between lectures in Translation Studies, lectures in Translation Didactics, practical translation classes and masterclasses showing methods of teaching various types of translation. Needless to say, such a program can only provide superficial, haphazard knowledge.

Moreover, standard professional development courses, sometimes also known as advanced (or further) training courses, have one and the same program for teachers with a degree in translation and for people with a degree in education. The very phrase "advanced (or further) training" presupposes at list some initial, basic training as a prerequisite, while the survey carried out by a research team from Linguistics University of Nizhny Novgorod shows that 45.8% of those who currently teach translation have none. Nevertheless, they are offered the same courses as those 54.2% with a degree in translation.

It is obvious that such a system cannot possibly solve the problem of providing universities with highly qualified translation teachers. It is necessary to find some conceptually new approach to the problem of improving the current situation, an approach that will ensure a high level of translation training in the future.

Generally speaking, a teacher must have all the knowledge and skills that their students are supposed to acquire, plus the knowledge of how to impart this knowledge to students and help them to develop the necessary skills, plus the ability to do it. In case of translation teachers it means knowing at least the fundamentals of Translation Theory, having the necessary skills and a professional competence in translation/interpreting, knowing how the translation industry works, knowing the requirements in the translation market and knowing how to teach it all to students.

Everybody agrees that a teacher of translation and interpreting must have skills and knowledge of a professional translator. However, there is no such unanimity when it comes to Translation Studies. One can hear translators saying that they don't need any theory in their practical work. In the process of translating and especially when interpreting they do not think about the model of translation they are following or about the difference between adequacy and equivalence of their translation – which is true. The purpose of teaching Translation Studies as an academic discipline is quite different. Translation Studies (or, as the academic subject is usually called in Russia, Translation Theory) is by no means a collection of recipes for "correct" translation. It is an instrument for shaping the student's mentality, for developing that professional translator self-concept of which D. Kiraly speaks. And if the knowledge of some basics of Translation Studies is advisable for professional translators, it is an absolute must for translation teachers, whose major task is to facilitate the development of their students' professional mentality, to help them acquire self-awareness as translators.

Nearly half of all the translation trainers in our universities have never been professionally educated in theoretical aspects of translation. Moreover, 42.6% of those who teach

Theory of Translation have no education in translation at all. Of course, there are teachers who have studied the subject on their own. But it is obvious that even in such cases we cannot expect these teachers to have any consistent theoretical background. Experience shows that self-education is often eclectic. As a result, instead of shaping the professional mentality of students these teachers merely provide them with information about various translation schools and translation models – the information that any student can easily find in oh so many sources these days.

3.2. What can be done to improve the situation?

There can be at least two different solutions: a) to develop programs for retraining the people currently teaching translation in our universities and b) to develop programs for training a new generation of translation teachers.

It follows from the above that it is necessary to have two different types of retraining programs - for people with a degree in translation and no education in the science of teaching and for people with a degree in teaching foreign languages and no education in translation. The two categories need totally different programs.

To become a good teacher, practicing translators and interpreters need some training in pedagogy, educational psychology, teaching methods, general didactics, and translation didactics. They will probably also need an industry overview course because many of them concentrate on some specific segment of the marketplace and tend to extrapolate their experience to the whole of the translation industry, thus misleading students and preparing them for something different from what they will actually face in their professional life. This group might also need a refreshing course of Translation Studies and probably some practical translation classes where they would translate various types of texts, going beyond the field of their concentration.

The program should be flexible. Its specific content may vary and will depend on several factors. The survey shows that 48.5% of translation teachers having a degree in translation are people over 40, with half of them being over 50, which means that their theoretical background can be somewhat outdated. At the same time, the other 51.5% are better prepared in terms of theory, but have a more limited experience both as teachers and as translators. So, with them the emphasis should be placed on practical classes. With the diversity of age and experience among the translators currently teaching at the universities all the retraining programs should be tailor-made, adapted to the specific needs of a particular group. Most translation teachers in senior groups will probably need a course of IT technologies in translation and also a course of post-editing. So, to retrain translation teachers with a degree in translation a modular program is needed with a basic psychoeducational block and a number of modules addressed to different groups depending on their background and experience.

With foreign language teachers turned translation trainers the situation is totally different. First of all, they will need a basic practical course of translation or/and interpreting and a course of Translation Studies. The need for the latter has already been explained. As for the practical course of translation, it is necessary for several reasons. On the one hand, it seems strange: why teach practical translation to people who have a more or less lengthy experience both of translating and teaching translation? But on the other hand, the very fact of practicing something does not necessarily guarantee that people are doing it in the right way. It has already been said that many foreign language teachers, who have never been taught translation, have a somewhat amateurish concept of what translation is. They translate isolated words and phrases, rendering lexical meanings rather than sense, they interpret the principle of "keeping close to the original text" as the demand to translate a foreign text literally, copying all its forms and constructions. They practice this kind of translation themselves (we come across such translations daily) and teach their students to do the same. This is not an abstract inference. These are observations made over years of teaching at all sorts of professional development courses. It proves that translation trainers with no degree in translation need both a course in Translation Studies and a course in practical translation, however long their experience as translators and as teachers of translation might be.

They will also need an extensive course introducing them to the specifics of the translation industry, its structure, various requirements to translations and translators, etc. They will certainly need a familiarization course to gain basic practical knowledge and background information on modern technologies and instruments used in translation.

The major problem with such retraining programs is to somehow squeeze them into the busy schedule of university professors. This is actually the main reason why professional development courses are now seldom longer than a week. In other fields there are retraining programs that are lengthy enough. But they are programs designed for independent studying, with a set of learning materials, a list of assigned tasks and consequent tests – a pattern totally unacceptable for retraining translation teachers, especially those with no degree in translation.

A proper retraining program in our case must be comprehensive. There should be no less than 300-350 hours of guided classes. They could be organized in a combined format, with some classes being conducted online and some as contact, face-to-face interaction. The re-trainees should be provided with some materials for studying independently, of course. However, the results of this independent work must be necessarily discussed with professors. It could be partly done in the format of a videoconference. But it should always be some form of personal interaction. There is no place for tests here because the process of shaping students' mentality cannot be formalized. It involves analyzing, debating and looking for alternatives.

As for the classes devoted to classroom techniques and translation proper, they must be taught exclusively in the face-to-face format. Here immediate contact with the professor of the course is of vital importance. The thing is that teaching translation is not just teaching its technology. It is necessary to explain to students what they can and should do with a text and what they have no right to do, what is the essence of translation, what is the correlation between the situation in which the text is generated and that in which it is translated, and how it all influences the process of decision-making and reflects on the final TL text. This is probably the toughest challenge for a translation teacher, and the purpose of a retraining program is to teach how to do it. It is the core of translation didactics, on which we shall dwell further.

These classes must also include explanations of the essence and purpose of translation analysis. Unfortunately, analysis is often thought of as just a formal stage of working with the text. Students are supposed to say who is the author of the text, when the text was written and what it is about. Sometimes, though not often, students are asked to think about a possible purpose of translation. That is the end of it. Decisions made in the process of translation seldom depend on the results of the analysis. For the trainers to be able to make such analysis purposeful in class, the professor of the course must demonstrate how it can influence translation itself.

A combination of on-line and off-line classes with seminars in the format of video conference will allow to reduce the time of re-trainees' physical absence from their university and at the same time provide course participants with an extensive, comprehensive, and integral program.

3.3. The Role of Translation Didactics in Training Translation Teachers

Translation didactics is the most important course in the re-training program. It is equally needed by translation teachers with and without a degree in translation, neither of whom were taught it in college. It is necessary to differentiate between general didactics of translation, which is actually philosophy of translation, and didactics of some particular types of translation. which we would rather call methodology.

General translation didactics must be an obligatory basic course. The purpose of teaching is to inculcate it in the minds of translation teachers that translation deals with texts, not with words and phrases; that a professional translator differs from an automatic translator in understanding the sense of the text instead of identifying the meanings of separate words; in seeing every text in some context - whether linguistic or extralinguistic; in understanding that there is no such thing as "translation in general" or "justa translation", that every translation is done for some specific purpose. They should realize that there cannot be just one "correct translation", that translation is always multivariant. That translation consists in making decisions, with choices and decisions depending on when and for which purpose the text was written and why and for whom it is now being translated.

Another aspect of general translation didactics is the way a translator treats the text. Unfortunately, many translation teachers are convinced that the quality of translation depends on the number of transformations made by the translator – the more the better. The very right to make transformations is understood as an absolute freedom from the form and structure of the original text. Trained by such teachers, students feel it not only as their right, but as their duty to change something in the structure of the TL text in comparison with the original. When asked what the purpose of such changes was, they answer somewhat illogically: "But a translator has the right to do it!". Transformations for the sake of transformations became a regular disease among students, just because they are not taught to understand that any deviation from the original must have some reason, must be purposeful and well-grounded. Moreover, the purpose and the grounds can only be determined by the norms and popular usages of the TL. Translation trainers must explain the difference between translating the original and editing it. To do it, the teachers themselves must be aware of the difference and have a correct, one would even say respectful attitude to the original text.

There is one more aspect to it. Very often students distort the text saying something like "It sounds better this way", and this approach is sanctioned by their teachers. It is absolutely necessary to make translation trainers understand that sense and meaning can never be sacrificed to the "beauty" of translation.

It is also necessary to discuss the translator's attitude to the recipient of translated text, the necessity to see the text with the eyes of the recipient, who views it through the prism of their own cultural background.

With all their seeming obviousness, these things are not always realized by translation trainers. It is necessary to inculcate this attitude in them, to make it part of their perception of the process of translation in order to be able to develop such attitude in students. All this should be made clear to translation trainers in the course of translation didactics.

3.4. Training a New Generation of Translation Teachers

The second solution to the problem of not having enough competent translation trainers is to develop programs for training a new generation of translation teachers. Since bachelors cannot be university teachers, the only option is master's programs.

Here there also should be two different programs, one for those who have bachelor's degree in translation (group 1), the other for teachers of foreign languages (group 2). Both groups will graduate as masters in Translation and Translation Training.

In group 1 there will be students with all the skills and knowledge necessary for being a translator, with an up-to-date theoretical background. So, all they will need in the line of translation is a brushing-up course that would help them keep up their level. But they will certainly need an extensive course of translation didactics.

Apart from this, the program should include a basic psychoeducational block that will include pedagogy, educational psychology, teaching methods, and general didactics.

As for group 2, the program should include an intensive course of practical translation/ interpreting, a course in Translation Studies and an extensive course of translation didactics.

After 2 years of such training both groups should have at least 3 months of internship with students working, as suggested by D.Gouadec,in a translation firm, in an in-house translation service and as a free-lance professional for a month in each capacity gaining the expertise that will give them the necessary competences.

4. Conclusion

In order to meet the requirements of the modern translation market it is necessary to have a sufficient number of highly qualified translators and interpreters, which in its turn necessitates training a sufficient number of professional translation teachers. However, at present translation is taught either by people with a degree in translation and no degree in education or by foreign language teachers. Today universities in Russia do not offer any specialized degree programs for translation teachers. The only way out of the situation is to develop and introduce extensive retraining programs for those who currently teach translation and two types of master's degree programs for training translation teachers having a bachelor's degree either in translation or in teaching foreign languages. In both types of programs, the pedagogical and translation components of education will supplement each other, so that graduates will acquire competences necessary for being good translation teacher. The paper outlines possible formats and content of such programs.

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Review research paper

FOUR-PHASE METHOD IN ESP LISTENING: APPLYING TOPIC-BASED DIALOGUE-INTERVIEWS FOR INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Anastasia Tananykhina, Ludmila Neudachina, Nadezhda Timchenko, Anastasia Dudkina

St Petersburg University, Russia

Abstract. *The paper presents the result of a research into the issue of four-phase method of ESP listening using a topic-based dialogue-interview which contributes to the development of communicative competence of IR students of Saint Petersburg State University. Different aspects of the issue are studied through an attempt to identify students’ difficulties in ESP listening and the role of sociocultural component in four-phase ESP listening method. The effectiveness of four-phase method of ESP listening is evaluated by means of a survey conducted among students of International Relations Faculty of Saint Petersburg State University. The survey demonstrates that four-phase method of ESP listening contributes to eliminate lexical and sociocultural unawareness and develop communicative competence.*

Key words: *ESP listening, professional vocabulary, topic-based dialogue interview, background information, communicative language teaching, integrated skills phase*

1. INTRODUCTION

University programmes in International Relations of Saint Petersburg State University aim to educate highly qualified professionals, who will be equipped with ample specialist knowledge enabling them to conduct international negotiations, achieve a profound understanding of international politics, and defend the interests of their country on the global political arena; this knowledge must be combined with superior communication skills and an excellent command of several foreign languages. Degree courses in International Relations involve theoretical and practical training in an impressive variety of areas, such as keeping official correspondence, conducting analytical work, hosting international delegations, establishing and maintaining contacts with foreign countries, and participating in the activities of international organizations. Upon completion of their university course, International Relations graduates are expected to have mastered verbal interaction, negotiation and persuasion skills and to be able to handle interpersonal and public communication freely, comfortably and with ease. ESP skills form a crucial part of degree training in International Relations and may be included in the teaching content early into the university course (Rubtsova and Dobrova 2020).

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Corresponding author: Anastasia Tananykhina. St Petersburg University, 11 Lieutenant Shmidt Emb., St Petersburg 199034, Russia | E-mail: asya-tn@yandex.ru

ESP listening is acknowledged as one of the most complex skills to acquire for foreign language learners. Listening per se represents a multi-dimensional cognitive process involving numerous mental operations (analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction, to name just a few). Listening, in turn, is closely linked with speaking as in natural conversations participants take it in turns to talk and listen (Rogova and Vereschagina 1998). International Relations undergraduates and graduates have to practice various types of communicative listening in the course of their careers and during studying; one example is fielding questions during press conferences and briefings.

Students of English for International Relations are exposed to audio content in a variety of genres, ranging from news reports and lectures to documentaries and interviews with politicians. Each of these genres has its own distinctive features and poses unique challenges to ESP learners. Our research will focus on political interviews, a genre most commonly used for ESP listening, which provides an example of professional communication in real-life settings.

The reason for this research was the situation that came to light when the ESP teachers faced the problem of third-year students' unpreparedness for ESP listening and discussion of relevant political issues. The lack of knowledge of cultural, political and social realities and the lack of professional vocabulary create certain difficulties at ESP listening and speaking that can result in a more large-scale obstacle in developing communicative competence.

The goal of this research is to present a method for applying topic-based dialogue-interviews in ESP listening classrooms with the aim to develop listening and speaking skills as well as eliminate students' lexical and sociocultural unawareness. To reach the stated goals we elaborated four-phase method of ESP listening using as theoretical foundations the works of I.L Kolsenikova, O.A. Dolgina, B. Paltridge and S. Starfield.

2. Theoretical Background

Communicative language teaching is one of the most effective EFL methodologies today. The core principle of this approach lies in the similarity of the learning process with the real process of communication (Levchenko 2007). In other words, the communicative approach requires that language learning should be organized in such a way as to simulate real-life communication. Some activities most commonly associated with this approach are discussions, dialogues, debates, "snowball" exercises, student projects and interviews.

2.1. Sociocultural component

The sociocultural component features prominently in all areas of professional activity where English is used as a communication medium. For example, the sociocultural realities of a lawyer whose education was shaped by a Muslim culture and Shari'a law will differ from those of an expert in modern European law which is grounded in the Roman legal tradition; the two lawyers may also have differing perspectives on human rights and individual freedom. For an international relations professional, the knowledge of history, culture and traditions of other countries is absolutely vital as intercultural communication and can only be successful if built on mutual respect and understanding.

Sociocultural competence can therefore be construed as the sum of knowledge about the target country, its history, facts of its political and economic life, and key political figures. One of the most effective tools for the development of sociocultural competence for students of English for International Relations is independent student research, undertaken prior to performing actual listening comprehension assignments with the aim to collect the relevant background sociocultural information and place the listening assignment into context. For instance, students preparing to watch the interview with Omar Abdullah (Chief Minister of Jammu and Kashmir) on BBC’s HARDtalk may be requested to do some preliminary research on Omar Abdullah’s biography and his country, with a focus on the following questions:

1) *What is Omar Abdullah background and education?*
2) *Why is Jammu and Kashmir an unusual Indian state?*

The development of communicative competence relies on several drivers which are crucial to intercultural communication. These include student research and collection of sociocultural data about the target country; exposure to authentic audiovisual content about the problems faced by the target country; students’ proactive approach during the class; group discussions and opinion exchange as well as students’ argumentative monologues based on the audiovisual content. When combined, all of these drivers contribute to balanced improvement of students’ communicative competence in its linguistic, discursive and sociocultural dimensions.

2.2. Teaching ESP listening

Listening is a receptive language skill which involves perception, understanding and active processing of information contained in oral speech (Galskova and Gez 2015). ESL listening and ESP listening, doubtless, share many common features and cognitive mechanisms and require certain basic skills and knowledge. However, ESP listening also necessitates a plethora of specialist knowledge and skills to achieve comprehension of audiovisual content in narrower subject fields. The principal challenges for ESP listening students are accents, intonation, speech pace and specialist vocabulary.

To successfully cope with listening comprehension tasks, learners must possess three types of knowledge:

1. Linguistic knowledge (knowledge of phonology, vocabulary, grammar and syntax).
2. Discursive and pragmatic knowledge.
3. Factual knowledge (background or extralinguistic information) (Paltridge and Starfield 2013).

Adequate listening comprehension depends on the learner’s ability to perceive, identify and recognize English speech sounds as well as “convert” them into words and phrases. Knowledge of syntax and sentence structure is necessary for dividing oral utterances into meaningful parts. Finally, vocabulary knowledge facilitates students’ perception, segmentation and interpretation of spoken utterances.

ESP listening is based on two macro-skills: listening comprehension and listening/ speaking. Listening comprehension involves the ability to understand specific information as well as the key message and gist of the text, to work out the meaning of the utterance on the basis of linguistic and cultural knowledge, to apply prediction, to understand specific parts of the text while ignoring inessential details (Paltridge and Starfield 2013). Another important aspect of ESP listening for International Relations students is the need to comprehend a broad variety of accents since English, being a language of international communication and diplomacy, is frequently used by non-native speakers.

Interactive listening forms part of every oral verbal interaction, where the participants generally take turns to talk and listen (Kolesnikova and Dolgina 2001). For this reason, the skills associated with interactive listening partly overlap with speaking skills, such as the ability to choose appropriate turn-taking strategies, obtain and hold the floor or ask clarification questions.

Most modern methods of L2 instruction rely on a three-stage model for teaching listening comprehension. A brief overview of these stages is presented below:

1. **Pre-listening**. The purpose of this stage is to remove possible lexical and/or grammar obstacles to understanding the audio content; relevant background information is also presented and discussed. Typically, learners at the pre-listening stage will also be offered tasks to train their skills of prediction, e.g. *Predict/ Try to guess what the speakers will discuss*.

2. **Active listening**. This stage trains goal-oriented comprehension of spoken text (listening for gist, listening for detail, listening for specific information) and often involves activities like multiple choice exercises, gap filling, true-false statements or comprehension questions.

3. **Post-listening**. The stage following the active listening is used to develop a range of skills. This may involve practicing specialist vocabulary which occurred in the recording; learners may also be offered speaking and communication activities, engage in discussions based on the interview or exchange opinions about the conduct of the dialogue participants.

To teach International Relations students ESP listening we have introduced a fourth stage, which we have termed the **integrated skills phase**. The key goals at this stage are to review and apply the specialist vocabulary introduced during the previous three stages and to develop communicative skills by means of a dialogue-interview. The importance and effectiveness of incorporating role play into the learning process has been emphasized by many researchers, notably I.P.Gladilina, F.Leizinger, T.G.Liubimova, D.G.Mead and M.F.Stronin.

E.G.Azimov and A.N.Shchukin identified the following types of interviews:

- prepared interviews, based on a pre-set list of questions (the journalist usually records the interviewee's answers);
- interviews focusing on a single subject, problem or situation;
- extended interviews addressing a broad range of issues, held with the aim to obtain detailed in-depth information on a specific problem (Azimov and Schukin 2009).

A somewhat different classification of interviews was provided by E.A.Kostromina:

- informative interviews (focus on new facts; the interest in the interviewee is of lesser importance);
- expert interviews (solicit the opinion of an authority figure);
- problem interviews (focus on identifying and comparing different opinions on a specific problem);
- personal interviews (focus on the interviewee's personality) (Kostromina 2014).

All these types of interviews can be effectively used in ESP contexts. A well-selected mixture of interview types introduces variety to classroom work as well as helps to enrich students' vocabularies and rhetorical skills.

Although the authors cited above differ in their approaches to interview typology, both classifications refer to a form of interview that revolves around a particular issue or subject ("problem interview", in E.A.Kostromina's terminology). This group of interviews, herein referred to as topic-based dialogue-interviews, will be addressed in our research in more depth.

Topic-based dialogue-interviews is one of the most productive and effective tools for improving foreign language skills. There are few, if any, other genres of dialogue where interest in human individuality and the need for open interaction are manifested with more intensity than during a verbal exchange in authentic interview settings.

For purposes of this research, topic-based dialogue-interview will be defined as an exercise aimed at developing expressive speaking skills; it is a type of role play in realistic situations, where one of the students plays the part of a journalist approaching an interviewee (played by another student) for information. The "journalist" must organize the dialogue, plan and formulate the questions using the active vocabulary, and be able to support or challenge the "interviewee's" opinions. In other words, the "journalist's" task is to initiate and maintain a dialogue on the given subject, while ensuring effective psychosocial rapport with the "interviewee" and fostering an open and friendly atmosphere throughout the conversation.

Being a situation- and context-specific activity, topic-based dialogue-interviews provide vast opportunities for practicing the active language of the lesson in realistic contexts, "with all emotional intensity, spontaneity and goal-orientedness of natural face-to-face communication" (Yudin 1978).

Teaching foreign languages is geared towards forming communicative competence – a multifaceted concept which comprises, among others, linguistic, discursive and sociocultural dimensions (Kolesnikova and Dolgina 2001). In turn, the sociocultural dimension of communicative competence also incorporates diverse elements, including sociolinguistic, ethnocultural and cross-cultural ones (Solovova 2010).

Thus the issue of using topic-based dialogue-interview at ESP listening and speaking requireы a method based on the research that, firstly, defines a pool of problems that teachers and students face in the ESP classroom and, secondly, designs methodology of dealing with them.

3. Problems of ESP Listening

A range of difficulties and problems arise at ESP listening, but the most crucial ones are lexical difficulties and sociocultural unawareness. Lexical difficulties pose a particular problem for ESP students as each professional field involves a vast body of specialized vocabulary and terminology, which needs to be explored, learned and trained. Other features that may impede understanding for ESP listeners are idioms and allusions, which abound in political interviews; one good example is the phrase Queen of Hearts used by Russian Foreign Minister Sergei Lavrov during his BBC interview in reference to a character from Lewis Carroll's "Alice in Wonderland".

Sociocultural unawareness may create a substantial obstacle in ESP listening. Sociocultural competence includes knowledge about the target country, its history, facts of its political and economic life, social situation and key political figures. The lack of such knowledge can impede understanding for ESP listeners or lead to mistakes and misunderstanding. For example, while listening to the interview of Ali Amrullah Saleh without knowing basic facts about Taliban movement it can be hard to understand why the speaker, on the one hand, stresses the importance of peace talks with its representatives but, on the other, is rather cautious and does not sound very enthusiastic about such talks.

4. Methods and Activities

In the next sections of our paper, we will analyse the application of four-phase method of using topic-based dialogue-interviews in ESP listening settings among 3rd year students of Faculty of International Relations of Saint Petersburg State University and within the framework of this method we will design ways to eliminate lexical and sociocultural unawareness. The observations below are based on our experience of using a bank of interviews on the topic "Global Conflicts and Terrorism" in classes of English for International Relations; the BBC interview with Ali Amrullah Saleh is used as a case study. The key stages of the ESP listening activity organized around this content will be reviewed.

4.1. Pre-listening phase

To prepare students for listening to any interview, the teacher needs to address some obstacles which may hamper learners' understanding of the audio/video content. The first important step is to outline the key subjects covered in the interview and encourage the learners to research essential background information on these subjects. This extralinguistic information will sensitize the learners to the interview context and to the political realities which determine the overall tone of the conversation. The knowledge of background information also helps to understand the interviewee's reactions and the goals pursued by the journalist. Additionally, targeted information-gathering closes some knowledge gaps which can seriously impede comprehension of a political interview (e.g. references to political/ historical events; names of political, military or terrorist movements and their leaders).

One effective way of organizing learners' data research is to offer them a set of focus questions, for example:

Find information about the following:

1. *The history of the Taliban movement.*
2. *The goals of the Taliban and its recent activities.*
3. *An overview of the international involvement in Afghan affairs.*
4. *The current political situation in Afghanistan.*
5. *Common problems the country faces.*

To lift vocabulary barriers, a mix of out-of-class and classroom activities is used. In preparation for the subsequent listening activity, students are given a home assignment to compile a short glossary with the essential vocabulary relating to the background questions. The teacher prepares their own glossary using the interview vocabulary which may present difficulties for the learners. To further reduce the comprehension burden, students are offered a series of pre-listening vocabulary activities in class, such as matching exercises based on the teacher's glossary; see Fig. 1:

Match the parts to build combinations from the video

1.	To eradicate	a)	cultivation
1.	Mixed	a)	fighting terrorism
1.	Political	a)	intimidation
1.	Global frontline	a)	economy
1.	War exhausted	a)	poverty
1.	To have people	a)	country
1.	Opium	a)	in the field
1.	Viable	a)	bag
1.	Conspiracy	a)	theory
1.	Resort to	a)	meltdown

Fig.1 Pre-listening vocabulary activity

4.2. Active listening phase

Given that media interviews may be fairly long, several strategies can be used to fit the listening content to the available classroom time, for example:

1. Watch part of the interview (first 7-10 minutes)
2. Break down the interview into several segments, each followed by a different type of activity.

In this research, we chose to divide the interview with into parts of a convenient length which addressed different topics. The first part of the interview with Ali Amrullah Saleh covers Afghanistan's domestic problems; the second part reviews the international relations of the country. Some examples of the activities which may be offered at the active listening stage are presented below (see Fig. 2):

1a. Watch the presentation to the program and answer the following questions:
1. What event does the host mention?
2. How many Afghan soldiers died in the last five years?

1b. Watch the first part (up to 12.32 min) and answer the following questions
1. Does Mr. Saleh think that Afghanistan can keep fighting Taliban after the withdrawal of westen forces? Why?
2. How much territory does the government control? Does Mr. Amrullah Saleh agree with the statistics mentioned by the host**?**
3. What are the achievements of the government in the last 5 years?
4. What problems are still unsolved or aggravated?
5. What reasons does Mr. Saleh give for the government's failure to solve most problems?

1c. Watch the second part mark whether the statements are TRUE or FALSE
1. Afghanistan's relations with West are rather negative
2. ISIS is present in Afghanistan
3. Mr Saleh considers Pakistan one of the key allies
4. Mr Saleh isn't sure that Trump's administration will continue to support Afghanistan

Fig. 2. Active listening activities

4.3. Post-listening phase

The active listening stage may be followed by exercises providing students with opportunities to train the new vocabulary; see Fig.3:

Fill in the gaps with some words and phrases below.

Eradicate poverty, war-exhausted country, mixed bag, global frontline fighting terrorism

1. Now when western forces are withdrawing, it is really time for this ______________ to give peace a chance.
2. The government's achievements are a ____________. On the one hand, they managed to provide some kind of stability, but on the other, the poverty rate is increasing and the death toll is highest for the last 2 years.
3. The West should perceive Afghanistan not as a charity case, but as a partner, as a _____________________.

The U.S. military first began targeting Taliban narcotics facilities with airstrikes and Special Operations raids in November 2017 when ________________ jumped to record highs in Afghanistan

Fig. 3. Fill in the gaps exercise

The activities are aimed at training the following key vocabulary on the topic “Global Conflicts and Terrorism” (see Fig. 4):

Poverty , to eradicate poverty, Political/economic meltdown, Global frontline, Fighting terrorism, War exhausted country, Viable economy/country, Resort to intimidation, Conspiracy, To withdraw forces, To aggravate a situation, To flee homes, Opium cultivation etc

Fig. 4. Glossary

At the post-listening stage, the teacher formulates questions for discussion, e.g. *“What is your impression of the interviewee? Do you find his/her arguments convincing?”*. The discussion may take place in pairs, small groups or as a class activity, depending on the students’ level of English. Apart from developing oral communication skills, this exercise helps to contextualize and practice the active vocabulary on the topic “Global Conflicts and Terrorism” – a topic of particular interest for students of International Relations.

4.4. Intergrated skills phase

At the final stage of the activity, the learners break into pairs to roleplay the interview they were exposed to at the active listening stage. One of the students in each pair adopts the role of the journalist; the other takes the part of the Afghani Vice-President. The students are not required to reproduce the interview verbatim; they may reformulate the questions and even change the answers if they found the interviewee’s original responses unconvincing. The activity is divided into four stages.

1. Preparation and instructions. The teacher formulates the subject for the interview, prepares the handouts and provides clear instructions to the students, setting out the goals, objectives, time frame and expected outcome of the assignment. In our case, the subject of the interview is the current situation in Afghanistan; the goal of the task is to roleplay the conversation between the journalist and the Afghani Vice-President.

2. Task performance. If necessary, the active vocabulary and grammar may be revised under the teacher’s guidance prior to dialogue work. The students are then divided into pairs, with each pair receiving a set of role cards to be studied (one for the “journalist”, one for the “interviewee”), and the interview is roleplayed (time allocated for dialogue work: 8-10 minutes).

Sample card: Student A

You are a TV presenter. Ask the Vice-President about:

- Current political, social and economic situation in Afghanistan, recent attacks.
- Relations with the West and Pakistan.

Remember to

- introduce your guest;
- initiate the conversation;
- develop your own ideas and counterarguments;
- be polite.

Sample card: Student B

You are Vice-President of Afghanistan. Answer the TV presenter’s questions.

Remember to

- provide good arguments;
- emphasize your government’s achievements;
- create a positive image.

3. Presentation. The students perform their interviews in front of the class.

4. Analysis and conclusions. The teacher and students engage in a joint discussion, summarizing the results of the interview, analyzing errors and providing recommendations for subsequent interviews.

5. Discussion

To evaluate the effectiveness of the four-phase method in ESP listening we held a survey among third-year students of International Relations Faculty of Saint Petersburg State University who used this method at their ESP classes. At the initial stage of the survey, students were requested to report the difficulties they faced while watching or listening to topic-based political interviews. The findings supported and reinforced our theoretical considerations. The principal difficulties for the students were associated with unknown vocabulary and new realia (30% and 29% of the answers, respectively). Few of the students experienced grammar difficulties during listening comprehension activities. Speech pace and accent did present some challenges, although the accent caused less problems than could reasonably have been expected; see Fig. 5.

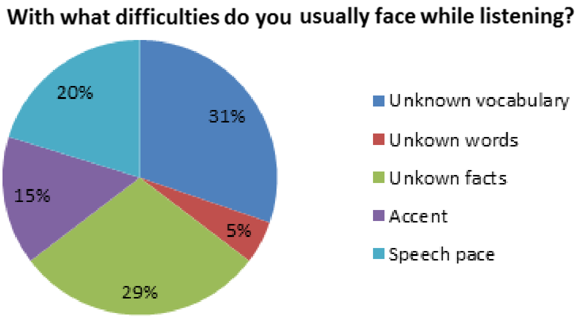

Fig 5 Difficulties while listening

The second stage of the survey was conducted upon completion of the activities based on Ali Amrullah Saleh's interview. The aim of this stage was to establish the work forms which most effectively relieved learner difficulties during the integrated skills phase, where students roleplayed their interviews. The survey findings suggest that during the active listening stage the students seemed to benefit most from the vocabulary exercises and the teacher's glossary combined with prior background data research (38% and 40% respondents, respectively). In the integrated skills phase, however, the factors which contributed to better comprehension were background information (40%), student glossaries (31%), and vocabulary exercises (30%). It may be concluded that background information was equally effective in alleviating learner difficulties both at the listening and discussion stages, whereas student glossaries proved less useful compared to vocabulary exercises and teacher glossaries. During the pair work, however, the situation was reversed, with student glossaries exceeding the teacher's glossary in effectiveness; see Fig. 6 and 7.

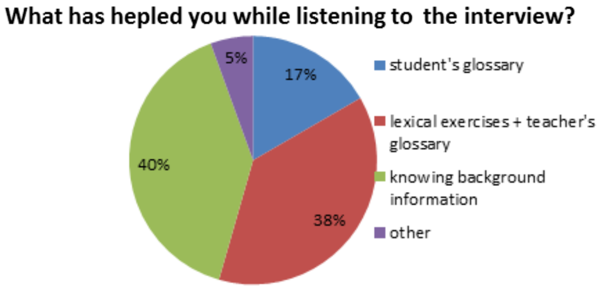

Fig. 6 What has helped while listening

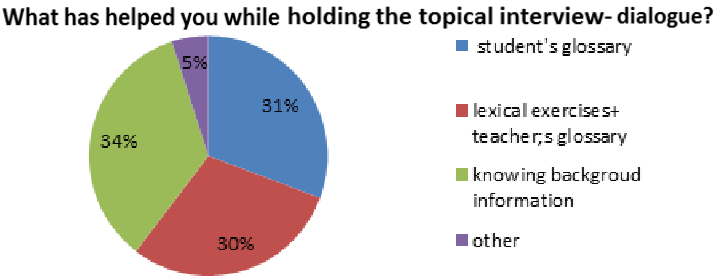

Fig. 7. What has helped while speaking

6. Conslusion

The research has shown that the four-phase method is more effective in the ESP teaching context as it enables to expose students to specialist vocabulary at the early stages of the listening activity; the vocabulary can then be practiced by means of various exercises aimed at improving students' communication skills (e.g. gap-filling, multiple choice, paraphrasing exercises). The pre-listening stage in ESP settings is usually longer and more diverse compared to ESL situations as it combines vocabulary extension activities with the development of students' sociocultural competence through targeted research. The active listening stage is inevitably more limited in terms of time and content; this stage is aimed at checking students' understanding of the audio content through a range of activities (multiple choice, matching, answering questions, gap filling, etc). The post-listening stage in ESP classrooms is, again, more extensive compared to ESL environments and involves focused vocabulary practice and gradual transition to speaking activities, where students will exchange opinions about the audio content (in case of topic-based interviews, the discussion will centre on the arguments and the conduct of the interview participants).

Finally, the integrated skills phase represents a synthesis of various language skills and focuses on language production; this is the stage when students can practice using the active vocabulary on the subject of the interview (here, "Global Conflicts and Terrorism") and develop their verbal reasoning, persuasion and interaction skills while expanding their sociocultural competence. This stage forms one of the key components of ESP listening activities and makes it possible to simulate situations of professional communication in highly realistic settings.

To deal with the problem of lexical and sociocultural unawareness there are two main methods. Dealing with lexical difficulties includes specially designed and pre-selected lexical exercises and compiling their own glossaries on the given topic by students while the search for background information eliminates sociocultural unawareness.

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Review research paper

MAIN DIFFICULTIES IN TRANSLATING CONTRACTUAL DOCUMENTATION (ENGLISH/RUSSIAN)

Lilia Timofeeva, Maria Morozova, Tamara Potapova

St Petersburg University, School of Foreign Languages,
Department of the English Language for Business and Law, Russia

Abstract. *The article is devoted to one of the most common translation problems in the sphere of law, namely finding the adequate equivalents in vocabulary, especially it concerns foreign terminology, in grammar and in text structure.*
While it is well-known that equivalence is one of the key concepts in translation, the research on practical applications of this principle in different professional spheres is still limited. With the rise of the interest to the machine translation, the special attention to the most common translation problems in the sphere of law can contribute to the overall understanding of the translation process. The methodological approach taken in this study is a mixed methodology based on comparative, structural, socio-linguistic and socio-cultural aspects of translation. The material presented in the article is based on the original contracts developed in English and Russian for the major oil and gas projects to be implemented in Russia 2006-2009. The examples of vocabulary, grammar and text structures equivalents can show the reasons for emergence of the main translation difficulties - polysemantic structure of some terms, absence of concept in either language, dependence of the meaning of the term on the context, idiomatic expressions, historically established traditions in legal text formation – emphasizing the idea that equivalence principle should be considered as a priority when translating contractual documentation.

Key words: *translation, adequacy, equivalency of translation, professional language, terminology, document structure, preamble*

1. INTRODUCTION

For the last decades due to the growth of globalization processes and the development of international collaboration the role of legal texts is increasing in connection with the intensive development of world markets.

A lot of linguistic researches both in Russia and abroad single out a special system of linguistic means catering for communication in law, i.e. legal language. However, the legal language is not homogeneous and includes various types of discourses. The Berlin-Branderburg Academy of Science research group for the legal language isolates even "the language norm in law, i.e. the regulations imposed on arguments in court, on legal translations, issues of linguistic signs"(Alimov,2005).

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Corresponding author: Lilia Timofeeva. St Petersburg University, School of Foreign Languages,
Department of the English Language for Business and Law, Russia | E-mail: lilytimofeyeva@yahoo.com

Legal English is mainly about writing. As Bryan Garner (Editor in Chief of Black's Law Dictionary and expert in Legal English) said, "90% of a lawyer's job is to write"[1]. So, we should imagine that the translator in the field of law would deal mainly with the written form of the legal language, various types of legal documents, including contracts. The translation of legal documents is regarded to be extremely challenging.

A famous German lawyer E. Rabel once said that in the process of comparative studies of different legal systems and acquiring the legal language one will inevitably face numerous problems connected with the necessity to convey the content of the legal text in one language into the other one maintaining the grammatical norms of the other (Fedorov,2002). Obviously, while translating the translator faces traditional problems connected polysemantic structure of some terms, absence of concept in either language, dependence of the meaning of the term on the context, idiomatic expressions.

In addition to the specificity of legal language and legal terminology, the differences between common and civil law systems provides some particular problems. As regards the challenges, Baker (Baker,1992) mentioned that the lack of verbal or functional equivalence in the target language is one of problems that faces legal translators, while Gyde Hansen (Hansen,2017) said that the translator's lack of knowledge of the modern theories and strategies of legal translation causes mistakes and problems in translation.

Also traditions in constructing legal documents, peculiar for every national legal system can be a problem. As an illustration – even if we are translating a legal document from Russian into English, we have to consider what variant of English and what legal system we are dealing with: UK English, or Welsh, or Scottish, or the USA one.

The review of literature on the problems of legal translation shows the majority of researchers consider the terminology, and translation of lexical units without connection with the text, context and situation of communication to be among the most typical ones (Levitan, 2015). The main difficulty in legal translation lies in the fact that translation of legal terminology means translation of one legal system into the other one. It is based on the fact that law is deeply imbedded into the national system of culture. And as a result we notice differences even in law systems of countries belonging to one and the same legal family (Pankratova, 2003). Some researchers state that these differences are the main cause of translation difficulties, all other ones being of a lesser scale. They stress the postulate that it is unacceptable to translate realities of one country with realities of the other (Alekseeva, 2014).

The aim of this article is to develop an understanding of the most typical problems in translation (on the example of legal documents) and the most widely used ways of translation, Being interpretative in nature it shows the difficulties a translator may face working with the legal documents and discusses possible solutions within the frames of , socio-linguistic and socio-cultural domains. The authors also give some practical guidelines for teaching legal translation.

[1] https://writtenlegalenglish.com/2019/08/05/what-is-legal-english/

2. To the Translation Theory

Translation in contrast to other ways of language interaction is employed for providing a rightful replacement of the original, moreover this replacement obtained in the process of translation is considered identical to the original text. Notwithstanding the fact, that to reach absolute identity in the process of translation is impossible, as losses are inevitable, due to differences in grammar, lexical and phonetic peculiarities of the original language and the language of the translation, together with the dissimilarities in cultures, history, background knowledge, specific features in reflecting the reality.

As it was mentioned above, there is no identity between the content of the original and the translation, the notion of equivalency was introduced, which may be interpreted as a notional proximity between the original and the translation. As it is extremely important to reach maximum congruence between these texts, the problem of equivalency of translation in general, and legal translation in particular becomes one of the most important and evident problems.

Nowadays the modern theory of translation comprises various approaches to the definition of equivalency. Some scientists insist on the necessity of including the condition of equivalency into the very notion of translation. For example, J. Katford, an English specialist in the theory of translation understands translation as “exchanging one text material in one language for an equivalent text material in another language” (Katford, 1978). Also, an American linguist E. Nida points out that translation means creating “the closest natural equivalent to the original” in the language of translation (Nida,1964).

All linguists specializing in the theory of translation state that the main criteria of an adequate translation (of a legal document in particular) are as such:

- Accuracy – all facts presented in the original should be stated in the translation;
- Conciseness – all facts presented in the original should be translated in a compact and laconic way;
- Clarity – concise and laconic translation should not hinder the fullness of the translation of the lexical units of the original;
- Literary character of translation – the text of the translation should answer all norms of the literary language, without the usage of syntactical constructions of the language of the original (Bazilev, 2000). In modern studies on the theory of translation one may find the terms – equivalency and adequacy of translation. Sometimes they are viewed as synonyms, sometimes they are considered to have different meaning. For example, in the article of R. Levitsky “To the principle of functional adequacy of translation”(Levitsky, 19884), whereas other authors differentiate these terms.

One of the most well-known specialists in the theory of translation, V. N. Komissarov, claims that equivalency and adequacy of translation are non-identical but closely related notions. He stated that adequate translation is broader in meaning than equivalent translation. Adequate translation is good translation, as it provides communication in full. Equivalent translation is the translation providing the semantic identity of the target and source texts. Two texts may be equivalent in meaning but not adequate (for example the original and the translation may differ in style, expressiveness , etc.) (Komissarov, 2002).

Another linguist – A. Shveitser – differentiates these terms as referring to two aspects of translation: translation as result and translation as process. He believes that we can speak of equivalent translation when we characterize the end-point (result) of translation, as we compare whether the translated text corresponds to the original text. Adequacy characterizes the process of translation. The translator aims at choosing the dominant text function, decides what s/he can sacrifice. Thus, adequate translation is the translation corresponding to the communicative situation (Shveitser, 1989).

Close to this understanding of translation adequacy is E. Nida's concept of dynamic equivalence, **"**aimed at complete naturalness of expression" and trying "to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture". Nida's principle of dynamic equivalence is widely referred to as the principle of similar or equivalent response or effect (Nida, 2004).

Y. Retsker states that the notion of adequate translation comprises that of equivalent. According to him, an adequate target text describes the same reality as does the source text and at the same time it produces the same effect upon the receptor (Retsker, 1982).

We share the views of V. N. Komissarov on relations between the notions of adequacy and equivalence, as well as his views on existence of levels of equivalency together with his idea of paying much attention to particular circumstances of communication, which plays a vital role in establishing the level of equivalency.

According to Komissarov the relations of equivalency between corresponding levels of original and translation are being established in the process of translation. The studies of the levels of equivalency possess not only theoretical importance, but they are significant for practice of translation, as they allow to measure the degree of closeness to the original, which a translator may reach in the process of translation (Komissarov,1990). The problem is in detection and analysis of the degree of accuracy of rendering the content of the original text employing the means of another language. Traditionally we distinguish three types of translation: adequate, literal and free (Komissarov,1990).

3. Types of Translation

Let us look at the types of translation more precisely. What do we understand under each type of translation?

Adequate translation is the translation which is conducted on a level, necessary and sufficient for rendering the content according to the norms of the language of translation. Literary translation is a word-for-word translation; it is of a lower level than an adequate one, as it allows various grammatical, lexical, stylistic and other types of violations of norms of the language of translation. Free translation is considered as a translation of a higher level regarding the level of word-for-word translation, which may be considered a reference point of evaluating the quality of translation. Free translation does not violate the norms of the language of translation, but its level of equivalency is not high enough. This is acceptable while translating fiction, but not acceptable in the case of technical and legal translation. Everyday practice shows that in translation of technical and legal texts the literary type of translation is mostly used. It ensures exact translation of terminology, which are in abundance in the texts of these kinds, but on the other hand, we should not forget that "the text of the translation never will be an absolute equivalent of the original text" (Katford,1978). This leads us to understanding that it is the adequate type of translation, which combines a high quality exact translation of terminology and professional vocabulary and follows the rules and norms of the Russian language as the language of translation, is the best type of translation. However, we also should mention that still we face certain difficulties in translation of legal texts.

Let us look at peculiarities of legal texts which distinguish this kind of special translation.

Legal texts possess a lot of legal terms, which are translated into the Russian language as word combinations (remedy - средство судебной защиты SREDSTVO SUDEBNOY ZASHCHTI, deterrence — средство удержания устрашением от совершения преступных действий SREDSTVO UDERZHANIYA USTRASHENIEM OT SOVERSHENIYA PRESTUPNIKH DEYSTVIY, indictment — обвинительный акт OBVINITEKNIY AKT etc.)

The written and oral legal texts possess peculiar idiomatic and phraseological expressions which either are seldom or never used in general literary language to make default — I. не исполнять обязанности NE ISPOLNYAT' OBYAZANNOSTI, 2. не являться в суд NE YAVLYATSYA V SUD; Marshal of the court — судебный исполнитель SUDEBNIY ISPOLNITEL'; to meet claim — оспаривать иск OSPARIVYAT' ISK etc.).Also there is an abundance of elliptical constructions, strictly regulated usage of verbal forms and constructions, usage of Latin words and expressions (: mens rea — виновная воля VINOVNAYA VOLYA, вина VINA; stare decisis — обязывающая сила прецедентов OBYAZIVAYSHCHAYA SILA PRETSENDENTOV etc).

Legal texts exploit many abbreviations, many of which are used only in legal texts and documents: ALJ — Administrative Law Judge — судья административного суда SUD'YA ADMINISTRATIVNOGO SUDA; USJC — United States Judicial Code — кодекс законов США о судоустройстве KODEKS ZAKONOV SSHA O SUDOUSTROISTVE; CtApp - Court of Appeal — апелляционный суд APPELYATSIONNIY SUD etc.

Moreover while translating legal texts we should remember that every country not only possesses its own legal system but also its own legal terminology and realities: for example - город-графство GOROD-GRAFSTVO in England is County of city (of town), county — графство GRAFSTVO, а город GOROD - округ OKRUG in the USA - a metropolitan town; county — округ OKRUG, court of error — апелляционный суд APPELYATSIONNY SUD(in some states of the USA) etc.

But the core of translation is definitely correct translation of terminology which requires deep personal knowledge and in the case of difficulty professional dictionaries and glossaries.

Analysis of modern studies of ways of translation shows that we may single out the most popular ways of translation of legal terminology are transcription and transliteration, especially when terms contain personal names - LDC – Limited Duration Company – Компания с ограниченным сроком – KOMPANYA S OGRANICHENNIM SROKOM, then we mention direct word for word translation - Queen's Counsel – Советник Короны - SOVETNIK KORONI, a less popular joint method (when transliteration\transcription is used together with word for word translation) - International Maritime Dangerous Go- ods Code – Международный морской перечень опасных грузов – MEZHDUNARODNIY MORSKOY PERECHEN' OPASNIKH GRUZOV. Rather popular are lexical –semantic transformations - offence – правонарушение PRAVONARUSHENIE, or damage to property – нанесение ущерба собственности – NANESENYE USHCHERBA SOBSTVENNOSTI (Osakve,2011).

All above mentioned may be considered as general peculiarities or general methods of translation of legal texts, which are in abundance: acts, directives, codes, treaties, licenses, contracts. But at the same time all of them have their own special features of translation techniques. We decided to devote this article to a more detailed description of contracts translation.

4. Translating Contracts

Professor Richard Wydick, the author of a popular book on legal writing gives the following definition: “We, lawyers, do not use plain English, we use eight words instead of two, we use secret phrases for expressing common ideas. In order to become accurate we became excessive, to become cautious, we became too verbose ”(Baker,1992).

On the one hand, legal texts are not super difficult, as they do not contain words and expressions that cannot be translated; they have clear structure; they avoid emotionally colored vocabulary. All this makes the translation easier. On the other hand, the fact, that such texts are filled with elements of terminological system and professional language of law, complicates the process of translation.

It is easy to believe that high qualifications of a translator, and ideally, his or her law degree, may help to resolve these problems. Unfortunately, everything is much more difficult, and one’s knowledge of terminology is not sufficient: there exist differences in how one and the same notion is transmitted in different legal systems, also one should consider cultural and language differences in established standards of business documentation in a foreign and the Russian languages.

G. Vermeer in 1970-80-s gave two approaches to the translation of the text of the Treaty of Guarantee as an example. He noted that if it is necessary that the Treaty of Guarantee in English should have legal power in the Federal Republic of Germany, it should be exchanged for a text constructed according to the rules of composing documents of such type in the Federal Republic of Germany. However, if someone in the Federal Republic of Germany would like to get acquainted with the rules of execution of the Treaty of Guarantee in the USA, the approach should be different: translation should reproduce all aspects of the content of the original with detailed clarification of fragments, difficult for understanding due to existing differences in legal systems of both countries (Sarcevic, 2000). It means that a legal document should not only be translated but its structure should also be adopted to the rules of the language of translation.

Translation of contracts is considered to be one of the most common and most complex types of translation. Contract is a formal writing which contains the agreement of parties with the terms and conditions and serves as a proof of the obligation (Dictionary of Contemporary English 2009). Translating contracts one should take into account not only legal terminology, but also the compliance of the translated text with the legal system of the country in which the contract was written. To achieve this, an adequate experience in the translation of legal terminology, as well as knowledge of the legislative system of the country in which the contract was written is needed. Translating a contract, one may face not only linguistic challenges, but also the particularities of the judicial systems of both countries. There exist many contract types: sales and purchase agreements; supply contracts; power supply contracts; real-estate property contracts; real property contracts; service agreements; rental and lease agreements, patent and know-how license agreements; deeds of gift; articles of association and others.

Contract (lat. *contractus*) is known to be a business document presenting an agreement approved and signed by two or more parts. Legal contracts are made in writing. When striking a deal, standard contracts are widely used. Standard contracts are not a must. Some articles can be altered and supplemented. There exists a proper set of items which are of the greatest importance in any contract: number of a contract; place and date of signing; names of the Sides signing the contract; subject of the contract; quality of goods; price; destination; delivery time; requirements for packing and marking; payment terms; conditions of submission and acceptance of goods; transport conditions; warranty conditions and sanctions; arbitration conditions; force majeure; judicial addresses of the Sides; signatures of the Seller and the Buyer. All appendices form an integral part of the contract[2].

The language of contracts is agreed upon by both sides. It is evident that information and style are kept the same not depending on the language of textual varieties of contracts. Contracts are divided into administrative-managerial, financial-economical, advertising, scientific-technical, and artistic-publication contracts. Functional spheres of their circulation can be easily guessed from names of contract types in this classification, and are the subject of economic, rather than linguistic study[3].

We can divide the peculiarities the language of contracts into lexical, stylistic and grammatical ones. Let us start with stylistic features of the language of contracts. The contracts should be – clear, concise, informative, logical, unemotional, possess clear division into chapters, paragraphs and points, often numbered.

From the lexical point of view the contracts usually include abbreviations, terms, clichés, sometimes foreign words (mainly from Latin, French). Let us present some examples:

The old-fashioned legal formulae such as HEREOF/THEREOF, HEREIN/THEREIN, HEREAFTER, HEREUNDER and related adverbs. These formal wordings are often used in legal language.

Also we may mention doublets, triplets, synonyms and quasi-synonyms, such as HAVE and HOLD, TERMS and CONDITIONS, FULL,TRUE and CORRECT or even TO ENABLE, ASSIST, PROMOTE and PROMULGATE. In making a decision which of the words to use a translator should bear in mind that in law each word may carry different meaning and therefore certain legal consequence (Popov, 2009).

As for grammatical side – they use definite syntactical models (but complicated and formal, also numerous paragraph divisions), including an abundance of verbals, passive constructions, prepositional phrases, modals and certain linkers. For example, among the most typical grammar problems we may notice:

- Pro-forms. The use of pro-forms belonging to different parts of speech (THE SAME, THE SAID, THE AFOREMENTIONED, THE FOREGOING, etc.) is one of the legal language. They are frequently used to refer to different parts of the document and suggest economical way of laying down the text. However they are defined as archaic and adding nothing to the normal equivalents like THE, THIS/THESE or THAT/THOSE.
- AND/OR. The formulation AND/OR is frequently used in legal documents, but can in certain situations lead to ambiguity. The reason for this is that the use of AND and OR together is often confusing, as each party may use the possibility to pick either AND or OR as the most favourable interpretation which is unacceptable as it undermines the principle of accuracy of the special text.
- Abundant use of passive forms. Statistics shows that approximately one quarter of all verbal constructions in legal English (including the grammar of contracts) are passive forms. For example: IF THE BILL IS PAID WITHIN ______________ (NUMBER OF DAYS), THEN THERE WILL BE A _______________ %

[2] (https://elib.bsu.by/bitstream/123456789/230807/1/moreva_turlo_Lang_practice_2018_v2.pdf - 24.02.21)
[3] (https://elib.bsu.by/bitstream/123456789/230807/1/moreva_turlo_Lang_practice_2018_v2.pdf - 22.02.21)

DISCOUNT OFF THE TOTAL AMOUNT DUE; PRICES MAY BE CHANGES BY SELLR TO SELLER'S PRICES CHARGES TO OTHER CUSTOMERS ON THE DATE OF DELIVERY.

- The problems of choice between SHALL/WILL. In legal documents SHALL and WILL are usually distinguished – SHALL is often used for party obligations, but the contract policy is referred to thru WILL, which means that both words are found in one text in the English language, while in the Russian text the present tense is used to describe obligations, rights and duties of the contracting parties (Stepanova, Kiseleva,2014).

Syntactical challenges include complexity of syntax, conditional and hypothetical formulations, different types of negation mixed with other kinds of logical links within the text, repetition and abundant descriptive phrases, etc. (Adams, 2013).

Some researchers who specialize on legal translation state, that while translating contracts (as other legal documents) it is vital to distinguish form and content, as we need to adapt the functional part of the contract so as it correlates with the target language and preserve the content so as it remains true to the original. To perform this distinction one should separate formulaic language from the contract information. In this case the formulaic language usually includes: set formulas, clichés, structural elements (such as numbering), headings (of clauses, sections and the contract as such), certain sentence structures (Lynn, 2017). We fully agree with this idea, as the skill of distinguishing form and content not only will save time of the translator, but in general will make it easy to navigate and understand the original document.

It is obvious that each group of peculiarities of the language of contracts can contain certain difficulties in translation. For example, set formulas, clichés may cause problems as they evolve from legal system. If we change the system we may have to change the words used to express a function.

Sometimes contracts contain non-equivalent concepts which are not known in the legal system of the target language, which makes the translator responsible for getting their meaning across to the readers so that they can understand the contract. The main techniques being – term researching, which in its term includes: understanding the term in the source text –getting the meaning from the context, a dictionary, other similar texts, looking for translation, usually in bilingual resources, looking for definitions, usually in monolingual resources, comparing definitions and finally making a decision – to use one of the translations found, create a new one, or adapt one that was found, or even do further research. (Lynn, 2017).

Further on we would like to look at some of the difficult points in translation of contracts in more details. As it might have become obvious, that problems arising in the process of translation are varied and great in number. So, we will limit ourselves with illustrations of some difficulties in translating formulaic words and expressions, some of them being connected with differences with legal systems and legal text formation.

4.1. Russian Counterpart of Contract

In case of contracts we immediately face a problem: how to translate the very word "contract" into Russian: as it can be translated as КОНТРАКТ [KONTRAKT], and as ДОГОВОР [DOGOVOR], and the English "agreement" can be translated as ДОГОВОР [DOGOVOR] and СОГЛАШЕНИЕ [SOGLASHENIE]. The thing is the Civil Code of the Russian Federation does not possess such a notion as KONTRACT [CONTRACT]. It allows to use the word KONTRAKT officially only in one case: when speaking about the federal and municipal commissioning, such as ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ КОНТРАКТ [GOSUDARSTVENNIY KONTRAKT] *(state contract)*, МУНИЦИПАЛЬНЫЙ КОНТРАКТ [MUNITSIPALNIY KONTRAKT] *(city contract)*. This helps to resolve the first issue. However, if the document for translation is titled "agreement, we encounter the other dilemma DOGOVOR *(agreement)* or SOGLASHENIE *(agreement)*?

Table 1. Dogovor or Soglashenie?

English	Russian	Transliteration
Engineering **Contract**	**Договор** подряда на выполнение проектных работ	DOGOVOR PODRYADA NA VIPOLNENIE PROEKTNIKH RABOT
Construction **Contract**	**Договор** подряда на строительство	DOGOVOR PODRYADA NA STROITEL'STVO
Confidentiality **Agreement**	**Соглашение** о неразглашении/ конфиденциальности	SOGLASHENIE O NERAZGLASHENII/ KONFIDENSTIAL'NOSTI
Licensing **Agreement**	Лицензионный **договор**/ Лицензионное **соглашение**	LITSENZIONNIY DOGOVOR/ LITSENZIONNOE SOGLASHENIE
Agency **Agreement**	Агентский **договор**	AGENTSKIY DOGOVOR

The same kind of problem is arisen when it is necessary to translate from Russian into English. In many cases contracts need supplementary agreements. There a translator should remember that there are different variants: if we translate the basic DOGOVOR as CONTRACT, then DOPOLNITELNOE SOGLSHENIE as supplementary AGREEMENT. But if the basic DOGOVOR is represented as AGREEMENT, then DOPOLNITELNOE SOGLSHENIE *(supplementary agreement)* will be translated as Addendum.

Any contract or agreement usually has exhibits of different kind, which are integral part of such contract or agreement. The thing is there are seven synonyms in English meaning 'a thing to be added'[4]:

Exhibit
Schedule
Annex
Appendix
Addendum
Supplement
Attachment

ПРИЛОЖЕНИЕ (PRILOZHENIE)

[4] https://www.dictionary.com/browse/addendum?s=t

To make it worse national preferences exist, such as the Americans prefer ‘Schedule’ and ‘Exhibit’, while the British prefer ‘Exhibit’ and ‘Annex’, and Russians (when translating) commonly use ‘Attachment’.

The real disaster occurs when the text simultaneously contains such cases as ‘Attachment to Annex 1 of Exhibit 2 hereof’. Poor translators have to employ all their creativity as the Russian language does not contain so many synonyms to the word ‘exhibit’ (*prilozhenie*) as the English language has.

Attachment to **Annex** 1 of **Exhibit** 2 hereof	**Дополнение** к **Дополнительному приложению** 1 **Приложения** 2 к настоящему Договору	(DOPOLNENYE K DOPOLNITEL’NOMU PRILOZHENIYU 1 PRILOZHENIYA 2 K NASTOYASHCHEMU DOGOVORU)

The only possible recommendation can be as follows: before you start translating you should scan the whole text and find out what terms are employed in the English text of a contract/ agreement, so as to select necessary equivalents. While translating from Russian into English we are free from such problems, as we have already mentioned, the Russian language possesses only two variants – “приложение” (PRILOZHENIE) and ‘дополнение’ (DOPOLNENIE), while English has seven ones.

The contracts drawn up by continental lawyers usually use the term "preamble", but only to refer to it. In the same contract text you will never find the word "preamble", usually preambles are unnamed. In contracts drafted by the UK or U.S. lawyers, you may find a plurality of terms, "PREAMBLE", "RECITALS" or "WHEREAS CLAUSES", less commonly "INTRODUCTION" or "BACKGROUND", it is usually marked and for all the variety of terms in Russian we have only one word to use in translation, namely ‘ПРЕАМБУЛА’ (PREAMBULA).

4.2. “What Means my Name to You”, or some notes about names

Since we are talking about contracting documentation, there are parties to the contract and in most cases such parties are businesses which have their names. The company names are most often translated by transliteration or transcription, or a mixture of these methods. The only exception, when a company has a registered name in Russian and English, which any translator should check at the official website of the company. Therefore, the plant "Zvezda" does not turn into a plant STAR, and "Krasny treugolnik" into RED TRIANGLE, which are literal translations of these businesses. Often the translators prefer to leave the names in the Russian text of the contract in English, and it seems reasonable, and it is allowed by the local laws.

The other thing to remember is that according to the rules of the Russian language the name of the company is written in quotes, and even if you leave the name of the company in English, it shall be in quotation marks, e.g. Компания "Shell" *(company)* and in English, on the contrary, the quotes disappear, because according to the rules of the English language names are written without quotes "ГАЗПРОМ" = GAZPROM.

If the name is written in capital letters, then during translation it remains in capital letters.

The abbreviations denoting the legal form of companies: ПАО, АО, ООО, or abbreviations Ltd, PLC, LLC, LC in English, Gmbh for German companies, S.p.A for Italian companies, etc. are transliterated or kept in the original language. The thing is the business forms of Russia do not fully coincide with business forms of other countries in legal terms. By translating the business form of any entity you turn a company of one jurisdiction into a company of another. The abbreviations of business forms is not only a part of the company name, but also a marker of its national affiliation. If potential partners want to find the company in the registry, and naturally in Russian, they will have to break their minds, which means PJSC specified by you instead of ПАО (PAO) or LLC instead of OOO. Thus, the authoritative sources, including the English courts, give the abbreviations of Russian businesses in transliteration. So, the business names should be transliterated into Russian in quotation marks with the foreign name in brackets, and be guided by the registration documents, and in the absence of such documents - transliterate by the rules. For example,

Original	Translation
United Systems, Inc.	«Юнайтед Системз, Инк.»
Shell, LP	«Шелл» LP (or ЛП)
LUKOIL Overseas, Gmbh	«ЛУКОЙЛ Оверсиз», Gmbh
ПАО «Газпром»	PAO Gazprom
ПАО «Лукойл»	PAO Lukoil

It is worth mentioning, that in English the abbreviation of the business form is written after the name of a company and remains in the same place in translation and vice versa for Russian companies.

The translation is necessary if the business form is given in full form

Original	Translation
Общество с ограниченной ответственностью	Limited Liabilities Company
Публичное акционерное общество	Public Limited Company
Акционерное общество	Public Company/ Join Stock Company

4.3. Translate or Not Translate, or how to Deal with Addresses and Numerals

All postal addresses in the contract shall be transliterated while keeping the foreign variant in parentheses.

Original	Translation
TECHNIP ITALY S.p.A, a company organized under the laws of Italy, and *having a registered office* at **V.le Castello della Magliana, 68 – 00148 Rome, Italy**	«ТЕКНИП ИТАЛИЯ» С.п.А, компания, зарегистрированная в соответствии с законодательством Италии, *юридический адрес*: **В. Ле Кастелло делла Маглиана, 68-00148, Рим, Италия** (V.le Castello della Magliana, 68 – 00148 Rome, Italy)

The English ‘having a registered office’ or ‘having a principal place of business at’ shall be rendered as ‘юридический адрес’ (YURIDICHESKY ADRES [*legal address*]) or ‘адрес регистрации’ (ADRES REGISTRATSI [*registration*], and here the law failed to provide a clear answer to a translator. The RF Civil Code does not define a legal address, but there is a registration address. On the other hand, there are a number of regulatory documents that use the term legal address.

It would seem that it should not be difficult to translate figures. It wasn't there! Although the numbers themselves do not change, the format of their designation is undergoing some changes. Thus, in English, thousands should be distinguished by commas, and decimal fraction BY dots. In Russian, thousands are distinguished by spaces, and decimal fractions by commas.

$4,567.42 = 4 567,42 долларов США

In English numerals are stated at words first and then in figures in parentheses, in Russian it is vice versa.

Orginal	Translation
shall remain in force **twelve (12)** years	действительны в течение **12 (двенадцати)** лет
for a period not exceeding **ninety (90)** business days	не более **90 (девяносто)** рабочих дней

As you see, a translator has to remember a lot of ‘minor’ things when translating a contract, though these requirements stay true and for other kinds of translation, not only legal.

5. Contract Design and Translation

Very often contracts in two languages are executed in two columns mirroring each other. Then there are no changes in the design when translating. Referred to:

CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT	**СОГЛАШЕНИЕ О КОНФИДЕНЦИАЛЬНОСТИ**
This AGREEMENT dated and effective the day 10th of December, 2016 (hereinafter referred to as the “EFFECTIVE DATE”)	Настоящее СОГЛАШЕНИЕ датированное и вступающее в силу 10 декабря 2016 года (именуемая в дальнейшем «ДАТА ВСТУПЛЕНИЯ СОГЛАШЕНИЯ В СИЛУ»)
BY AND BETWEEN	МЕЖДУ
TECHNIP ITALY S.p.A, a company incorporated under the laws of Italy and having an office at V.le Castello della Magliana, 68 – 00148 Rome, Italy (hereinafter referred to as the “DISCLOSING PARTY”),	**«ТЕКНИП ИТАЛИЯ» S.p.A,** компанией, зарегистрированной в соответствии с законодательством Италии, по адресу: Италия, Рим, В.ле Кастелло делла Маглиана, 68, 00148 (V.le Castello della Magliana, 68 – 00148 Rome, Italy) (именуемая в дальнейшем «РАЗГЛАШАЮЩАЯ СТОРОНА»),
on the one hand,	с одной стороны

AND **PAO GAZPROM** , a company incorporated under the laws of the Russian Federation and having an office at 25, ul Krasnogo Oktyabrya, St. Petersburg, Russia, 199000 (ул. Красного Октября, 25, Санкт-Петербург, Россия, 199000) (hereinafter referred to as the “RECEIVING PARTY”),	и **ПАО «ГАЗПРОМ»**, компанией, зарегистрированной в соответствии с законодательством Российской Федерации по адресу: ул. Красного Октября, 25, Санкт-Петербург, Россия, 199000 (именуемая в дальнейшем «ПОЛУЧАЮЩАЯ СТОРОНА»)
on the other hand,	с другой стороны,
(hereinafter collectively referred to as the “PARTIES”)	(в дальнейшем совместно именуемыми «СТОРОНЫ»)

Now let compare the execution of the same contract as two separate copies

CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

THIS AGREEMENT dated and effective the day 10th of December, 2016 (hereinafter referred to as the “EFFECTIVE DATE”)

BY AND BETWEEN

TECHNIP ITALY S.p.A, a company incorporated under the laws of Italy and having an office at V.le Castello della Magliana, 68 – 00148 Rome, Italy, on the one hand,

AND

PAO GAZPROM, a company incorporated under the laws of the Russian Federation and having an office at 25, ul Krasnogo Oktyabrya, St. Petersburg, Russia (ул. Красного Октября, 25, Санкт-Петербург, Россия, 199000), (hereinafter referred to as the “RECEIVING PARTY”), on the other hand,
hereinafter collectively referred to as the “PARTIES”

СОГЛАШЕНИЕ О КОНФИДЕНЦИАЛЬНОСТИ

г. Санкт-Петербург «10»___декабря_ 2016 года

«ТЕКНИП ИТАЛИЯ» S.p.A, компания, зарегистрированная в соответствии с законодательством Италии, по адресу: Италия, Рим, В.ле Кастелло делла Маглиана, 68, 00148 (V.le Castello della Magliana, 68 – 00148 Rome, Italy), (именуемая в дальнейшем «РАЗГЛАШАЮЩАЯ СТОРОНА») с одной стороны и **ПАО «ГАЗПРОМ»**, компания, зарегистрированная в соответствии с законодательством Российской Федерации по адресу: ул. Красного Октября, 25, Санкт-Петербург, Россия, 199000 (именуемая в дальнейшем «ПОЛУЧАЮЩАЯ СТОРОНА»), совместно именуемые «Стороны»

Please note that when executing the contract in Russian, the date and place of signing are specified on the upper left and right sides, respectively, and in English, the place of signing is specified at the end of the contract, and the date is written in the first line. The other question usually asked by future translators 'but what about the phrase *hereinafter referred to as the "EFFECTIVE DATE"*), which is omitted in our example. It will be written at the end of the contract, as is customary in Russian practice or as a separate article or will appear in the "Definitions" section, which is found in most contracts. See the example, when it is provided in Article Definitions of a contract:

EFFECTIVE DATE	**ДАТА ВСТУПЛЕНИЯ ДОГОВОРА В СИЛУ**
EFFECTIVE DATE of the CONTRACT shall be the date of its signing by the PARTIES.	Дата подписания настоящего договора СТОРОНАМИ является ДАТОЙ ВСТУПЛЕНИЯ ДОГОВОРА В СИЛУ.

6. Conclusion

The translation of legal texts cannot be done without regarding legal-cultural concepts and differences between legal systems. The level of equivalence of the terms depends on the extent of relatedness of the legal systems and not on that of the languages involved. Translators should not only possess general knowledge of legal terminology, they should also be well versed in statutory requirements and the legal intricacies of foreign cultural and legal systems (Katford,1978).

The text depends on cultural peculiarities and mentality of the nation, the distinctive features of its law system, which may lead to the situation when the idea of the text in the original language will not correspond to the idea of the text in the translation language even in the case of absolutely word-for-word interpretation, all the above mentioned proving the vital importance of studying socio-linguistic and socio-cultural aspects of translation.

But alongside with cultural and legal differences we should mention pure linguistic problems, as for example, problems with translation which are connected with polysemantic structure of some terms, absence of concept in either language, dependence of the meaning of the term on the context, idiomatic expressions, historically established traditions in legal text formation.

In general we may say, that out of the above mentioned difficulties, for the translator experiencing problems in translating legal texts, the core one is that the translation language lacks verbal constructions which can adequately render the terms of the original language (Proshina, 2008).

Dr Šarčević describes the legal translation as "not just a translation, but a translation from one legal system into another legal system" (Sarcevic, 2000). Certainly there are ways out: comprehensive full dictionaries, glossaries, databases comparing forms of legal documents in various countries, but the most effective and easiest way is that the translator should use all possibilities to enrich their vocabulary studying possible lexical equivalents to words and phrases, idiomatic expressions and the most widely used clichés.

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